The Cabinet Office has prepared this paper to outline the "White Paper on Gender Equality."
Please see the White Paper for more detailed information.

and

"Policies to be Implemented in FY 2007 to Promote the Formation of a Gender-Equal Society"

Outline

Table of contents


Part 1: The State of Formation of a Gender-Equal Society

Feature article: The state of gender equality based on an international comparison

— women’s active participation in society and work-life balance — ................................................................. 1

Section 1: Overview ............................................................................................................................................. 1

Section 2: Current state of gender equality based on international comparison ........................................ 4

Section 3: Measures that brings more opportunities for women ................................................................. 16

Chapter 1: Women's participation in decision-making processes ................................................................. 21

Chapter 2: Gender equality in the workplace ................................................................................................. 24

Chapter 3: Work-life balance .......................................................................................................................... 27

Chapter 4: Violence against women .............................................................................................................. 30

Chapter 5: Support lifelong health for women .............................................................................................. 32

Chapter 6: Gender equality in the education and research fields ............................................................... 33

Part 2: Policies Implemented in FY 2006 to Promote Formation of a Gender-Equal Society

Chapter 1: Comprehensive promotion policies towards a gender-equal society ............................................. 36

Chapter 2: Expand women's participation in decision-making processes ....................................................... 37

Chapter 3: Review social systems and practices and raise awareness from a gender-equal perspective .......... 37

Chapter 4: Secure equal opportunities and treatment between men and women in the field of employment ...... 37

Chapter 5: Establish gender equality to realizing dynamic rural areas ......................................................... 37

Chapter 6: Support the efforts of men and women to harmonize work with their family and community life .... 37

Chapter 7: Develop conditions that allow the elderly to live with peace of mind ......................................... 38

Chapter 8: Eliminate all forms of violence against women ............................................................................ 38

Chapter 9: Support lifelong health for women ............................................................................................... 38

Chapter 10: Promote gender equality in the media ....................................................................................... 38

Chapter 11: Enrich education and learning that promote gender equality and facilitate diversity of choice ...... 39

Chapter 12: Contribute to the “Equality, Development and Peace” of the global community ......................... 39

Chapter 13: Promote gender equality in fields requiring new initiatives .................................................... 39

Table of contents 1
## Policies to be Implemented in FY 2007 to Promote the Formation of a Gender-Equal Society

Chapter 1: Comprehensive promotion policies towards a gender-equal society .......................................................... 40
Chapter 2: Expand women’s participation in decision-making processes .............................................................. 40
Chapter 3: Review social systems and practices and raise awareness from a gender-equal perspective ............ 40
Chapter 4: Secure equal opportunities and treatment between men and women in the field of employment .... 40
Chapter 5: Establish gender equality to realizing dynamic rural areas ................................................................. 40
Chapter 6: Support the efforts of men and women to harmonize work with their family and community life .... 41
Chapter 7: Develop conditions that allow the elderly to live with peace of mind .............................................. 41
Chapter 8: Eliminate all forms of violence against women ..................................................................................... 41
Chapter 9: Support lifelong health for women ...................................................................................................... 41
Chapter 10: Promote gender equality in the media .................................................................................................. 42
Chapter 11: Enrich education and learning that promote gender equality and facilitate diversity of choice .... 42
Chapter 12: Contribute to the “Equality, Development and Peace” of the global community ......................... 42
Chapter 13: Promote gender equality in fields requiring new initiatives ............................................................ 42
Part 1: The State of Formation of a Gender-Equal Society

Feature article: The state of gender equality based on an international comparison—women’s active participation in society and work-life balance

In Japan, the percentage of women participating in society remains at a low level by international standards. In other countries where women’s participation in society is advanced, conditions such as the support measures for balancing work and childcare, improvement of the environment for women to work, and active efforts to provide opportunities for women are in place. Part 1 compares and analyzes the state of gender-equal society, its background systems and institutional effort to recruit women from the viewpoint of politics/administration, workplace and daily life.

Section 1: Overview

1. Characteristics of different countries

Some of the Northern European countries like Norway and Sweden have the highest percentages of women participating in society. In those countries, laws on gender-equality are developed, and the governments take initiative in encouraging women’s active participation in society. Some of the Western European countries like Germany and France, the governments take central role in encouraging the recruitment of women and the level of women’s participation in various sectors remain advanced, following the Northern European countries, however, concrete measures vary according to countries. In the U.S.A, measures are focused on ensuring equality and various efforts for work-life balance have been led by private sector rather than the government. In Asian countries, the development of legal systems and efforts by the governments to promote gender equality are still behind European countries, though some countries have advanced level of women’s participation in the field of politics and administration as well as workplace.

Japan has established the basic legislation for gender equality that is in no way inferior to that of other countries, but it is a reality that active promotion of women in various fields in society and the realization of work-life balance are far from advanced compared to other countries. According to the Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM), which is an index measuring how actively women can participate in politics, economic activities, and decision-making processes, Japan is ranked 42nd among 75 countries as of 2006 (Table 1).
1. The Gender Empowerment Index (GEM) measures how actively women can participate in politics, economic activities, and decision-making processes. Specifically, it is calculated based on various data including the percentage of female members of parliament, the percentage of women in specialized or technical occupations, and gender equality in elective parliament members and public office. It puts emphasis on equality rather than empowerment unlike the GEM and does not account for income level, so some economically-developing countries can rank higher.

2. The Gender Gap Index is obtained from documents by the World Economic Forum. It indicates the rank in 115 countries (countries with smaller gap rank higher), based on indexes in various fields, including politics, economics, education, and health care. It puts emphasis on equality rather than empowerment unlike the GEM and does not take into account the wage gap.

3. The national contribution ratio is based on the "Data on International Comparison" by the Ministry of Finance.

4. The number of members of parliament is based on data by the IPU (Inter-Parliamentary Union).

5. The percentages of female workers and managerial-level staff are based on the "Yearbook of Labour Statistics 2006" by the ILO.

6. The wage level is based on "LABORSTA" by the ILO and UN database, etc.

7. The percentage of time spent on household duties and childcare by men is based on "Employment Outlook 2001" by the OECD, "Survey of Time Use and Leisure Activities (2001)" by the Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communication, and "American Time Use" by BLS, etc.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Basic laws concerning gender equality (enforcement year)</th>
<th>Administrative agency in charge of gender equality measures</th>
<th>Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM) rank (2006)</th>
<th>Gender Gap Index rank (2006)</th>
<th>Percentage of female parliamentary members (Lower House members in a bilateral system (%)</th>
<th>Percentage of female workers (%)</th>
<th>Percentage of female workers at managerial level (%)</th>
<th>Percentage of female managers to male managers</th>
<th>Percentage of females at husband's workplace (quality)</th>
<th>Percentage of female students at university (quality)</th>
<th>Income level (percentage of female wages to male wages)</th>
<th>Percentage of health-related expenditures (quality) by sex (private consumption)</th>
<th>Education levels (percentage of females at higher education level)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>Constitution of Japan (1947)</td>
<td>Gender Equality Bureau of Cabinet Office</td>
<td>42nd</td>
<td>92th</td>
<td>9.4</td>
<td>10.1</td>
<td>41.4</td>
<td>41.4</td>
<td>30.5</td>
<td>48.8</td>
<td>66.8</td>
<td>12.5</td>
<td>4.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norway</td>
<td>Act relating to Gender Equality (revised in 2005)</td>
<td>Ministry of Children and Equality</td>
<td>1st</td>
<td>2nd</td>
<td>37.9</td>
<td>39.1</td>
<td>47.1</td>
<td>30.5</td>
<td>98.8</td>
<td>40.4</td>
<td>40.4</td>
<td>4.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>Act on Equality between Women and Men (revised in 1994)</td>
<td>Ministry of Integration and Equality</td>
<td>2nd</td>
<td>1st</td>
<td>47.3</td>
<td>47.8</td>
<td>29.9</td>
<td>88.4</td>
<td>57.7</td>
<td>37.3</td>
<td>74.0</td>
<td>35.7</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>Federal Equality Act (2001)</td>
<td>Federal Ministry for Family Affairs, Senior Citizens,</td>
<td>9th</td>
<td>5th</td>
<td>31.6</td>
<td>44.9</td>
<td>37.3</td>
<td>74.0</td>
<td>35.7</td>
<td>86.6</td>
<td>34.3</td>
<td>37.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>Constitution of France (revised in 1999)</td>
<td>Department of Women's Rights and Equality</td>
<td>Dash</td>
<td>70th</td>
<td>12.2</td>
<td>45.6</td>
<td>7.0</td>
<td>86.6</td>
<td>34.3</td>
<td>91.0</td>
<td>57.3</td>
<td>37.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.K.</td>
<td>Sex Discrimination Act (1975)</td>
<td>Women and Equality Unit (WEU)</td>
<td>16th</td>
<td>9th</td>
<td>19.7</td>
<td>48.5</td>
<td>34.5</td>
<td>82.6</td>
<td>29.9</td>
<td>86.8</td>
<td>30.0</td>
<td>37.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.S.A.</td>
<td>Civil Rights Act (1964)</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>12th</td>
<td>22nd</td>
<td>16.2</td>
<td>46.4</td>
<td>42.5</td>
<td>81.0</td>
<td>37.0</td>
<td>91.0</td>
<td>57.3</td>
<td>37.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>Sex Discrimination Act (1984)</td>
<td>Office of the Status of Women</td>
<td>8th</td>
<td>15th</td>
<td>24.7</td>
<td>44.9</td>
<td>37.3</td>
<td>86.4</td>
<td>28.0</td>
<td>91.0</td>
<td>57.3</td>
<td>37.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korea</td>
<td>Basic Law for Women's Development (1995)</td>
<td>Ministry of Gender Equality &amp; Family</td>
<td>53rd</td>
<td>92nd</td>
<td>13.4</td>
<td>41.7</td>
<td>7.8</td>
<td>62.6</td>
<td>12.2</td>
<td>91.0</td>
<td>57.3</td>
<td>37.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>Constitution of the Philippines (1987)</td>
<td>National Commission on the Role of Filipino Women</td>
<td>45th</td>
<td>6th</td>
<td>15.3</td>
<td>38.5</td>
<td>57.8</td>
<td>96.6</td>
<td>96.6</td>
<td>91.0</td>
<td>57.3</td>
<td>37.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Singapore</td>
<td>Constitution of Singapore (1963)</td>
<td>Ministry of Community Development, Youth and Sports</td>
<td>18th</td>
<td>65th</td>
<td>21.2</td>
<td>41.5</td>
<td>25.9</td>
<td>72.3</td>
<td>96.6</td>
<td>91.0</td>
<td>57.3</td>
<td>37.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malaysia</td>
<td>Constitution of Malaysia (2001)</td>
<td>Ministry of Women, Family &amp; Community</td>
<td>55th</td>
<td>72nd</td>
<td>8.9</td>
<td>35.9</td>
<td>22.3</td>
<td>63.0</td>
<td>91.0</td>
<td>91.0</td>
<td>57.3</td>
<td>37.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Notes)
1. The Gender Empowerment Index (GEM) measures how actively women can participate in politics, economic activities, and decision-making processes. Specifically, it is calculated based on various data including the percentage of female members of parliament, the percentage of women in specialized or technical occupations, the percentage of female managerial-level staff, and estimated income of men and women. It indicates the rank in 75 countries based on the "Human Development Report" (2006) by the United Nations Development Program.
2. The Gender Gap Index is obtained from documents by the World Economic Forum. It indicates the rank in 115 countries (countries with smaller gap rank higher), based on indexes in various fields, including politics, economics, education, and health care. It puts emphasis on equality rather than empowerment unlike the GEM and does not account for income level, so some economically-developing countries can rank higher.
3. The national contribution ratio is based on the "Data on International Comparison" by the Ministry of Finance.
4. The number of members of parliament is based on data by the IPU (Inter-Parliamentary Union).
5. The percentages of female workers and managerial-level staff are based on the "Yearbook of Labour Statistics 2006" by the ILO.
6. The wage level is based on "LABORSTA" by the ILO and UN database, etc.
7. The percentage of time spent on household duties and childcare by men is based on "Employment Outlook 2001" by the OECD, "Survey of Time Use and Leisure Activities (2001)" by the Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communication, and "American Time Use" by BLS, etc.
2. Changes in attitudes of men and women toward work and family life

This shows that the stereotyped perception of gender roles persists much more in the public mind of Japan than those of the Western countries, particularly the Northern European countries (Chart 2). However, on a long term basis, those who hold such a notion have gradually been decreasing.

Chart 2: Perceptions toward the idea that a husband should work outside and a wife should take care of the family at home (international comparison)

(Note) Data from the "International Comparison Concerning a Gender-Equal Society" (FY2002) by the Cabinet Office.
Section 2: Current state of gender equality based on international comparison

1. Participation in politics and administration
   (Members of Parliament)
   Looking at changes in the proportion of women’s participation in national parliaments from 1970 to 2006, the ratio of women in all countries has increased, though the period and speed of such development differ (Chart 3).

Chart 3: Changes in the female share (%) of members of parliament

(Notes)
1 Data from IPU documents.
2 Figures show the percentage of female members in a single chamber parliament or lower house of multiple chamber parliaments.
3 Figures for the Philippines show the percentage in the lower house under the bicameral system until the 1978 election and after the election of May 1987, and in the lower house under the unicameral system from 1978 to 1987.
4 Figures for Germany until 1985 show the percentage in West Germany.
(Presiding officers of national parliaments)

As the percentage of female members of national parliaments increases, the percentage of female presiding officers also increases (Chart 4).

Chart 4. Female share of presiding officers of national parliaments in the world

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1955</td>
<td>0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1965</td>
<td>2.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1975</td>
<td>1.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1985</td>
<td>3.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1995</td>
<td>10.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2000</td>
<td>12.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2007</td>
<td>13.4</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Notes)
1. Data from “Women in Politics” by the IPU
2. Surveys of 189 countries done in 2007. Of which, 73 countries have adopted a bicameral system.

(Cabinet ministers)

As in the case of national parliamentary members, Norway, France and Sweden also have high percentage of female cabinet ministers and the proportion of these countries has already surpassed 40% (Table 5).

Table 5. Female share (%) female cabinet ministers (2007)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Women's share (%)</th>
<th>Number of women</th>
<th>All cabinet ministers</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>11.1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norway</td>
<td>47.4</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>19</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>40.9</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>38.5</td>
<td>6</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>46.7</td>
<td>7</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.K.</td>
<td>34.8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.S.A.</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>16.7</td>
<td>5</td>
<td>30</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korea</td>
<td>10.0</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>20</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>9.1</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>22</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Singapore</td>
<td>0.0</td>
<td>0</td>
<td>18</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malaysia</td>
<td>9.4</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>32</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Note) Data based on documents concerning each country
The percentage of female government employees in Japan stands at 20.0%, while the percentage of female senior officials stands at 1.8%. Both figures are significantly low compare to other countries (Table 6).

Table 6: Female shares (%) of government employees

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>1995</th>
<th>1999</th>
<th>2005</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>19.4</td>
<td>20.0</td>
<td>20.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norway</td>
<td>41</td>
<td>22</td>
<td>48.9</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>42.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>37.8</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td>9.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>55.9</td>
<td>16.6</td>
<td>56.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.K.</td>
<td>48.0</td>
<td>12.1</td>
<td>52.4</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.S.A.</td>
<td>49.5</td>
<td>18.5</td>
<td>43.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>47.8</td>
<td>19.7</td>
<td>53.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korea</td>
<td>18.6</td>
<td>21.6</td>
<td>34.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>53.0</td>
<td>15.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Singapore</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>59.5</td>
<td>57.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malaysia</td>
<td>--</td>
<td>48.5</td>
<td>23.1</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Notes)

1. Data were collected from the following:
   Japan: "Survey Report on Recruitment of National Government Regular Employees of General Class" by the National Personnel Authority (based on survey results in FY1995, FY1999, and FY2005 respectively)
   Philippines, Malaysia, and Australia (data on senior officials in 2005): Documents provided by each country for the East Asia Gender Equality Ministerial Meeting 2006
   Norway: Data for 1995 were cited from the "Survey Research on Foreign Legal Systems concerning Gender Equality" (1998) by the Cabinet Office, and data for 1999 and 2005 were cited from the database of Statistics Norway.
   Germany (2005): "Women in Germany"
   U.K. (2005): "Civil Service Summary 2005" by the Cabinet Office
   Australia: Data for 1995 were cited from "Survey Research on Foreign Legal Systems Concerning Gender Equality" (1998) by the Cabinet Office, and data for 2005 were cited from the "Women in Australia 2004" project.
   Korea (2005): "Women in Korea 2006"
   Philippines (1999): Fact sheets of the "National Commission on the Role of Filipino women"
   Singapore: "First, Second and Third Reports of the CEDAW"
   Malaysia: "First and Second Reports of the CEDAW"

The percentage of female members at the national advisory council and other committees is high in Sweden and Norway and low in Germany and Singapore (Table 7).

Table 7: Female share (%) of members at the national advisory council level

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Female share (%)</th>
<th>Year/Time</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Japan</td>
<td>31.3%</td>
<td>(2006)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Norway</td>
<td>41.0%</td>
<td>(1999～2000 on average)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>46.5%</td>
<td>(2003)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>15.9%</td>
<td>(2001)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.K.</td>
<td>25.0%</td>
<td>(2001)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Australia</td>
<td>33.5%</td>
<td>(2006)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korea</td>
<td>32.2%</td>
<td>(2004)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Singapore</td>
<td>16.0%</td>
<td>(2006)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Notes) 1. Data for Australia and Singapore are collected from documents provided by each country for the "East Asia Gender Equality Ministerial Meeting 2006", and data for Sweden are collected from the "Women and Men in Sweden". 2. Data for countries other than the above are collected from reports by countries participating in the CEDAW.
2. Participation of women in the workplace

(Recruitment of female workers at the management level in different countries)

In Japan, the percentage of women holding management positions is low. The percentage of female workers in Japan remains at almost the same level as other countries, though when it comes to female workers at the management level, the percentage remains significantly low compared to that of the Western countries and even falls far behind the Asian countries such as the Philippines, Malaysia and Singapore (Chart 8).

Chart 8. Percentages of women among ordinary workers and managerial-level workers

(Note) 1. Data from "LABORSTA" by the ILO
2. Data for Malaysia are as of 2003, data for France are as of 2004, and data for other countries are as of 2005.
3. Definitions of managerial positions vary according to country
Looking at changes in the percentages of women among general worker and the management level in different countries since 1985, the percentage of women workers at the management level has significantly increased in Australia, the Philippines and Malaysia while the percentage has increased only slightly in Japan and Korea. (Chart 9).

Chart 9: Percentages of women among ordinary workers and those at the management level (1985-2005)

(Women's labor force participation rate)

The women’s labor force participation rate tends to increase in Japan. Dividing the percentage of labor force by age-group, the transition shows an M-shaped curve, with the age bracket of 30 to 34 being the bottom, suggesting that women tend to terminate their employment during the period of childcare. In other countries, the labor force participation rate for women has been increasing since 1970s. According to age bracket, the labor force participation rate for women already shows a reverse U-shaped curve in the Philippines in the 1970s and in the U.S.A. and Sweden in the 1980s.

In the U.K., France and Norway, the transition showed an M-shaped curve in the 1970s and 1980s, though by 2005, the bottom of the M-shaped curve has completely disappeared, making it a reverse U-shape curve. In Korea and Australia, the transition still shows an M-shaped curve as in Japan, though the bottom of the M-shaped curve changed from the age bracket of 25-29 to 30-34, proving that the timing of employment termination has delayed till older ages.

On the other hand, in Singapore and Malaysia, the labor force participation rate for women still remains low and the timing to terminate employment tends to be at a later stage in life. The transition shows a downward curve, suggesting that few women reenter the workforce after the termination (Chart 10).
Chart 10. Women’s labor force participation rate by age bracket in different countries

Japan

U.S.A.

Germany

Sweden

France

U.K.

Norway

Australia
1. Data for Japan are collected from the "Labor Force Survey" by the Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communication, and data for other countries are collected from the "LABORSTA" by the ILO.

2. In the U.S.A. the age bracket "30-34" as of 1975 covers 30-44 years old.

3. In the U.K. the age bracket "35-44" as of 2004 covers 35-49 years old.

4. In Norway the age bracket "35-39" as of 1970 covers 30-44 years old.

5. In Australia, the age bracket "35-39" as of 1976 covers 30-44 years old. As of 1984 and 1994, the age bracket "25-29" covers 25-34 years old, "35-39" covers 35-44 years old, "44-49" covers 45-54 years old.

There is a significant wage gap between men and women in Japan, as in Korea and Malaysia (Chart 11).

(Notes)
1. Data for Malaysia were collected from a United Nations database, data for the U.S.A. were collected from the "Statistical Abstract of the United States" by the U.S. Department of Commerce, and data for other countries were collected from the "LABORSTA" by the ILO.
2. Figures represent women's wage as a percentage of men's wage.
3. Wage includes both bonuses and regular cash earnings paid to ordinary full-time workers (comparison of wage per hour, day, week, or month).
4. Data for Japan and U.K. are as of 2003, data for the Philippines, Australia, and France are as of 2004, data for Malaysia are as of 1997, and data for other countries are as of 2005.
5. The scope of workers is not completely standardized.
(Part-time workers)

The transition of the ratio of part-time workers in different countries shows that the percentage has gradually been increasing since 1990s, though the level of women holding a part-time job remains predominantly higher than men. Moreover, the level of both men and women employed as a part-time worker has been increasing rapidly, which is significantly high from international standard (Chart 12).

Chart 12: Share (percentage) of part-time workers

(Note) Data from the “Employment Outlook 2004, 2005, 2006” by the OECD

(Treatment gap between full-time workers and part-time workers)

The EU countries have made legislative preparations to equally treat part-time workers and full-time workers based on the notion of equal work for equal pay since the 1980s. In 1997, the EU established the EU part-time work Directive, which prohibits the discrimination of workers due to working hours, and each member-country has committed under this framework agreement.

In Japan, on the other hand, there are significant gaps in pay and treatment between part-time workers and full-time workers, even for exactly the same tasks. Moreover, few companies have introduced the system that allows regular full-time employees to shift their working hours to part-time hours, while remaining as permanent employees.
3. Participation in family life
(Role sharing during the child-raising period)

The research on the hours that men in double-income families with a pre-school aged child spend on household work and childcare shows that the percentage of Japan and Korea stands remarkably low at the percentage of 12.5% and 12.2% respectively (Chart 13).

Chart 13. Percentage share of total hours of housework and childcare performed by men

(Notes)
1. Data from "Employment Outlook 2001" by the OECD and "2001 Survey on Time Use and Leisure Activities" by the Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications
2. Hours spent on household duties and childcare by model couples who have a child younger than 5 years old (younger than 6 years old in the case of Japan).
3. Women are assumed to be full-time workers in countries other than Japan. In the case of Japan, women are assumed to be all types of workers. Data for men in all countries are the total (average).
4. Data for Korea does not clarify if families have a child or not.
Along with other Asian countries such as Korea and Singapore, the actual working hours in Japan is more than that of the Western countries (Chart 14). In addition, Japan has an extremely high rate of long-time workers who work 50 or more hours per week, accounting for over 25%.

(Notes)
1. Data from "LABORSTA" by the ILO
2. Data as of 2005 (data for U.K. as of 2004)
3. Data for Singapore are the total figures for men and women.
4. Data for all countries except Germany are the averages of all industries. Because Germany has no average figure for all industries, it is calculated from the total working hours that are calculated based upon the average working hours and the number of employees by industry and are divided by the total number of employees.
### Section 3: Measures that brings more opportunities for women

1. Measures for work-life balance

#### Table 15: Childcare support systems in different countries

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Childcare services</th>
<th>Maternity/childcare leave and leave benefits</th>
<th>Revision of working styles (labor laws, shortening long working hours, and equal employment opportunity, etc.)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| Japan   | Utilization ratio  0-2 year-old infants: 13.0% | - Maternity Leave 6 weeks before childbirth, 8 weeks after childbirth (guaranteed wage: 60%)  
- Childcare leave 40% of pre-leave wages as leave benefit (the rate is planned to increase up to 50% tentatively in October 2007).  
* Childcare leave utilization rate (2005): women: 72.3%, men: 0.5% | Equal Employment Opportunity Law, Basic Law for a Gender-equal Society, Labour Standards Law, Part-time Labor Law |
| Norway  | Utilization ratio: 76% (1-5 year-old children as of 2005)  
Childcare centers run by local governments: 44%  
Upper limit of daycare fee (2,250 NOK) | - Maternity leave 12 weeks before childbirth, of which 3 weeks are obligatory, and 6 weeks after childbirth (included in childcare leave as a quota for mother)  
- Childcare leave 54 weeks (with benefits equivalent to 80% of wages before taking the leave) or 44 weeks (with benefits equivalent to 100%), of which 6 weeks are allotted to fathers (paternity quota)  
* The childcare leave utilization rate is very high, 90% of fathers who are eligible for the paternity quota. | Act relating to Gender Equality |
| Sweden  | Utilization ratio: 48.0%  
High-quality childcare centers and home childcare services (family daycare) are available.  
Childcare fees are set to about 10% or less of the average wage. | - Maternity leave 7 weeks each before and after childbirth  
- Parent leave (paternity and maternity quotas) 480 days as the total for a father and a mother (Benefits are paid for 480 days , including 60 days for each parent, which cannot be given to the other parent. 80% of wages are guaranteed for 390 days.)  
* The childcare leave utilization rate is high. Men account for about 30% of those who take childcare leave. | Equal Opportunity Law, Part-time Labor Law  
Those who have a child aged 8 or younger, or a 1st-grade student at elementary school are allowed to shorten working hours up to 25% of the usual hours. |
| Germany | Utilization ratio: 8.0%  
In-home childcare services are not permitted as institutionalized services. Childcare centers for infants younger than 3 years old are inadequate. | - Maternity leave Mothers are prohibited from working for 6 weeks before childbirth and 8 weeks after childbirth. (Benefits equivalent to wages are given as motherhood benefits, etc.)  
- Parent leave The total leave that parents can take is a maximum of three years for a period until the child reaches 8 years (Benefits are given for 2 years. There is an income limitation.).  
* The childcare leave utilization rate is high, but the rate for men is low. | Gender Equal Treatment Law, Gender Equality Law, Employment Promotion Law, Law for Part-Time and Fixed-Term Contract Workers |
| France  | Utilization ratio: 29.0%  
Main services are provided by childcare givers (home childcare). | - Maternity leave 16-46 weeks (guaranteed wage: 100%)  
(First or second child: 6 weeks before childbirth + 10 weeks after childbirth; third child or subsequent children: 8 weeks before childbirth + 18 weeks after childbirth; twins: 12 weeks before childbirth + 22 weeks after childbirth; triplets: 24 weeks before childbirth + 22 weeks after childbirth)  
- Maternity leave 11 days within 4 months after childbirth (18 days for triplets or more) | Gender Equality Principles (labor code), 35-hour-a-week Labor Encouragement Law |

(Note) The “paternity quota” or “maternity quota” is a share of childcare leave, which cannot be given to a spouse. A parent who does not take leave for the quota is deemed to abandoned the leave and benefits.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Country</th>
<th>Childcare services</th>
<th>Maternity/childcare leave and leave benefits</th>
<th>Revision of working styles (labor laws, shortening long working hours, and equal employment opportunity, etc.)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>
| U.K.    | Utilization ratio: 34.0% Home childcare services (child minders) and childcare facilities (day nurseries, etc.) are available. | · Maternity leave Up to 1 year (Benefits are given only for the first 6 months.)  
· Childcare leave 91 days as the total for men and women until their child reaches 5 years of age (13 weeks). (no cash benefits)  
* The childcare leave utilization rate: 12% for men and women respectively  
· Paternity leave Since April 2003, fathers can take statutory paternity leave for 2 weeks within 8 weeks after childbirth (Wages equivalent to statutory maternity benefits are given.) | Sex Discrimination Act, Code of Conduct, Equal Pay Act, Flexible Working Law, Part-time Labor Law |
| U.S.A.  | Utilization ratio: 54.0% High-quality childcare services by the private sector are available. | · Family leave Leave can be taken within 84 days (12 weeks) based on the Family and Medical Law (with no benefits). Childcare leave can be taken within a year after childbirth. | Federal Fair Labor Standards Act, Civil Rights Act, Equal Pay Act |
| Australia | Utilization ratio: 46% (0-12 year-old children) (As of 2005) | · Maternity leave 52 weeks (with no benefits)  
· Paternity leave Up to 1 week after childbirth  
* Corporate voluntary benefit systems are available (used by 46% of women). | Workplace Relations Act |
| Korea  | Utilization ratio: 20.7% Childcare centers established by companies and at-home childcare centers are institutionalized. | · Maternity leave 90 days (45 days or more after childbirth, with benefits)  
· Childcare leave Up to 12 months | Labor Standards Act, Industrial Relations Act |
| Philippines | · Maternity leave 60 days (social insurance benefits equivalent to 100% of wages )  
· Paternity leave 7 days for childbirth | | Labor Code of the Philippines (Book III) |
| Singapore | · Childcare centers (7 years old or younger)  
Number of centers: 713  
Capacity: 59,433 persons  
Number of users: 44,224  
Utilization ratio: 74.4%  
· Student-care center (8-14 years old)  
Number of centers: 163  
Capacity: 15,124 persons  
(As of 2005) | · Maternity leave In accordance with the revision of the Employment Law in 2004, the leave period was extended to 12 weeks from 8 weeks (The government pays all costs for paid maternity leave for prolonged 4 weeks to care for the first or second child up to 10,000 Singapore dollars, and for prolonged 12 weeks to care the third or fourth child up to 30,000 Singapore dollars.).  
· Childcare leave 2 days a year Targeted at all parents, including foreigners, who have a child aged 7 or younger Childcare leave can be taken unconditionally for 2 days a year, to care for a sick child or to attend a parent-teacher's meeting. | Employment Law |
| Malaysia | The utilization ratio of childcare centers is very low, standing at 5.1% as of 1998. In most cases, children are taken care of by their family and relatives. | · Maternity leave 60 days (Employers should guarantee 100% of wages.)  
· Paternity leave 6 days from childbirth | Employment Law |

(Note) Based on the "International Comparison of the Social Environment regarding the Declining Birthrates and Gender-Equality" (2005) by the Specialist Committee on the Declining Birthrates and Gender-Equal Participation of the Council for Gender-Equality, and "2005 White Paper on Declining Birthrate" by the Cabinet Office, and data from each country.
(Childcare support system in different countries)

Sweden has an advanced system for childcare leave. This system allows parents together to take leave for a total of 480 days, while receiving 80% of ordinary wages as leave benefit and the rate of utilization of this system remains high. In Norway, the period of childcare leave is only slightly shorter than that of Sweden, though the leave benefit is set at the same level. In France, parents may take childcare leave for up to 3 years and receive benefits according to the employment conditions. In Germany, parents may take leave for up to 3 years until a child becomes 8 years old (Benefits are given for 2 years with income limitation).

In Japan, parents can take childcare leave until a child becomes 1 year old (and one and a half years old for those under certain circumstances). In order to promote the continuation of employment, those who meet certain criteria may receive 40% of pre-leave wages as leave benefit (the rate is planned to increase up to 50% tentatively in October 2007). On the other hand, there are countries such as the U.S.A. and Australia that do not have leave benefit system, while many Asian countries such as the Philippines, do not even have a childcare leave system.

(Working hour systems in different countries)

In Australia and some Northern European countries like Norway and Sweden, actual working hours are already short. Other European countries have a movement in shortening working hours in accordance with the EU Directive on working time (was enacted in 1993 and amended in 2005).

(Part-time work system)

Under the influence of the EU Directive on part-time work in 1997, many European countries such as Sweden, Germany and the U.K. have developed legislation related to part-time work in order to ensure equal treatment for part-time workers, prohibit disadvantageous compensation and to facilitate the exchanging process between full-time and part-time work.

(Achievements by the above-mentioned measures)

The adoption of such measures ensures the balancing of work and life, and this effect reaches not only to women and employees but also to men and employers.

In Japan, the effect of work-life balance at workplaces has been recognized. According to the survey on the correlation between working environment and work satisfaction level, not only married women but also married men, single men and women show higher level of work satisfaction and higher motivation if the environments, in which they work provide flexibility to those who need to raise children and hire high number of female workers.
2. Measures to enhance the recruitment of female workers

One of the measures that enhance the recruitment of female workers is called positive action. Positive action generally means temporary measures to realize substantial equal opportunity by offering a certain level of special opportunities to workers who are suffering disadvantages due to social and structural discrimination. In Japan, positive action is defined by the Basic Law on a Gender-Equal Society and characterized as an obligation of the national and local governments. Positive action is also stipulated in the provisions of “Special Provisions of Measures Pertaining to Women Workers” in the Equal Employment Opportunity Law.

(Measures to increase female members of parliament)

One of the paramount measures taken in other countries to increase female members of parliament is a quota system. This system prorates certain number and/or rate of seats based on gender.

The most effective form or method of adopting a quota system varies depending on the condition of women’s participation in the assembly and social background (Table 16).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Parliamentary and election systems</th>
<th>Contents of measures</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Norway</td>
<td>Anomalous unicameral system Proportional-representation system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sweden</td>
<td>Unicameral system Proportional-representation system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Germany</td>
<td>Bicameral system Hybrid of the first-past-the-post election system and party-list proportional representation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>France</td>
<td>Bicameral system Senate: indirect election system National assembly: first-past-the-post election system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>U.K.</td>
<td>Bicameral system First-past-the-post election system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Austria</td>
<td>Bicameral system First-past-the-post election system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Korea</td>
<td>Bicameral system Hybrid of the first-past-the-post election system and party-list proportional representation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Philippines</td>
<td>Bicameral system</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Malaysia</td>
<td>Bicameral system</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Note) Data from the "Quota Database" by the IDEA Quota Project, "Report of the Study Group of Position Action (separate volume Part II)" (2005), and "Research Report on Gender Equality Promotion Systems in Foreign Countries" (2002, 2003) by the Cabinet Office.
(Other distinctive measures)

Another distinctive measure is the mentor system adopted by political parties in Germany and the U.K., in which incumbent assembly members provide educational guidance and financial assistance to candidates. In the U.S.A. and the U.K., some private organizations offer financial support and assistance in election campaign for female assembly candidates.

(Measures to enhance the recruitment and promotion of female government employees in different countries)

There are two possible measures to enhance recruitment and promotion of female government employees: setting a target and developing training and education for women.

(Measures to increase female workers at the management level)

Many measures to increase female workers in the managerial positions outside of the public sector take the form of support for corporate voluntary efforts.

Japan has set a goal of increasing the percentage of women in the positions of leadership to at least 30% by 2020. “Positions of leadership” include managerial level staff in corporations, and the national government is encouraging corporate voluntary efforts. Efforts to actively recruit female workers have been gradually disseminated in corporations. It can be said that active recruitment of female workers has a favorable impact not only on women but also on corporations by helping them secure a high-quality labor force and improve productivity.

3. Conclusion

Some survey results suggest that women’s participation can have a favorable impact on corporate management and the environment as a well-balanced worklife and personal life improves their work satisfaction. It is necessary to create a society in which both men and women can pursue diverse ways of life and play an active role by developing an environment in which men and women can participate in work and family life in a balanced manner.
Chapter 1: Women’s participation in decision-making processes
(Percentage of female parliamentary members)

As of April 2007, the percentage of female Diet members accounted for 9.4% (45 members) in the House of Representatives, and 14.3% (34 members) in the House of Councilors.

(Percentage of female candidates and election winners)

In the most recent general election of the House of Representatives in September 2005, women accounted for a slightly higher percentage (13.0%) of all election candidates, while female election winners hit an all-time high of 9.0%. This probably because Japanese political parties have taken affirmative action (positive action) to give their female election candidates a high ranking on their proportional representation list (Chart 17).

In the House of Councilors, the percentage of female candidates stands at 20.6% as of the most recent July 2004 election, falling sharply from 27.6% in the preceding election. Female election winners have been taking a downward trend recently, accounting for 12.4% of all election winners in the July 2004 election (Chart 17).

Chart 17: Percentages of female election candidates and female election winners

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Year</th>
<th>House of Representatives</th>
<th>House of Councilors</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Apr. 1946</td>
<td>8.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apr. 1947</td>
<td>8.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apr. 1948</td>
<td>5.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apr. 1949</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apr. 1950</td>
<td>2.1</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apr. 1951</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apr. 1952</td>
<td>2.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Apr. 1953</td>
<td>2.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jul. 1956</td>
<td>1.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jun. 1959</td>
<td>2.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jul. 1962</td>
<td>2.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jul. 1965</td>
<td>3.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jul. 1968</td>
<td>4.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jul. 1971</td>
<td>7.3</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jul. 1974</td>
<td>14.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jul. 1977</td>
<td>9.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jul. 1980</td>
<td>12.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jul. 1983</td>
<td>3.0</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jul. 1986</td>
<td>8.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jul. 1989</td>
<td>3.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jul. 1992</td>
<td>2.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jul. 1995</td>
<td>10.2</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jul. 1998</td>
<td>14.4</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jul. 2001</td>
<td>12.9</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Jul. 2004</td>
<td>27.6</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Note) Data from the Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications
Women occupy a smaller percentage of higher positions at the central government level

Female officers generally remain flat as a percentage of all government employees covered with the “salary schedule for administrative services (I),” but the percentage of female officials has been increasing in higher positions. As of FY2005, women accounted for 31.5% of 1st-grade public employees who are in charge of routine work, but the female rate is lower for higher positions. Female public employees account for only 1.8% in the 9th grade or higher (directors in ministry headquarters or chiefs of government organization in local areas). Effective policy initiatives are necessary to appoint female public employees to higher positions (Chart 18).

Chart 18. Percentage of female national government public employees
by salary grade (salary schedule for administrative services (I))

(Notes) 1. Data from "Survey Report on Recruitment of National Government Regular Service Public Employees" by the National Personnel Authority
3. The graph indicates the percentage of female national government public employees based on the salary grade chart applied at the time of the survey.

(Female members occupy a steadily larger percentage on central government advisory councils)

HPGE (the Headquarters for the Promotion of Gender Equality) set a new target in April 2006 to promote female members’ participation in national advisory councils. It aims to make efforts to prevent either male or female members from falling short of 40% of all members at the national advisory council level in the entire government until the year 2020. The immediate goal is to maintain an at least 33.3% participation rate for female members until the end of FY2010. In addition, the first numerical target is set for expert committees etc., which can be established under the name of an expert committee, special committee, or provisional committee, separately from a council, when expertise or special matters should be surveyed and discussed.

As of September 30, 2006, female members had steadily increased to 31.3% at the central government’s advisory councils, while female members accounted for only 13.1% at expert committees etc.

(Local assemblies in large cities have more female local assembly members.)

Looking at the rate of female assembly members in prefectural and municipal assemblies and other councils as of December 2006, Tokyo Ward Councils represents the highest percentage of women at 21.9%. Women account for 16.7% in cabinet-order-designated city councils, 10.8% in city councils as a whole, 7.3% in prefecture assemblies, and 6.9% in town/village councils. Female local assembly members tend to register a higher percentage in metropolitan areas, while hitting a lower percentage in rural areas.
According to the “Human Development Report” published by the United Nations Development Program (UNDP) in 2006, Japan ranked 7th for HDI (Human Development Index) among 177 nations and 13th for GDI (Gender Development Index) among 136 measurable nations. In contrast, for GEM (Gender Empowerment Measures), Japan ranked 42nd among 75 measurable nations.

(Note)

HDI (Human Development Index)
It is an index simply measuring achievement in three dimensions of human development: a long and healthy life, education, and a decent standard of living. Specifically, it is calculated using data of average life expectancy at birth, academic level (adult literacy rate and school enrollment ratio), and adjusted national income per capita.

GDI (Gender-Related Development Index)
It is an index measuring achievement in the same dimensions as the HDI, but focusing on inequality in achievement between women and men.
The GDI, which is based on the average life expectancy at birth, academic level, and national income just like the HDI, is calculated by adding a penalty to gender disparities in the above standards, so it is characterized as gender-disparity adjusted HDI.

GEM (Gender Empowerment Measure)
It is an index measuring the level of women’s participation in political and economic decision-making. While the HDI focuses on achievements in human development, the GEM focuses on opportunities to utilize abilities.
Specifically, it is calculated using data on the percentage of female parliamentary members, the percentage of women among professional and technical workers, the percentage of women in administrative positions, and estimated earned income of men and women.
Chapter 2: Gender equality in the workplace

(Changes in women's labor participation rate by age bracket (M-shaped curve))

The women's labor participation rate by age bracket still shows an M-shaped curve. However, its curve is shallower than before, and the bottom age bracket has changed. Such changes in an M-shaped curve reflect a rising trend in the age of child raising as a result of women’s tendency to delay marriage and child-bearing.

(Increasing non-regular staff)

Women account for about 30% of regular staff, remaining almost flat since 1985.

On the other hand, part-timers and other non-regular staff make up a larger percentage both for men and women. This trend is particularly obvious for female workers, because the rate of female non-regular staff has increased from 31.9% in 1985 to 52.7% in 2006, showing they are now the majority of this group (Chart 19).

### Chart 19. Employee composition ratio by employment status excluding company executives
(in all industries excepting agriculture and forestry)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(%)</th>
<th>100</th>
<th>80</th>
<th>60</th>
<th>40</th>
<th>20</th>
<th>0</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Women</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3.5</td>
<td>25.4</td>
<td>68.1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3.4</td>
<td>32.5</td>
<td>64.1</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>34.5</td>
<td>61.9</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3.7</td>
<td>35.3</td>
<td>61.0</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3.8</td>
<td>38.9</td>
<td>57.3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>40.4</td>
<td>48.4</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>40.6</td>
<td>47.6</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>39.9</td>
<td>47.3</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Men</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| (Notes) 1. The 1985-2001 data come from “Special Survey of the Labour Force Survey” (every February) by the Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications, while the 2004 and 2005 data come from the “Labour Force Survey (Detailed Tabulation)” (annual average).

2. Please note that a time-series comparison should be made considering differences in survey methods and survey periods between the “Special Survey of the Labour Force Survey” and the “Labour Force Survey (Detailed Tabulation)”.

(Amendment of the Equal Employment Opportunity Law)

Since the Equal Employment Opportunity Law was enacted in 1986, gender equal treatment has been systematically established. With the rapid aging of the population and decline in birthrates, it is more important than ever to develop an employment environment where female workers are not discriminated because of their gender and are able to exercise their abilities while ensuring their ability to bear children. Under such circumstances, the Equal Employment Opportunity Law was amended and enacted in April, 2007. The main contents of the amendment include prohibition of gender discrimination against both men and women, expansion of the scope of prohibited sexual discrimination, such as indirect discrimination, and prohibition etc. of disadvantageous treatment by reason of pregnancy, childbirth and so on.
(Prolonged length of women’s continuous employment)

The length of women’s continuous employment tends to be longer. According to women’s continuous employment length groups, the length of continuous employment to which the most women workers belong was 1-2 years in 1985, while it was 5-9 years in 2006. The percentage of workers who have been employed for 10 years or more is tending to rise (Chart 20).

**Chart 20: Employee composition ratio by continuous employment length group**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Length Group</th>
<th>Women (%)</th>
<th>Men (%)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>0 year</td>
<td>13.0</td>
<td>16.6</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1-2 years</td>
<td>21.8</td>
<td>15.7</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3-4 years</td>
<td>17.0</td>
<td>12.3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5-9 years</td>
<td>23.0</td>
<td>16.5</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10-14 years</td>
<td>13.3</td>
<td>18.2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15-19 years</td>
<td>7.6</td>
<td>10.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20-24 years</td>
<td>5.7</td>
<td>6.8</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>25-29 years</td>
<td>4.9</td>
<td>10.1</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>30 years or more</td>
<td>9.9</td>
<td>9.9</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(Note) Data from "Basic Survey of the Wage Structure" by the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare

(Changes in the number of female managerial staff)

According to the positions of female workers at the managerial level shown in the “Basic Survey of Wage Structures” by MHLW (Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare), the percentage at the subsection chief level is the highest among all female managerial staff, occupying 10.8% in 2006. But the female rate falls for higher positions. The percentage at the section chief level is 5.8% and the percentage at the director level is 3.7%, both of which are very low, but they are tending to rise (Chart 21).

**Chart 21: Percentage of female managerial staff by position**

(Note) Data from the "Basic Survey on Wage Structure" by the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare
(The wage gap is shrinking between male and female regular workers over the long term. The wage gap was also slightly reduced between part-time and regular workers.)

In the indexed figure (male regular workers’ salary level: 100), female regular workers’ salary level stands at 67.1. As for the wage gap between male regular workers and male/female part-time workers, the salary level for male part-time workers is 52.6 as of 2006, while that of female part-time workers remains almost flat at 42 to 46, registering 46.8 as of 2006. Although the wage gap falls by 0.5 points in 2006 on a year-on-year basis, female part-time workers still earn a much lower salary level than male regular workers (Chart 22).

![Chart 22: Gap of average official hourly wages for workers (male regular worker = 100)](image)

(Notes) 1. Data from "Basic Survey of the Wage Structure" by the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare
2. The figures represent each category’s average official hourly wage as a percentage of the male full-time worker’s average official hourly wage level.

(The number of double-income households is increasing.)

Since 1997, the number of double-income households has exceeded single-income households that consist of an income-earning husband and a non-working wife. There seems to be a result of background factors, including changes in attitudes toward women’s social advancement and economic conditions
Chapter 3: Work-life balance
(Hope for work-life balance and actual conditions)

According to the “Survey on Attitudes toward Declining Birthrate and Gender Equality (Working Style by Gender and Work-Life Balance)” (2006) by the Specialist Committee on Declining Birthrate and Gender Equality of CGF (the Council for Gender Equality), there is a significant difference between people’s desire to balance their work and personal lives and the real situation. Especially for men, whether married or not, the reality of their lives greatly differs from their desire to place priority on work (Chart 23).

Chart 23: Desired and actual work - personal life balance by employee attribute

(Note) Data from the “Survey of Attitudes toward Declining Birthrate and Gender Equality (Working Style by Gender and Work Life Balance)” (2006) by the Specialist Committee on Declining Birthrate and Gender Equality of CGE.

(Burdens on women of housekeeping, childcare, and nursing care)

According to the daily living hours of married couples by labor-force participation of wives shown by the “Survey on Time Use and Leisure Activities” (2001) by MIC (Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications), husbands in double income households spend 25 minutes on housekeeping, childcare, and nursing care, while wives spend 4 hours 12 minutes. In households where husbands hold a job and wives do not hold a job, husbands spend 32 minutes, while wives spend 6 hours 59 minutes. The time spent on housekeeping, childcare, and nursing care by husbands is far shorter than that of wives, regardless of whether wives hold a job or not. For men there is little difference in living conditions between single income households and double income households. However, women in double income households shoulder the burden of housekeeping, childcare, and nursing care while working, and they have less time for leisure.

According to the “Basic Survey of Employment Management of Women” (FY 2005) by MHLW, the percentage of those who take a childcare leave among all women who give birth during their career or among all men whose wives give birth is 72.3% for women and 0.5% for men. The percentages of those who take childcare leave by gender, are 98.0% of women, and 2.0% of men. There is a wide difference between men and women in taking childcare leave when married couples have a baby.
(Circumstances making it difficult for women to continue or return to their careers)

Though efforts to provide equal employment opportunities for men and women as well as support for the balancing of work and childcare have been made, many women still quit their jobs when they give birth, and the percentage of women who continue their careers after childbirth has not increased. From the viewpoint of the M-shaped curve, which is a characteristic of women's labor participation rate, the bottom of the curve indicating women rearing children in their thirties has been rising recently. However, the rise is caused by an increase in women who are not married and hold a job due to the tendency to marry later, and it does not prove that the environment has been improved so that women who are married and give birth can continue or return to their careers (Chart 24).

Chart 24: Female labor-force participation rate by family structure

(Notes) 1. Data specially collected by Ms. Mieko Takeishi (Hosei University), a member of the Specialist Committee on Declining Birthrate and Gender Equality, based on the "Employment Status Survey" by the Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications
2. "Without spouse and no child" includes those who are not married, as well as those who are divorced or bereaved. "With child" includes those who are married and not married.

(Men's long working hours)

The weekly average working hours and the percentage of employees working for 60 hours or more a week based on the Labor Force Survey (2006) by MIC, shows that female workers between the ages of 35-49 have relatively shorter working hours, but male workers in their 30s have very long working hours of about 50 hours. Male workers in their 30s include the highest percentage of employees working for 60 hours or more a week.

Husbands spend very little time on childcare because they work long hours during the child-rearing period and their wives take responsibility for childcare by adjusting their working hours.
Work sites also benefit from the introduction of measures to help balance work and family and maintain individual work-life balance. According to the above-mentioned “Survey on Attitudes toward Declining Birthrate and Gender Equality (Working Style by Gender and Work-Life Balance)”, both men and women, whether they are married or not, who feel that they are ensured a balance between their work and personal lives, tend to be more highly motivated to work (Chart 25).

Chart 25. Degree of realization of balanced work and personal life, and motivation for work

(Notes) 1. Data from “Survey on Attitudes toward Declining Birthrate and Gender Equality” (2006) by the Specialist Committee on Declining Birthrate and Gender Equality of the Council for Gender Equality.
2. “Degree of realization of balanced work and personal life” is based on answers to the question “Do you think your work and personal life are well balanced?”
3. “Motivation for work” is based on answers to the question “Do you think you are taking a positive stance toward your job with a sense of purpose?”
Chapter 4: Violence against women
(Potential Violence)

According to the “Survey on Violence between Men and Women (2005)” by the Cabinet Office, 10.6% of female respondents and 2.6% of male respondents (out of 2,328 respondents who are married so far) have “on many occasions” experienced either “physical assault,” mental harassment or frightening threats,” or “sexual coercion” by their spouse (“spouse” in this context also includes: common-law husband and wife; spouse living separately; and ex-spouse). And 22.6% of female respondents and 14.8% of male respondents have seen one of these experiences “once or twice”, while 33.2% of female respondents and 17.4% of male respondents have had such experiences “at least once” (Chart 26).

Chart 26: Violence by spouse

(Notes) 1. Data from the “Survey on Violence between Men and Women (2005)” by the Cabinet office
2. Physical assault: Bodily assault, such as punching, kicking, pelting, and knocking over
3. Mental assault: Mental harassment, such as using verbal abuse that would deny personal integrity or closely checking up on personal contacts; or frightening threats that would harm the respondents or any of their family members
4. Sexual coercion: Coerced sexual affairs against the respondent’s will

(Increasing number of arrests for violence inflicted on wives by their husbands)

Looking at changes of the number of arrests for crimes between partners in the case of female victims of crime, assault and injury have increased since 2000. Injuries decreased in 2004 from the previous year, however, in 2006, assault increased by 312 cases (86.9%) to 671 cases, and injury also increased by 30 cases (2.4%) to 1,294 cases on the year-on-year basis (Chart 27).

Chart 27: Arrests for crimes against wife by husband

(Note) Data from documents provided by the National Police Agency
(Sex-related crimes)

According to the National Police Agency’s statistics, the number of recorded rape cases has continued to exceed 2,000 cases for 6 consecutive years since 2000. But it started to fall in 2004 and stood at 1,948 cases in 2006, a decrease by 128 cases (6.2%) on the year-on-year basis.

The number of recorded indecent assaults that tended to rise from 1999 to 2003, started to fall in 2004 and stood at 8,326 cases in 2006, a decrease of 425 cases (4.7%) on the year-on-year basis. Police authorities are making efforts to provide better conditions for sex-related crime victims by having female officers’ interview them and by establishing call centers.

(Prostitution)

The number of prostitution-related criminal offenses stands at 3,004 in 2006, increasing from the 2005 level. Out of the total 2,223 women in need of protection that decreased from the 2005 level, minors accounted for 42.9%, increasing by 14.0 points.

(Human trafficking)

According to the National Police Agency’s statistics, the number of arrests for crimes related to human trafficking stands at 72 cases, and the number of criminals arrested stands at 78 persons, of which 24 persons are brokers. The total number of human trafficking victims stands at 58, a decrease pf 59 persons (50.4%) from the 2005 level.

(Sexual harassment)

In FY2005, the Equal Employment Department of the Prefectural Labour Office level received 7,894 counseling cases for sexual harassment. The number of counseling cases increased by 188 (2.4%) from the previous year. Out of this total, 6,505 cases (82.4%) were brought by female workers, an increase of 214 cases (3.4%) from the previous year.

(Stalking behavior)

The number of stalking behavior cases reported to the National Police Agency stood at 12,501 during 2006, an increase of 281 cases (2.3%) from the 2005 level. Women account for 90.4% of stalking victims, while men account for 89.7% of all assailants.
Chapter 5: Support lifelong health for women
(The indexes for maternal and child health have taken a downward trend.)

The major indexes for maternal and child health conditions have been generally falling (Chart 28).

**Chart 28: Indexes for maternal and child health conditions**

(in Notes) 1. Data from "Vital Statistics of Japan" by the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare
2. "Total births" in "Maternal mortality rate" include live births and foetal deaths (at 12 completed weeks and over of gestation).
3. "Total births" in "Perinatal mortality rate" include live births and foetal deaths (at 22 completed weeks and over of gestation).

(The number of abortions is generally decreasing but is increasing in the younger generation)

In general, the number and rate of induced abortions (the proportion of induced abortions to 1,000 women aged 15 to 50) decreased from 1975 to 2005. However, the number of abortions has increased by approximately 60% since 1980 among women younger than 20 years old. The younger generation accounts for a larger percentage of the total number of abortions. A total of 11,600 women have an abortion at the age of 19, suggesting one out of 58 women (17.2%) terminates a pregnancy when they are 19 years old.

(Younger people are more vulnerable to HIV than other generations.)

In 2005, there were 832 new HIV (human immunodeficiency virus) carriers and 367 new AIDS patients (those who suffer from opportunistic infection disease, such as carinii pneumonia, or a malignant tumor), and the number of HIV carriers hit new high records (Chart 29). It is estimated that a total of 82.8% of HIV carriers were infected within Japan. From the viewpoint of age when first reported, 38.3% of HIV carriers were infected with HIV in their 20s, which represents a high infection rate among young people.

**Chart 29: Number of HIV-infected men and women by age bracket**

(Persons)

(In Notes) 1. Data from the Health, Labour and Welfare Ministry's documents
2. The figures represent newly reported HIV-infected people for the year.
Chapter 6: Gender equality in the education and research fields

(A larger percentage of Japanese women are entering university and college.)

In FY2006, the high school advancement rate stood at 96.8% for women and 96.2% for men, which suggests that slightly more female students enter high school than male students. The university (undergraduate course) advancement rate stands at 52.1% for men and 38.5% for women, indicating that the rate for male students is over 10 points higher than that for female students. However since 12.4% of all female students enter junior colleges, and if this figure is included, the total women’s advancement rate for higher education will come to 50.9%. The women’s university advancement rate has been rising in recent years, while the advancement rate for junior colleges has been falling sharply in recent years after hitting a peak of 24.9% in 1994.

An increasing number of male and female students are entering graduate schools immediately after completing their undergraduate studies. The graduate school advancement rate stands at 15.1% for male students and 7.1% for female students, as of FY 2006 (Chart 30).

Chart 30: Advancement rate for each school category

(Notes)
1. Data from "School Basic Survey" by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology
2. "Upper secondary education": Percentage of graduates of lower secondary schools and secondary schools (lower division) who enter upper secondary school and college of technology (except for upper secondary school-level correspondence courses).
3. "University (undergraduate course" and "Junior college": Total university or junior college enrollments (including students who had failed the entrance exam but were accepted at a university of their choice in the following year) divided by lower secondary school graduates in the previous three years before. The figure excludes students on university-level or junior college-level correspondence courses.
4. "Graduate school": Students who enter graduate school immediately after completing their undergraduate course as a percentage of all students completing undergraduate courses. (It also includes new advancement to the Ph.D. course in the case of medical and dental schools.) The figure excludes graduate-level correspondence courses.

(The gap in students' major fields)

At the undergraduate level, majors in the social sciences make up the largest percentage of female students. In 2006, female students accounted for approximately 30% of all students majoring in the social sciences. Female students majoring in engineering account for 10.5% of all engineering majors, while females majoring in the humanities account for 66.6% of all majors in the humanities, suggesting a gender gap in students' major fields.
Female teachers and faculty members account for a small percentage of the higher positions.

Female teachers occupy more than 60% of all teaching jobs at elementary schools, but the percentage becomes lower in lower secondary schools and upper secondary schools. The percentage of female principals and vice principals has been rising in the long term, from 4.1% in 1990, to 18.0% in 2006. However, the percentage is still low for female principals and vice principals compared to that for female teachers.

Women account for more than 40% of faculty members at junior colleges, but only between 10% to 20% at universities. In particular, women still make up only a small percentage of professors or university presidents (Chart 31).

Chart 31: Percentage of full-time female teachers (at elementary, secondary and higher education levels)

(Note) Data from "School Basic Survey (FY 2005)" by the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology
(Percentage of female researchers)

The percentage of women among all researchers in Japan has been gradually increasing, but still stands at 11.9% as of 2006, a figure much lower than that in Europe and the United States (Chart 32). Female researchers at higher education levels account for 40.4% in undergraduate courses of universities and 30.4% in graduate schools (master’s courses), suggesting that the percentage of female researchers should be higher.

Chart 32. International comparison of the percentage of female researchers

(Notes)
1. Data from the "NISTEP REPORT No. 86" by the National Institute of Science and Technology Policy, the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology (except for Japan and U.S.A)
2. The figure for Japan is based on the "Results of the Survey of Research and Development (FY2006)" by the Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications (as of March, 2006).
3. The figure for the U.S.A. is the percentage of women scientists (including social sciences and parts of the humanities) based on the "Science and Engineering Indicators 2004" by the NSF (as of 1999).

(Affiliation and fields of specialization of female researchers)

According to the “Results of the Survey of Research and Development (FY2006)” by MIC, about 60% of male researchers belong to companies and around 30% belong to universities. By contrast, while 60% of female researchers belong to universities and 30% belong to companies.

Looking at the fields of specialization of female researchers, most of whom belong to universities, in 2006 women accounted for about half of all researchers specializing in health science, such as nutritional science, excluding medical science and dentistry. On the other hand, women accounted for only 6.8% of all researchers in engineering and 10% in science and agriculture. Even in fields of specialization that have high comparatively percentages of female researchers, the higher the position, the lower the rate for females ranging from lecturers to assistant professors and professors.
Part 2: Policies Implemented in FY 2006 to Promote Formation of a Gender-Equal Society

Chapter 1: Comprehensive promotion of policies towards a gender-equal society

○ CGE (Council for Gender Equality) has been promoting the investigation and discussion of basic principles for formation of a gender-equal society, basic policies and important matters under the leadership of Prime Minister, the chief cabinet secretary who chairs the council, and the minister for gender equality (Table 33).

Table 33: Activities of the Council for Gender Equality

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Resolutions in the Council for Gender Equality</th>
<th>Specialist committee</th>
<th>Time</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>“Opinions on Follow-up of the Numerical Target for the Enlargement of Women’s Participation in Decision-making Processes (30% in 2020)”</td>
<td>Specialist Committee on Basic Issues</td>
<td>February 2007</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Establishment of a specialist Committee on work-life balance</td>
<td></td>
<td>February 2007</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

○ “Women’s Renewed Challenge Support Plan”, which was compiled by the “Review Meeting of Women’s Renewed Challenge Support Measures” in December 2005, as comprehensive measures that will encourage women to find new jobs or start their own businesses after quitting their jobs for childcare responsibilities or other reasons, was revised to further strengthen measures in December 2006.

In order to provide information necessary to efficiently implement the renewed challenge, the Cabinet Office launched a comprehensive support information portal site, “Women’s Renewed Challenge Support Portal Site” in
cooperation with related ministries

Chapter 2: Expand women’s participation in decision-making processes

○ In August 2006, NPA (National Personnel Authority) submitted opinions to the Diet and Cabinet in order to promote legislation concerning the introduction of the short-time working system for childcare, in which workers engaged in childcare are allowed to shorten working hours while remaining as full-time staff. After examining the NPA’s opinions, the government submitted an amendment bill to the Diet in order to partially amend the law concerning childcare leave for national government employees to establish the short-time working system for childcare.

○ The Specialist Committee on Monitoring and Gender Impact Assessment and Evaluation of CGE conducted investigations and discussions of the assignment of members of advisory councils in prefectures and government-designated cities based on the national legislation, and compiled a report on the results. In October 2006, the report was presented to CGE, and matters to be noted to prepare for future efforts were decided.

Chapter 3: Review social systems and practices and raise awareness from a gender-equal perspective

○ The Ministry of Justice conducted the “Public Opinion Survey on Family Legislation” through the Cabinet Public Relations Office in December 2006, and released the results in January 2007.

○ Beginning in FY 2005, the Cabinet Office held “Minister’s Gender Equality Workshops” in various parts of the country in order to encourage correct understanding of the basic philosophy of gender equality as well as the definition of “gender” perspectives. These workshops which were attended by the minister for gender equality, were aimed at government officials and local assemblypersons.

Chapter 4: Secure equal opportunities and treatment between men and women in the field of employment

○ In order to promote gender equal employment opportunities, the amended Equal Employment Opportunity Law and Labor Standards Law were promulgated in June 2006. The amendments include provisions concerning prohibition of discrimination on the basis of sex, clarification and addition of employment stages, expansion of the scope of prohibited sexual discrimination, such as indirect discrimination, and prohibition etc. of disadvantageous treatment by reason of pregnancy, childbirth and so on. MHLW (Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare) made efforts to raise awareness about the revised laws in order to ensure their smooth enforcement.

○ MHLW established public employment security offices called “Mothers’ Hello Work” in 2006 to assist child-raising mothers and others to seek employment. These offices provide comprehensive and coherent employment support. For example, the place was arranged in such way that mothers would not hesitate to visit it with their children. Officers in charge provide counseling on job search and child-raising information in collaboration with local authorities to those who are ready to immediately reenter employment.

Chapter 5: Establish gender equality to realizing dynamic rural areas

○ To encourage rural women’s active participation in social activities or corporate management, MAFF (Ministry of Agriculture Forestry and Fisheries) urged regions to develop targets for women’s participation, and followed up on their efforts to achieve such targets. As measures to promote positive action, it also provided support for improving women’s skills, fostering local female leaders, and encouraging women’s participation in rural farm management in order to provide more opportunities for women to fully demonstrate their potential.

Chapter 6: Support the efforts of men and women to harmonize work with their family and community life
In accordance with the “Law for Measures to Support the Development of the Next Generation,” MHLW conducted PR activities and gave instructions to corporations so that they can develop and implement their “General Employer Action Plan,” that is intended to provide a working environment necessary to balance work and child raising. It actively promoted efforts to create an environment in which parents can have a baby and raise a child without anxiety while working.

Law for the centre for early childhood education and care was promulgated in June, 2006 and has been enforced from October, 2006. It stipulated the establishment of a system through which prefectural governments authorize “comprehensive facilities coherently providing preschool education and childcare services” (Centre for early childhood education and care).

Chapter 7: Develop conditions that allow the elderly to live with peace of mind

MHLW promoted the employment of the elderly based on the Law Concerning Stabilization of Employment of Older Persons amended in June 2006. It promoted measures to secure employment for people aged 65 or younger and support job hunting in line with the rising retirement age and the adoption of continued employment systems. It also promoted Silver Human Resources Centers to provide various employment opportunities in accordance with people’s desire for employment, qualifications and physical strength. Specifically, it made efforts to raise awareness and give guidance about measures to stabilize employment for older persons, which employers have been obliged to implement since April 2006. The measures include raising retirement age up to the age of pension payment eligibility, and adopting a continued employment system.

Chapter 8: Eliminate all forms of violence against women

The Cabinet Office held a seminar on the improvement in the quality of counseling, etc. targeted at counselors and staff supervising counselors in Spousal Violence Counseling and Support Centers throughout the country six times in FY 2006.

It also carried out the “Advisor Dispatching Project for Victims of Spousal Violence” to dispatch advisors with specialized knowledge or experience to Spousal Violence Counseling and Support Centers throughout the country to give guidance and advice and to encourage improvement of counseling services in 10 ordinance-designated cities in 41 prefectures.

Taking into account the circumstances in spousal violence crimes, including situations where a protection order can be issued against marital abuse based on the Law for the Prevention of Spousal Violence and the Protection of Victims, under a revision of enforcement regulations of the Law concerning Financial Benefit and Other Assistance Measures for Crime Victims in April, 2006, the police authorities relaxed restrictions on the payment of benefits when deemed necessary.

Chapter 9: Support lifelong health for women

Breast cancer is the most prevalent form of cancer among women, and it has been increasing year by year. Uterus cancer is occurring among increasingly younger people and it has been pointed out that it is correlated with sexually transmitted diseases. In order to promote early detection of such cancers and reduce the death rate, MHLW revised guidelines to review the implementation methods and target ages for examinations for breast cancer and uterus cancer, which were implemented by municipalities, in April, 2004.

Chapter 10: Promote gender equality in the media

The Meeting on IT Security (Liaison Conference for Ministries and Agencies Concerned with Illegal and Harmful
Information on the Internet) promoted government-wide measures based on the “Measures against Illegal and Harmful Information on the Internet” (formulated in June 2005) focusing on disseminating filtering software and promoting formulation of voluntary guidelines by content providers, and summarized the progress of measures in July, 2005.

○ In order to protect minors from harmful material about sex and violence on the Internet, MIC (Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications) supports the implementation of the “Action Plan for Promotion of Filtering Systems” prepared by related businesses, and pursues activities to promote filtering systems. As one of its activities, it requested cell-phone businesses to take measures to further promote filtering systems in the name of the minister in November, 2006.

Chapter 11: Enrich education and learning that promote gender equality and facilitate diversity of choice

○ The Independent Administrative Institution National Women’s Education Center is a national center to promote national and international women’s education. It aims to train core leaders for women’s education, to conduct training in support women’s challenges for diverse careers and on issues concerning violence by spouses and others, to respond to pressing issues, such as support for women’s participation in science and technology fields, to support women’s empowerment in the Asia-Pacific region, and to provide information to meet various needs for realizing a gender-equal society.

The women’s information portal site “Winet” was opened as a comprehensive women’s information site in 2006 to improve information-providing services for women’s empowerment.

Chapter 12: Contribute to the “Equality, Development and Peace” of the global community

○ The 51st session of the CSW (United Nations Commission on the Status of Women) was held from February to March 2007 to discuss the priority theme, “Elimination of all forms of discrimination and violence against the girl child”.

○ The Cabinet Office organized the very first ministerial meeting on gender equality in East Asia, the East Asia Gender Equality Ministerial Meeting, in Tokyo from June 30 to July 1, 2006. Attendees, coming from 16 different countries and 2 international organizations, including 14 minister-level officials, carried out fruitful debates. The success of this meeting led to the unanimous adoption of the ”Tokyo Joint Ministerial Communiqué” that sets the decision to deliver the Ministerial Meeting on an annual basis.

Chapter 13: Promote gender equality in fields requiring new initiatives

○ In response to the “Third-term Basic Program for Science and Technology,” approved at a Cabinet meeting in March 2006, MEXT (Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology) launched a new program for the Special Coordination Funds for Promoting Science and Technology, “Supporting Activities for Female Researchers” in FY2006, in line with the policy of the Council for Science and Technology Policy. The program aims to support universities’ efforts to encourage women to continue with research activities, while balancing research work and childbirth/childcare.

The Japan Society for the Promotion of Science (JSPS) created with the program of Research Fellowships for Young Scientists a framework for supporting and encouraging excellent researchers to return to research activities after quitting work due to childbirth and childcare. It also implemented the “Project to Encourage Female Junior High and High School Students to Choose Science Courses”, a project that provides female junior high and high school students with opportunities to have contact with female researchers, experimental classes, and lecture delivery services.
Policies to be Implemented in FY 2007 to Promote the Formation of a Gender-Equal Society

Chapter 1: Comprehensive promotion policies towards a gender-equal society

○ By making appropriate use of its subordinated specialist committees, CGE (Council for Gender Equality) as much as possible will make efforts to coordinate gender equality policy measures.

○ In accordance with the “Plan of Support for Women’s Renewed Challenge” revised in December 2006, the Cabinet Office will provide women with information and training courses necessary for their renewed challenge in collaboration with private organizations, which makes efforts to support childcare. It will also develop and promote training programs and educational materials in order to provide women with comprehensive support for their renewed challenge.

Chapter 2: Expand women’s participation in decision-making processes

○ Personnel affairs section managers of each ministry and agency have reached an agreement in response to the the “Guidelines concerning the Enlargement of the Recruitment and Promotion of Female National Public Officers” formulated by the Headquarters for the Promotion of Gender Equality in April 2004. Based on the agreement and “Second Basic Plan for the Gender Equality”, MIC (Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications) will follow up efforts to enlarge the recruitment and promotion of female national public officers in each ministry and agency, and encourage recruitment and promotion of female national public officers.

○ Based on the “Opinions on Follow-up of the Numerical Target (30% by 2020) concerning Women’s Participation in Decision-making Processes” determined by CGE in February 2007, the current state including the percentage of women in positions of leadership in each field of society will be surveyed and announced.

Chapter 3: Review social systems and practices and raise awareness from a gender-equal perspective

○ The government will examine the impact of governmental policy measures on gender equality. If deemed necessary, the government will also review Japan’s social systems and practices so that the social systems and practices will not have an adverse impact on people’s lifestyles.

○ The Cabinet Office will work on easily understandable PR campaigns in order to encourage correct understanding of the basic philosophy of gender equality as well as the definition of “gender” perspectives.

Chapter 4: Secure equal opportunities and treatment between men and women in the field of employment

○ MHLW (Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare) will provide guidance to thoroughly implement equal treatment in accordance with the revised Equal Employment Opportunity Law.

○ METI (Ministry of Economy, Trade and Industry) has already implemented a loan program to lend initial funding at a reasonable rate, which is not limited to women. Since FY2007, it will further promote the creation of new businesses by raising the loan limit and relaxing the self-financing requirement.

Chapter 5: Establish gender equality to realizing dynamic rural areas

○ In order to improve the environment to encourage women’ participation in management in the agriculture, forestry and
fisheries industry, MAFF (Ministry of Agriculture Forestry and Fisheries) will help women realize advanced farm management by developing a system for home-based learning of agriculture targeted at female farmers and making efforts to increase authorized female farmers.

Chapter 6: Support the efforts of men and women to harmonize work with their family and community life

○ MHLW will provide child-raising mothers seeking employment with detailed job-hunting counseling and secure job offers according to individual circumstances, such as child-rearing stages and interval of employment, at “Mothers’ Hello Work” offices. It will also establish a “Mothers’ Salon” in major “Hello Work” offices in prefectures which have no “Mothers’ Hello Work” offices in order to provide the same services as the above and improve job-hunting support for mainly child-raising mothers.

○ Based on examples of SME’s advanced actions against the falling birthrate collected in FY2006, METI will analyze and organize key points for falling birthrate measures to be adopted. It will also help SME owners to adopt comprehensive management methods suitable to deal with the falling birthrate.

○ In FY2007, in collaboration with MHLW, MEXT (Ministry of Education, Culture Sports, Science and Technology) will implement the “After-school Plan for Children” to ensure places for children’s safe and sound activities after school or on weekends as comprehensive after-school childcare measures, and it will strive to disseminate the plan to elementary school districts throughout Japan.

Chapter 7: Develop conditions that allow the elderly to live with peace of mind

○ MEXT will begin the research to implement “Educational Supporters” plan nationwide. In this plan, the elderly and the baby-boomer generation, including women, with knowledge and skills acquired through the careers and education, will support school and other education in community.

Chapter 8: Eliminate all forms of violence against women

○ The government will further promote PR campaigns and actively provide related information in order to eradicate violence against women.
The Cabinet Office will set up a nationwide, 24-hour hotline during the “Campaign for Eliminating Violence against Women” in FY 2007.

○ MHLW will appoint advisors to take care of children accompanying victims staying at temporary shelters at women’s counseling centers and will employ psychotherapists at facilities for women on a full-time basis beginning in FY 2007. It will initiate a project to enable victims to secure a guarantor when they leave temporary shelters of women’s counseling centers or facilities for women, in order to improve care for victims and self-support assistance.

Chapter 9: Support lifelong health for women

○ Based on the “New Health Frontier Strategy” compiled in April 2007, MHLW will implement concrete measures during a period of 10 years beginning in FY2007.
In accordance with the results of the interim assessment of the “Health Japan 21” announced in April 2007, it will further promote measures against lifestyle-related diseases by setting representative goals and new goals.
Chapter 10: Promote gender equality in the media

○ The Meeting on IT Security (Liaison Conference for the Ministries and Agencies Concerning Illegal and Harmful Information on the Internet) will propose intensive measures against illegal and harmful information on the internet, including issues related to online dating services by September 2007.

Chapter 11: Enrich education and learning that promote gender equality and facilitate a diversity of choice

○ MEXT will provide renewed-challenge support courses for women who wish to try a new challenge in their own backyard as one measure to provide learning opportunities reflecting the needs of local communities and corporations. It will develop and conduct specialized and practical education programs, according to needs of working people who wish to take up a new challenge (including women who quit their job due to childcare responsibilities) by making use of research resources and vocational education functions in universities, junior colleges, higher professional schools and special technical schools and cooperating with industries and related organizations. The programs aim to enhance opportunities to resume education and to promote a system to issue certificates for the completion of courses.

Chapter 12: Contribute to the “Equality, Development and Peace” of the global community

○ The government will actively cooperate with various activities encouraging women’s empowerment along with the initiative of the UN, promote building and maintaining of peace in post-conflict areas as well as the active participation of women in the process of reconstruction and development, and promote the international exchange.

Chapter 13: Promote gender equality in fields requiring new initiatives

○ MEXT will increase the quota for the number of excellent male and female researchers who will be encouraged to resume research activities after quitting their work due to childbirth and childcare within the program of Research Fellowships for Young Scientists by the Japan Society for the Promotion of Science. It will also conduct the “Project to Encourage Female Junior High and High School Students to Choose Science Courses,” a project that provides female junior high and high school students with opportunities for contact with female researchers, experimental classes, and lecture delivery services, for the purpose of stimulating girl’s interest and attention to science and technology fields among girls.

○ In view of the actual cases where women’s active participation has led to local revitalization, the government will disseminate information on the best practices of such participation to every region of the country.

○ The government will push ahead with gender equality in the environmental field in order to effectively utilize women’s high level of interest as well as rich, knowledge and experience in environmental preservation.