

1       **Culture and Stress Coping: Cultural Variations in the Endorsement of Primary and**  
2       **Secondary Control Coping for Daily Stress Across European Canadians, East Asian**  
3       **Canadians, and the Japanese**

4  
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### Abstract

People’s daily stress experiences differ across cultures. The current study examined how people cope with daily stress by applying primary and secondary control coping and how people change their strategies across situations (actual vs. ideal situations). European Canadians (n = 100), East Asian Canadians (n = 98), and the Japanese (n = 103) read 40 stress scenarios and judged their endorsement of stress coping strategies based on their actual primary and secondary control coping usage in the past, as well as their ideal preference of each coping strategy for each stress scenario. We examined whether primary versus secondary control coping usage differs across cultural groups. The results indicated the following. (a) European Canadians showed an overall usage for primary control coping over secondary control; however, there was no selection of primary control coping over secondary control coping for East Asian Canadians or the Japanese. (b) All cultural groups preferentially endorsed primary control coping over secondary control coping for their ideal preference of coping strategy. Nevertheless, the Japanese still showed more preference for endorsing secondary control coping as an ideal coping strategy compared to European Canadians. (c) There were mediational relationships between culture, independence, and the primary–secondary difference in control coping. (d) East Asian Canadians demonstrated a unique coping pattern, and we inferred that it reflected their multicultural

Key words: culture, stress, coping strategies, primary and secondary control coping, independent versus interdependent social orientations. identity.

46 As a student, you find the deadline of a term paper fast approaching and realize that you are  
47 also unprepared for other final exams. As a food server, you made a mistake on a client's order,  
48 and the customer starts yelling as you try to resolve the situation professionally. How would  
49 you cope in these day-to-day scenarios that elicit stress? Daily stress stemming from work,  
50 family, friendship, and other events, such as purchasing goods, commuting, and socializing, can  
51 have a complex effect on people's psychological and physical well-being (Bolger, DeLongis,  
52 Kessler, & Schilling, 1989). Stress can be subjectively interpreted according to a person's  
53 emotional and physical reactions towards the situation (Lazarus & Folkman, 1984).

54

55 Meanwhile, culture also shapes our interpretation of daily stressful experiences (Lee, Masuda,  
56 Ishii, Yasuda, & Ohtsubo, 2021). In line with previous investigations, the present study  
57 investigates cultural variations in stress coping by targeting three cultural backgrounds:  
58 European Canadians, East Asian Canadians, and the Japanese. We investigated to what extent  
59 people from different cultural groups endorse primary and secondary control coping as their  
60 stress coping strategy (Chun et al., 2006). In addition, we investigated whether people's actual  
61 coping strategies differ from their ideal coping strategies.

62

### 63 **Culture, Social Orientations, and Stress**

64 Over the past 40 years, cultural psychologists have examined variations in psychological  
65 processes across cultures. Findings suggest systematic cultural variations in cognition, emotion,  
66 and motivation between North Americans and East Asians (Markus & Kitayama, 2010; Masuda,  
67 2017; Masuda et al., 2019; Varnum et al., 2010). Under the rubric of independent versus  
68 interdependent social orientations, researchers discuss how socially shared worldviews influence  
69 basic psychological processes (Varnum et al., 2010). In Western cultures (e.g., European-descent  
70 North Americans), people tend to hold independent social orientations that emphasize autonomy,  
71 self-direction, and self-expression; they perceive themselves as separate from others. On the  
72 other hand, people from East Asian cultures (e.g., Chinese, Japanese, and Koreans) tend to share  
73 interdependent social orientations that emphasize harmony and relatedness while perceiving  
74 themselves as interconnected through relationships. Literature on culture and well-being  
75 suggested that people's experiences related to daily stress and mental health are influenced by the  
76 endorsement of independent and interdependent social orientations (Chentsova-  
77 Dutton et al., 2010; Ryder et al., 2008). Extending this line of research revolving around  
78 distress to our observation of daily stress, we assume that daily stress experiences differ

79 across cultures. Therefore, we expect different cultural groups' stress coping to be different  
80 across cultures. To date, there is little research that directly answers this question.

81

### 82 **Control Orientations, Control Coping Strategies, and Perceived Distress**

83 People generally endorse two types of control orientations: primary and secondary control  
84 (Rothbaum et al., 1982). Primary control is defined as control through direct influence on  
85 the external environment. In contrast, secondary control is defined as control in which the  
86 individual accommodates to the situational demands to deal with the emotional distress.

87 For decades, studies have examined individual differences in people's control orientations  
88 (Ashman et al., 2006; Seginer et al., 1993); this suggests that there are important generational  
89 differences in the level of endorsement of control orientations. Other studies have examined  
90 cultural variations in control orientations (Chang et al., 1997; Essau, 1992; Essau &  
91 Trommsdorff, 1996; Flammer, 1995; Morling et al., 2002; Trommsdorff & Iwawaki, 1989;  
92 Weisz et al., 1984). In general, findings have converged to demonstrate that primary control  
93 is more favored than secondary control in Western societies. In comparison, Eastern societies  
94 favored both types of control or demonstrated an inclination for secondary control.

95

96 While many scholars have examined people's control orientations and their sense of efficacy  
97 in their daily experiences, several researchers have applied the same logic to examine potential  
98 cultural variations in their coping strategies (Thunber & Weisz, 1997; Wrosch et al., 2000).

99 Primary control coping aims to influence target people or events, whereas secondary  
100 control coping aims to maximize one's goodness of fit with target people or events as  
101 they are (Band & Weisz, 1988). As for the association between control coping strategies and  
102 dominant social orientations in a given culture, researchers further assume that individuals  
103 from independently oriented cultures (such as Western societies) are expected to use primary  
104 control coping. In contrast, individuals from interdependently oriented cultures (such as  
105 East Asian societies) are expected to use secondary coping (Chun et al., 2006; Cross, 1995;  
106 Lam & Zane, 2004).

107

### 108 **Actual Versus Ideal Usage of Coping Strategies**

109 The current paper further examines to what extent actual usage of primary and secondary  
110 control coping differs from ideal usage of each and how this difference can be associated with  
111 psychological distress. This has been relatively unexamined to date. The distinction between

112 ideal and actual behaviors has been first addressed in the context of self-perception under the  
113 name of self-discrepancy theory (Higgins, 1987). One can assume that cultural variations in  
114 coping strategies increase in the ideal condition where people emphasize cultural values when  
115 compared to the actual condition. In contrast, in the actual condition the effect of people's  
116 cultural values influencing their behavior will be attenuated due to psychophysiological  
117 constraints (Tsai et al., 2006).

118

119 Alternatively, one can assume that cultural variations in coping strategies become smaller  
120 in the ideal condition than the actual condition because, in the ideal condition, people can  
121 express themselves more freely from a variety of societal and cultural constraints that entail  
122 in the actual condition. While there is no direct evidence in the context of stress coping  
123 strategies, indirect evidence has been addressed in the context of people's choice behavior. For  
124 example, Hashimoto and Yamagishi (2015) demonstrated that Americans and the Japanese  
125 equally preferred to be like an independent person over an interdependent person when they were  
126 asked to judge which type of person they wanted to be. However, when the  
127 participants assessed these two persons and estimated how other people would assess these two  
128 persons, the Japanese assessed the independent person less favorably and the interdependent  
129 person more favorably while Americans still favored the independent person. Suppose we  
130 apply this logic to the framework of actual versus ideal stress coping strategies. In that case,  
131 we may assume that cultural variations would be smaller in the ideal condition than in the  
132 actual condition because people can express what they exactly endorse to cope, and in this  
133 case, primary coping would be preferred more than secondary coping due to its easier  
134 accessibility (Band & Weisz, 1988).

135

136 To date, few studies have cross-culturally examined actual versus ideal coping strategies.  
137 The current paper analyzed whether people's control coping strategies change across actual  
138 versus ideal situation, whether cultural variations become stronger or weaker in a particular  
139 situation, or whether cultural variations remain in both situations.

140

### 141 **Current Study**

142 Overall, the current paper aims to advance understanding of the interplay between culture  
143 and control coping strategies. We targeted three cultural groups: European Canadians, East  
144 Asian Canadians, and the Japanese. According to Statistics Canada (2017), most of the Canadian

145 population is composed of people of European descent (73%). Of the minority populations in  
146 Canada, East Asian Canadians comprise the largest and fastest-growing ethnocultural minority  
147 group (17.7%). Immigration is increasing exponentially, with immigrants and nonpermanent  
148 residents accounting for over 30% of the population all over Canada (Comanaru et al., 2018).

149

150 Previous findings have converged to suggest that multicultural individuals are exposed to a wide  
151 variety of stressors (Hong et al., 2000; Noels et al., 1996). This is not only because they are at  
152 risk of being discriminated against in the host society but also because of the increase in  
153 cognitive load required to balance the values of their heritage and host cultures. East Asian  
154 Canadians are a dominant minority group in Canada. We assumed that their stress experiences  
155 and endorsement of coping strategies would not be the same as their European Canadian  
156 or Japanese counterparts, who have consistent heritage cultures that match their society's  
157 mainstream values. We therefore included East Asian Canadians and examined the following  
158 issues for the current study, expecting that the target three cultural groups would demonstrate  
159 their unique patterns of control coping strategies.

160

161 First, we examined to what extent they would ideally use primary and secondary control coping  
162 to cope with the stress. We expected that people from each of the three cultures would prefer  
163 primary control coping to secondary control coping when they judged scenarios based on their  
164 preference (Band & Weisz, 1988; Hashimoto & Yamagishi 2015) compared to the case  
165 when they judged scenarios based on their actual usage.

166

167 Second, we examined cultural variations regarding how people have handled daily stress  
168 scenarios in their actual life and as an ideal preference using primary and secondary control  
169 coping. We inferred that there would be significant cultural variations when people are asked  
170 to read a series of daily stress-inducing scenarios and judge how they have dealt with them based  
171 on their actual experiences in the past. In line with the previous cross-cultural findings on control  
172 coping (Chun et al., 2006; Cross, 1995; Lam & Zane, 2004), we predicted that, when  
173 judging their actual experience (a) European Canadians would in general endorse greater  
174 actual primary control coping usage than the Japanese; (b) the Japanese would endorse  
175 greater actual usage of secondary control coping compared to European Canadians; and  
176 (c) East Asian Canadians would fall between European Canadians and the Japanese in terms  
177 of their actual primary and secondary control coping usage. We also predicted that (d) similar

178 cultural variations would remain when they were asked to judge how they would ideally deal  
179 with them, although the differences would be attenuated because they overall preferred primary  
180 to secondary control coping.

181

182 Third, we examined whether their social orientations (independence vs. interdependence)  
183 mediate the relationship between culture and usage/preference for the two types of coping  
184 strategies. We expected to find significant associations between independent and interdependent  
185 social orientations and the usages of coping strategies (Cross, 1995; Lam & Zane, 2004). For  
186 actual usage of coping strategies, we expected to find that the two types of social orientations  
187 mediate the relationship between culture and the actual usage of primary versus secondary  
188 control coping. We also explored whether these mediational patterns would change for people's  
189 ideal preference of coping strategies.

190

191 Finally, based on prior findings which maintain that inconsistency in one's experiences  
192 leads to reduced well-being (Liw & Han 2020; Tsai et al., 2006), we explored whether there  
193 are any culturally unique associations among European Canadians, East Asian Canadians,  
194 and the Japanese. We analyzed participants' level of psychological distress, and its correlations  
195 with participants' judgment on actual usages of primary/secondary control coping, ideal  
196 preferences of primary/secondary control coping, and the ideal–actual discrepancy of primary/  
197 secondary control coping.

198

## 199 **Method**

### 200 **Participants**

201 One hundred European Canadian undergraduate students (66.6% female; Mage = 19.20 years,  
202 SD = 2.30 years; age range = 17–33 years) and 98 East Asian Canadian undergraduate students  
203 (57.1% female; Mage = 18.70 years, SD = 1.22 years; age range = 17–24 years) born in Canada  
204 from the University of Alberta, and 103 Japanese undergraduate students (55.3% female; Mage =  
205 19.28 years, SD = 1.05 years; range = 18–23 years) born in Japan from Kobe University  
206 participated in this study. East Asian Canadians consisted of students with East Asian cultural  
207 backgrounds, including Chinese, Japanese, Korean, and Vietnamese. Participants  
208 received course credits at the University of Alberta or 1,500 yen (15 CAD) honorarium for  
209 participating in the study at Kobe University. A priori power analysis was conducted using  
210 G\*Power 3.1.9.7 (Faul et al., 2009) to test the main effects and interactions between Culture

211 and Coping Type using medium effect size ( $f = .25$ ), and an alpha level of .05. Results indicated  
212 that we needed a minimum of 159 participants to ensure a power of .80. The total number of  
213 participants for this study exceeded the criteria. This study received ethics approval from each  
214 respective university's ethics board.

215

## 216 **Materials**

217 **Stress scenario task.** We compiled 40 stress scenarios experienced by European Canadians and  
218 the Japanese from Lee et al.'s (2021) study. The materials covered a wide range of topics, such as  
219 family, employment, and school, to account for various sources of stress people experience in  
220 their daily lives. For the current study, we selected the 40 stress scenarios that occur most  
221 frequently across cultures based on Lee et al.'s (2021) dataset, which measured each participant's  
222 perceived likelihood of experiencing a similar scenario (overall  $\alpha = .92$ ; European Canadians  $\alpha$   
223  $= .93$ , East Asian Canadians  $\alpha = .93$ , Japanese  $\alpha = .88$ ). The chosen scenarios did not show any  
224 cultural differences in individuals' perceived likelihood and had higher ratings than other types  
225 of scenarios. We removed any personal and nongeneralizable information, such as the proper  
226 nouns of the occupation and the exact location. We simplified redundant expressions from the  
227 stress scenarios to make materials concise and generalizable for all participants. Examples of  
228 stress scenarios include "You put off doing a paper that is due in a day due to having constant  
229 assignments and quizzes beforehand. Today, you just read the instructions and realized  
230 that it is worth a lot more than you had previously imagined," and "During your parttime job in  
231 customer service, your co-workers blame you for something that you messed up on. However,  
232 they exaggerate the circumstances and take their frustration out on you as you try to fix the  
233 problem."

234

235 Independence versus interdependence scores. The Self-Construal Scale has a total of 23 items  
236 with 13 independent self-construal items and 10 interdependent self-construal items on a 7-point  
237 Likert scale (Kim et al., 2003; 1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree). The scale was used to  
238 measure the degree of independent (European Canadian  $\alpha = .79$ , East Asian Canadians  $\alpha = .76$ ,  
239 Japanese  $\alpha = .76$ ) and interdependent social orientations (European Canadians  $\alpha = .60$ , East Asian  
240 Canadians  $\alpha = .70$ , Japanese  $\alpha = .81$ ). Results were independently averaged for each participant  
241 following the recommended procedure. One European Canadian participant did not fill out this  
242 score in the European Canadian data.

243



244 Distress score. We used the Center for Epidemiologic Studies Depression Scale, which consists  
245 of 20 items to measure people's subjective distress symptoms in the past week (Radloff, 1977).  
246 This scale has been used for both clinical and nonclinical populations and by researchers who  
247 investigate culture and well-being as a useful indicator to measure people's distress symptoms.  
248 Participants rated various symptoms on a 4-point Likert scale. Examples of items include "I was  
249 bothered by things that usually don't bother me" and "I did not feel like eating, my appetite was  
250 poor." The score ranged from 0 to 60, with higher scores representing greater distress symptoms  
251 (European Canadians  $\alpha = .90$ , East Asian Canadians  $\alpha = .89$ , Japanese  $\alpha = .82$ ).

252

### 253 **Procedure**

254 Participants first signed a consent form upon arrival in the lab. They received instructions  
255 from a researcher to fill out a battery of questionnaires regarding the stress scenarios on a  
256 computer. The battery of questionnaires was programmed and randomized using Qualtrics  
257 Software (Qualtrics, 2020).

258

259 During the instruction session, participants were given a definition sheet for primary control  
260 coping and secondary control coping to reference while answering the questionnaire. The sheet  
261 indicates that primary control coping is broadly defined as "When people are stressed out in a  
262 given situation, they may attempt to directly change [influence] the situation to become less  
263 stressful based on their own wishes." Secondary control coping is "When people are stressed out  
264 in a given situation, they may attempt to accommodate themselves to the situational demands to  
265 lower their level of stress." On the definition sheet, it is noted that neither type of coping strategy  
266 is good nor bad but depends on an individual's perspective. Participants first completed a  
267 practice trial with examples of other people's usage of coping strategies and were asked to  
268 indicate if they were primary or secondary control coping for each scenario. This was done to  
269 help them clarify the concept of primary and secondary control coping after receiving feedback;  
270 they then moved on to the main session to answer questions about their personal selections.

271

272 In the main study session, participants were presented with 40 stress scenarios (Lee et al., 2021)  
273 and were asked to imagine to what extent they would use primary control coping or secondary  
274 control coping to cope with the stress. They answered the questions (a) to what extent they have  
275 endorsed primary versus secondary control coping strategies based on their actual experiences  
276 (actual usage); and (b) to what extent they would endorse primary and secondary control coping

277 as their ideal choice of coping (ideal usage).

278

279 Specifically, after being presented with each stress scenario, participants viewed the question  
280 “When you experienced similar situations, your likelihood of using primary control/secondary  
281 control coping to cope with the stress is” and rated the level of primary and secondary control  
282 coping usage based on their actual actions in the past on a 9-point Likert scale (1=never, 9=very  
283 much). After the actual usage selection, participants viewed the question “When imagining  
284 yourself in the situation above, how ideal is using primary control and secondary control coping  
285 to cope with the stress?” and again rated the level of primary and secondary control coping  
286 as their preferred mechanism of coping for each stress scenario on a 9-point Likert scale (1 = not  
287 at all, 9 = very much). We set this question structure as we expected that actual usage could be  
288 different or similar to the ideal usage for each type of coping strategy.

289

290 After participants completed the scenario judgment task for actual and ideal usage of coping  
291 strategies, they filled out the Self-Construal Scale and the Distress Score. Finally, participants  
292 completed a demographic questionnaire and were debriefed before leaving the lab.

293

## 294 **Results**

### 295 **Overview of Ideal Versus Actual Usage of Primary and Secondary Control Across Cultural** 296 **Groups**

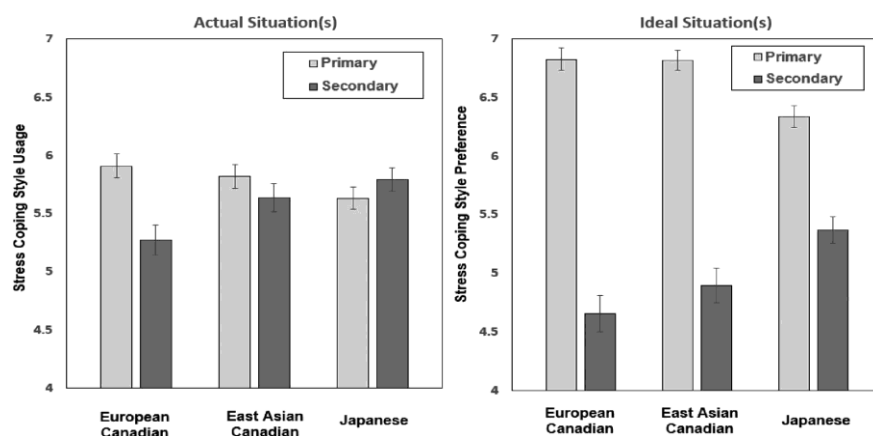
297

298 A 3 (Culture: European Canadian vs. East Asian Canadian vs. Japanese; between-Ss) X 2  
299 (Type: Primary Control Coping vs. Secondary Control Coping; within-Ss) X 2 (Situation:  
300 Actual vs. Ideal) mixed-factorial analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted to examine the  
301 extent to which cultural groups endorse each type of coping strategy in actual versus ideal  
302 situations. There were main effects of Type,  $F(1, 298) = 119.12, p < .001, \eta^2_p = .286$ , indicating  
303 that overall, all cultural groups perceived more usage of primary control coping ( $M = 6.22, SD =$   
304  $0.86$ ) than secondary control coping ( $M = 5.27, SD = 1.17$ ); and Situation,  $F(1, 298) = 25.84, p$   
305  $< .001, \eta^2_p = .080$ , showing that all groups perceived greater use of primary control coping in  
306 ideal situations ( $M = 5.82, SD = 0.75$ ) than in actual situations ( $M = 5.68, SD = 0.65$ ). However,  
307 the main effect of Culture was not significant,  $F(2, 298) = 1.12, p = .327$ . While the two-way  
308 interaction between Culture and Situation was not significant,  $F(2, 298) = 0.05, p = .953$ , we  
309 found significant two-way interactions between Culture and Type,  $F(2, 298) = 11.353, p < .001$ ,

310  $\eta^2_p = .071$ , and between Situation and Type,  $F(1, 298) = 180.01$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $\eta^2_p = .377$ . The three-  
 311 way interaction between Culture, Type, and Situation approached significance,  $F(2, 298) =$   
 312  $2.753$ ,  $p = .065$ ,  $\eta^2_p = .018$ .

313  
 314 We then explored the extent to which each group would endorse primary and secondary  
 315 control coping strategies in ideal scenarios compared to actual scenarios. We conducted separate  
 316 simple effect analyses for each cultural group. The results revealed similar patterns across  
 317 cultures to show that people perceive greater preference for primary control coping in ideal  
 318 situations relative to the extent to use it in actual situations (i.e., ideal vs. actual usage  
 319 of primary control coping): European Canadians: 6.83 vs. 5.91,  $t(99) = 9.02$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  
 320 Cohen's  $d = 0.944$ ; East Asian Canadians: 6.82 vs. 5.81,  $t(97) = 11.08$ ,  $p < .001$ , Cohen's  
 321  $d = 1.045$ ; Japanese: 6.34 vs. 5.63,  $t(102) = 7.91$ ,  $p < .001$ , Cohen's  $d = 0.730$ . In all groups,  
 322 people also showed less preference for secondary control coping in ideal situations compared  
 323 to the extent to use it in actual situations (i.e., ideal vs. actual usage of secondary control  
 324 coping); European Canadians: 4.66 vs. 5.27,  $t(99) = -4.75$ ,  $p < .001$ , Cohen's  $d = 0.437$ ; East  
 325 Asian Canadians: 4.89 vs. 5.64,  $t(97) = -6.17$ ,  $p < .001$ , Cohen's  $d = 0.557$ ; Japanese: 5.37  
 326 vs. 5.79,  $t(102) = -4.23$ ,  $p < .001$ , Cohen's  $d = 0.388$ . These results support our speculation  
 327 based on a logic from Hashimoto and Yamagishi's (2015) theoretical framework,  
 328 which maintain that in ideal scenarios where there are no social constraints, all groups would  
 329 prefer primary control coping over secondary control coping to cope with daily stressful  
 330 situations (see Figure 1).

331



332  
 333 Figure 1 Differences in the actual versus ideal usage of primary and secondary control coping across cultural groups.

334 Error bars represent standard errors

335

### 336 **Cultural Differences in Actual Usage of Primary and Secondary Control Coping**

337 We further assessed cultural variations in the extent to which people have used primary or  
338 secondary control coping to cope with daily stress scenarios in their actual life (left panel on  
339 Figure 1). We conducted simple effect analyses comparing one group's usage of each type  
340 of coping in actual situations with the others.

341  
342 The results of simple effect analyses showed that European Canadians ( $M = 5.91$ ,  $SD = 1.00$ )  
343 marginally differed in their usage of primary control coping compared to the Japanese ( $M = 5.63$ ,  
344  $SD = 0.97$ ),  $t(298) = 1.82$ ,  $p = .069$ , Cohen's  $d = 0.281$ . East Asian Canadians' score for actual  
345 usage of primary control coping ( $M = 5.82$ ,  $SD = 1.05$ ) did not differ from European Canadians'  
346 nor the Japanese's; their value fell in between the two cultural groups: European Canadians  
347 ( $t(298) < 1$ , ns) and Japanese ( $t(298) = 1.21$ , ns).

348  
349 For actual usage of secondary control coping, there were substantial cultural variations among  
350 the groups. Notably, the Japanese's score ( $M = 5.79$ ,  $SD = 1.01$ ) and East Asian Canadians'  
351 score ( $M = 5.64$ ,  $SD = 1.19$ ) were significantly higher than European Canadians' score ( $M =$   
352  $5.27$ ,  $SD = 1.26$ ),  $t(298) = 3.40$ ,  $p < .001$ , Cohen's  $d = 0.454$  (Japanese vs. European Canadians),  
353 and  $t(298) = 2.35$ ,  $p = .019$ , Cohen's  $d = 0.296$  (East Asian Canadians vs. European Canadians).  
354 There is no statistically significant difference between the Japanese and East Asian Canadians,  $t$   
355  $(298) = 1.01$ , ns.

356  
357 Within-group comparisons indicated that European Canadians perceived themselves to  
358 have endorsed more primary control coping than secondary control coping based on their  
359 actual usage of coping strategies,  $t(99) = 3.40$ ,  $p = .001$ , Cohen's  $d = 0.491$ . However, there  
360 are no significant differences for East Asian Canadians',  $t(97) = 1.01$ , ns, and the Japanese's,  
361  $t(102) = 1.04$ , ns, actual usage of primary and secondary control coping. This suggests that they  
362 equally endorse both types of coping strategies based on their actual usage.

363

### 364 **Cultural Differences in Ideal Usage of Primary and Secondary Control**

365 We also examined cultural variations to which people would prefer to use primary or secondary  
366 control coping to cope with daily stress in ideal situations (right panel on Figure 1). We  
367 conducted simple effect analyses to compare one group's preference for each type of coping  
368 in ideal situations with the others.

369  
370 The results of simple effect analyses revealed significant differences for the ideal usage of  
371 primary control coping between the three cultural groups. Consistent with our predictions,  
372 European Canadians ( $M = 6.83$ ,  $SD = 0.94$ ) had higher endorsement for ideal usage of primary  
373 control coping compared to the Japanese ( $M = 6.34$ ,  $SD = 0.96$ ),  $t(298) = 2.95$ ,  $p = .003$ , Cohen's  
374  $d = 0.518$ . East Asian Canadians ( $M = 6.82$ ,  $SD = 0.85$ ) also had higher endorsement  
375 for ideal usage of primary control coping compared to the Japanese,  $t(298) = 2.88$ ,  $p = .004$ ,  
376 Cohen's  $d = 0.531$ . However, there was no significant difference between European Canadians  
377 and East Asian Canadians,  $t < 1$ , ns.

378  
379 In terms of ideal usage of secondary control coping, results from simple effect analyses  
380 showed cultural differences for comparisons between the Japanese and European Canadians,  
381 and the Japanese and East Asian Canadians. Consistent with our predictions, the Japanese ( $M =$   
382  $5.37$ ,  $SD = 1.16$ ) had higher ratings for ideal usage of secondary control coping compared to  
383 European Canadians ( $M = 4.66$ ,  $SD = 1.55$ ),  $t(298) = 4.29$ ,  $p < .001$ , Cohen's  $d = 0.520$ . The  
384 Japanese ( $M = 5.37$ ,  $SD = 1.16$ ) also had higher ratings for ideal usage of secondary control  
385 coping compared to East Asian Canadians ( $M = 4.89$ ,  $SD = 1.47$ ),  $t(298) = 2.85$ ,  $p = .005$ ,  
386 Cohen's  $d = 0.359$ . However, there was no statistically significant difference between European  
387 Canadians and East Asian Canadians,  $t(298) = 1.41$ , ns.

388  
389 Within-group comparisons indicated that all groups preferred primary control coping to  
390 secondary control coping. Although the differences in magnitude varied across groups, the  
391 differences were all statistically significant. European Canadians perceived themselves to  
392 endorse primary control coping over secondary control coping for ideal usage of coping  
393 strategies,  $t(99) = 10.74$ ,  $p < .001$ , Cohen's  $d = 1.380$ . East Asian Canadians also showed the  
394 same tendency,  $t(97) = 10.34$ ,  $p < .001$ , Cohen's  $d = 1.255$ . Finally, while the Japanese showed  
395 similar tendencies, the differences in preference were at an intermediate level,  $t(102) = 6.05$ ,  
396  $p < .001$ , Cohen's  $d = 0.704$ . This suggests that the Japanese still endorsed relatively higher  
397 levels of secondary control coping for their ideal usage compared to European Canadians and  
398 East Asian Canadians.

399

#### 400 **The Independent and Interdependent Social Orientations, and Distress Score**

401 One-way ANOVAs revealed cultural differences in independent and interdependent

402 selfconstruals. Consistent with previous studies (Cross, 1995; Lam & Zane, 2004), there were  
 403 significant differences in independence scores,  $F(2, 297) = 22.639, p < .001, \eta^2_p = .132$ .  
 404 European Canadians ( $M = 5.56, SD = 0.68$ ) and East Asian Canadians ( $M = 5.46, SD = 0.67$ ),  
 405 respectively, showed higher scores than the Japanese ( $M = 4.94, SD = 0.75$ ),  $t(298) = 6.29, p$   
 406  $< .001$ , Cohen's  $d = 0.866$ ;  $t(298) = 5.25, p < .001$ , Cohen's  $d = 0.731$ . There were significant  
 407 differences in interdependence as well,  $F(2, 297) = 6.504, p = .002, \eta^2_p = .042$ . East Asian  
 408 Canadians ( $M = 4.86, SD = 0.73$ ) reported a higher score than European Canadians ( $M =$   
 409  $4.60, SD = 0.63$ ),  $t(299) = 2.42, p < .02$ , Cohen's  $d = 0.381$ . However, while the Japanese's ( $M =$   
 410  $4.48, SD = 0.88$ ) score was not significantly different from European Canadians',  $t(299) = 1.12,$   
 411 ns, they were significantly lower than East Asian Canadians',  $t(299) = 3.55, p < .01$ , Cohen's  $d =$   
 412  $0.470$ . The inconsistency between the assumption and the results will be discussed in the  
 413 limitations. As for the distress score, all participants reported low presence of distress  
 414 symptomology, yet there were significant differences across groups,  $F(2, 298) = 13.04, p < .001,$   
 415  $\eta^2_p = .080$ . Consistent with previous findings, the Japanese's score ( $M = 23.34, SD = 8.29$ ) was  
 416 higher than European Canadians' ( $M = 16.78, SD = 10.24$ ),  $t(298) = 4.87, p < .001$ , Cohen's  
 417  $d = 0.703$ . Also, East Asian Canadians' score ( $M = 21.90, SD = 10.13$ ) was higher than  
 418 European Canadians',  $t(298) = 3.76, p < .001$ , Cohen's  $d = 0.502$ . However, the difference  
 419 between East Asian Canadians and the Japanese did not reach statistical significance,  $t$   
 420  $(298) = 1.06, ns$ . These variables were used for the analyses below.

421

### 422 **The Mediating Role of Social Orientations Between Culture and Actual Usage of Coping**

423 Before conducting mediational analyses, we tested for correlations among variables for  
 424 exploratory purposes. The results revealed no significant associations between independence  
 425 and interdependence ( $r = -.08, p = .161$ ), meaning that they are seen as two different dimensions  
 426 of the self. For actual usage of coping strategies, independence was positively correlated  
 427 with primary control coping ( $r = .23, p < .001$ ) and negatively correlated with secondary  
 428 control coping ( $r = -.19, p = .001$ ), whereas interdependence was positively associated with  
 429 primary control coping ( $r = .13, p = .029$ ) and was not associated with secondary control coping  
 430 ( $r = .02, p = .709$ ). We did not include interdependence in the subsequent analyses due to the low  
 431 value of correlational coefficients between interdependent self-construal and the variables of  
 432 interest.

433

434 Next, we computed a primary–secondary difference score by subtracting the actual usage of

435 secondary control coping from the actual usage of primary control coping per culture. A higher  
436 primary–secondary difference score means a larger gap between people’s selection of primary  
437 control coping and secondary control coping. A smaller gap indicates that people select the two  
438 types of coping strategies to a similar extent. Higher scores indicate that, in actual usage, people  
439 endorsed greater primary control coping relative to secondary control coping. We then assigned  
440 specific dummy values to each cultural group: European Canadians (1), East Asian Canadians  
441 (0), and Japanese (-1).

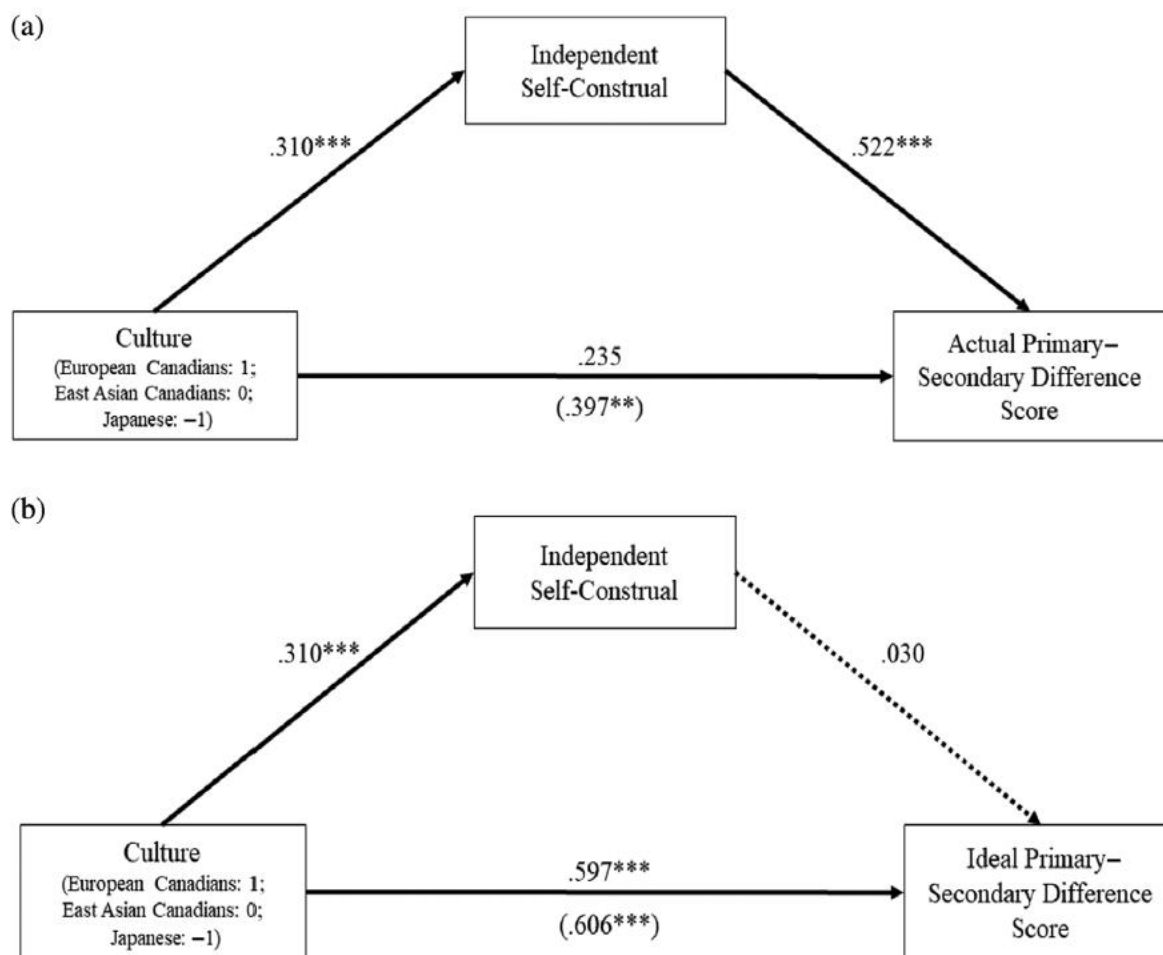
442

443 With these variables, we conducted a mediation analysis to assess to what extent independent  
444 social orientations mediate the association between culture and primary versus secondary  
445 difference score. Results indicated that there was a positive association between culture and  
446 the independence score,  $b = .310$ ,  $p < .001$ , 95% CI = [.212, .408]. Second, the independence  
447 score was positively correlated with the primary versus secondary difference score, showing that  
448 the more independent a person is, the larger the difference score they would have between  
449 primary and secondary control coping,  $b = .522$ ,  $p < .001$ , 95% CI = [.247, .797].

450

451 Finally, the indirect effect [culture -> the independence score -> primary–secondary difference  
452 score] was significant (indirect effect = .162, 95% CI = [.073, .271]). Importantly, the cultural  
453 difference in actual usage of primary control coping (relative to secondary control coping) was  
454 fully mediated by individuals’ level of independent self-construal. This suggests that European  
455 Canadians (as opposed to the other cultural groups) tend to report stronger actual usage of  
456 primary control coping relative to secondary control coping due to their strong independent self-  
457 construal (see Figure 2a).

458



459  
460 Figure 2 The indirect effects from culture to difference scores between (a) actual and (b) ideal  
461 usage of primary and secondary control coping via independent self-construal. All presented  
462 effects are unstandardized regression coefficients. The numbers in parentheses reflect the  
463 unstandardized regression coefficients in the absence of the mediating variables (i.e., the total  
464 effect). \*\*\* $p < .001$  (two-tailed)

465  
466

### 467 **The Mediating Role of Social Orientations Between Culture and Ideal Usage of Coping**

468 While we did not expect any patterns to mediate the role of social orientations and ideal usage of  
469 coping, we also tested the model again by assigning specific dummy values to each cultural  
470 group—European Canadians (1), East Asian Canadians (0), and Japanese (-1)—and computed  
471 another primary–secondary difference score by subtracting the ideal usage of secondary control  
472 coping value from the ideal usage of primary control coping value, respectively, per each culture.  
473 For ideal usage of primary control coping, the larger positive value means there is a greater



474 preference for primary control coping. For ideal usage of secondary control coping, the larger  
 475 negative value means there is less preference for secondary control coping. No significant  
 476 mediational effect of independence between culture and the ideal primary and secondary  
 477 difference score indicates that other factors must explain the direct association between these two  
 478 variables. We presume that alternative factors which may mediate this association can be holistic  
 479 perception (e.g., Masuda et al., 2019) and dialectical-balanced thinking styles (Spencer-Rodgers  
 480 et al., 2018). Further studies should scrutinize the mediational factors to better explain the  
 481 cultural differences in ideal control coping.

482

**Table 1** Culture and stress coping

Variable	European Canadians Distress Score	East Asian Canadians Distress Score	Japanese Distress Score
1. Actual primary control coping	-.17	-.09	<.001
2. Actual secondary control coping	.08	.32**	.07
3. Ideal primary control coping	.02	.09	-.01
4. Ideal secondary control coping	.09	.10	.12
5. Primary ideal-actual discrepancy	.19	.20*	-.02
6. Secondary ideal-actual discrepancy	.02	-.20*	.06

483 \* $p < .05$ . \*\* $p < .01$ .

484

### 485 Correlational Analyses Between the Distress Score and Various Scores

486 To examine the fourth question, we carried out correlation analyses between the distress score  
 487 and various scores, including actual primary and secondary control coping, ideal primary and  
 488 secondary control coping, and the ideal-actual discrepancy of primary and secondary control  
 489 coping across the three cultural groups (Table 1). Primary (or secondary) control coping  
 490 ideal-actual discrepancy scores were computed by subtracting the actual usage of primary (or  
 491 secondary) control coping score from the ideal preference of primary (or secondary) control  
 492 coping score per culture. The results indicated no significant correlations among target variables  
 493 in the European Canadian data and the Japanese data. However, the East Asian Canadian data  
 494 showed a significant positive correlation between the ideal-actual discrepancy of primary control  
 495 coping and the distress score ( $r = .20$ ,  $p = .048$ ), and a significant negative correlation between  
 496 the ideal-actual discrepancy of secondary control coping and the distress score ( $r = -.20$ ,  $p$

497 = .049). The fact that there was a significant positive correlation between actual secondary  
498 control coping score and the distress score ( $r = .32$ ,  $p = .001$ ) may imply that East Asian  
499 Canadians who are high in the usage of secondary control coping experience more daily stress.

500

## 501 **Discussion**

502 The present study examined cultural variations in people's selection of primary and secondary  
503 control coping for daily stress by targeting three cultural groups: European Canadians, East  
504 Asian Canadians, and the Japanese. Consistent with previous findings (Weisz et al., 1984), the  
505 current study demonstrated that European Canadians valued primary control coping over  
506 secondary control coping based on their actual and ideal usage of coping strategies.

507

508 In contrast, the Japanese take a more balanced approach towards selecting coping strategy  
509 through the tendency to endorse both primary and secondary control coping, especially  
510 when referring to their actual usage. Although the Japanese reported higher distress  
511 symptoms, their balanced approach towards coping may be an adaptive mechanism that helps to  
512 alleviate their level of distress. For example, in the literature on coping flexibility, it has been  
513 suggested that the association between coping flexibility and psychological adjustment is  
514 stronger for societies low in individualism, such as Japan, than for societies high in  
515 individualism, such as the United States (Cheng et al., 2014). In fact, Kato (2015) demonstrated  
516 that higher levels of coping flexibility were significantly associated with lower levels of  
517 depressive symptoms among the Japanese. Future research should examine if this dynamic  
518 selection of coping strategies is unique to the Japanese. While East Asian Canadians' score fell  
519 between these cultural groups, our exploratory analyses illustrated that East Asian Canadians'  
520 coping strategies are significantly associated with the distress score, suggesting that the  
521 multicultural East Asian Canadians experience ambivalence in their cultural  
522 identity.

523

524 Following previous research on social orientations (Varnum et al., 2010), the current study  
525 also assessed the mediational role of social orientations in the relationship between culture  
526 and the primary–secondary difference score. Results demonstrated that the level of independence  
527 showed a strong indirect effect, suggesting that the social orientation hypothesis is a useful  
528 theoretical framework for investigating cultural variations in mental health and wellbeing. In  
529 contrast, the mediational effect of social orientations was weak in the ideal condition. Future

530 research should further explore mediators to explain the cultural variations in the ideal condition.

531

532 Finally, there are commonalities across cultures regarding the ideal–actual discrepancy.

533

534 Overall, participants preferred primary over secondary control coping when they were in the  
535 ideal condition than in the actual condition, giving credence to Hashimoto and Yamagishi's  
536 (2015) assertion. However, it is also noteworthy that the Japanese still endorsed relatively higher  
537 levels of secondary control coping for their ideal usage than European Canadians and East Asian  
538 Canadians. Future research should further scrutinize unique cultural interpretations of control  
539 coping strategies to understand the interplay between culture and stress coping comprehensively.

540

### 541 **Implications**

542 The main purpose of the current study was to provide preliminary evidence on the association  
543 between social orientations and specific patterns of coping against daily stress. Extending  
544 from Lee et al. (2021), we demonstrated the concurrent activation of coping perception in  
545 response to daily stress scenarios. This perspective strongly resonates with the current discourse  
546 of cultural–clinical psychology (Ryder et al., 2008).

547

548 Furthermore, while identifying culturally unique coping strategies in European Canadians  
549 and the Japanese data, we also found the East Asian Canadians' unique pattern of responses,  
550 shedding light on the issue of multiculturalism—one of the most prominent social issues with the  
551 increase in immigration and drastic cultural changes in contemporary society. Several studies  
552 give credence to the current findings. These studies demonstrated that Asian-descent North  
553 Americans exhibit more distress than their European-decent North American counterparts, and  
554 this tendency is explained by the level of interdependence (Okazaki, 2002; Okazaki et al., 2002)  
555 and their concerns about losing face and shame socialization (Lau et al., 2009). Future research  
556 should elucidate key factors of immigrants' complex mentality.

557

558 It is also noteworthy that the current study demonstrated that primary control coping strategy  
559 is more preferable, and that secondary control coping strategy is less preferable in the ideal  
560 condition for all cultural groups. This suggests that findings on actual–ideal comparison would  
561 further unpack the cultural similarities and differences in control coping strategies.

562

563 Finally, cultural psychologists advocate for the importance of data collection from a variety  
564 of populations outside of North America (Masuda et al., 2020; San Martin et al., 2018) under the  
565 discourse of “the weirdest people in the world” (Henrich, 2020). While we acknowledge  
566 this movement, the current study advocates that scrutinizing the nuanced subcultural variations  
567 and sampling from minority cultural groups within North America can further address the issue  
568 of generalizability in psychological sciences (Markus & Conner, 2014).

569

#### 570 Limitations

571 With this study’s unique findings in mind, there are several limitations. First, our sample  
572 consisted of only undergraduate students; previous research has indicated age differences in  
573 stress perception, and older adults have different degrees of reliance on control strategies  
574 compared to young adults (Wrosch et al., 2000). We recommend future research to increase the  
575 generalizability across age groups by sampling stress scenarios from people of various  
576 developmental stages.

577

578 Second, the current study found that in contrast to East Asian Canadians’ interdependence score,  
579 the Japanese’s score was not statistically higher than North Americans’, indicating inconsistency  
580 among the two Asian groups. This limitation undermined the potential mediational relationship  
581 between interdependence, culture, and coping strategies. We presume this is attributable to the  
582 Japanese’s sense of interdependence being more nuanced and associated with parameters that  
583 were not captured by the current interdependence scale. Many studies have reported failed  
584 attempts to demonstrate the Japanese’s elevated levels of interdependence. Some scholars  
585 suggest that the items in the current interdependent scale entail cultural biases, and have  
586 therefore devised an alternative interdependence scale for the Japanese (Takata et al., 1995).

587 Other researchers have expressed concerns for methodological issues and that self-report scales  
588 generally entail a response bias (Heine et al., 2002; Oishi et al., 2005). Future studies should aim  
589 to overcome the methodological constraints by devising valid alternative tasks to assess one’s  
590 level of interdependence accurately.

591

592 Third, while we identified East Asian Canadians’ unique patterns of stress coping strategies,  
593 we could not further scrutinize to what extent their multicultural identity and the sociocultural  
594 context surrounding them influence their responses. Future research should address this issue by  
595 having measurements to better scrutinize these two factors.

596

597 Finally, we did not specifically define to the participants that ideal coping strategy preference  
598 should reflect their personal goals and are not based on societal expectations. While we intended  
599 to measure participants' personal ideals, it is advisable in future research to clarify this point  
600 during the instruction phase of the experiment.

601

602 Additionally, there should be nuanced measurements of primary and secondary control as  
603 they may be perceived differently across cultures. For example, subcategories of primary and  
604 secondary control can better elucidate people's different perceptions in culturally grounded  
605 orientations (Morling & Evered, 2006; Sawaumi et al., 2015; Yamaguchi, 2001).

606

### 607 **Conclusion**

608 The present study addressed cultural variations in the endorsement of primary and secondary  
609 control coping across various daily stress scenarios. This study contributes to the significant  
610 dialogue of addressing stress and coping from a culturally sensitive lens for European Canadians,  
611 East Asian Canadians, and the Japanese.

612

### 613 **Conflict of Interest**

614 The authors declare no conflicts of interest associated with this manuscript.

615

616

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798 Supporting information

799 Additional Supporting Information may be found in the online version of this article at the  
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