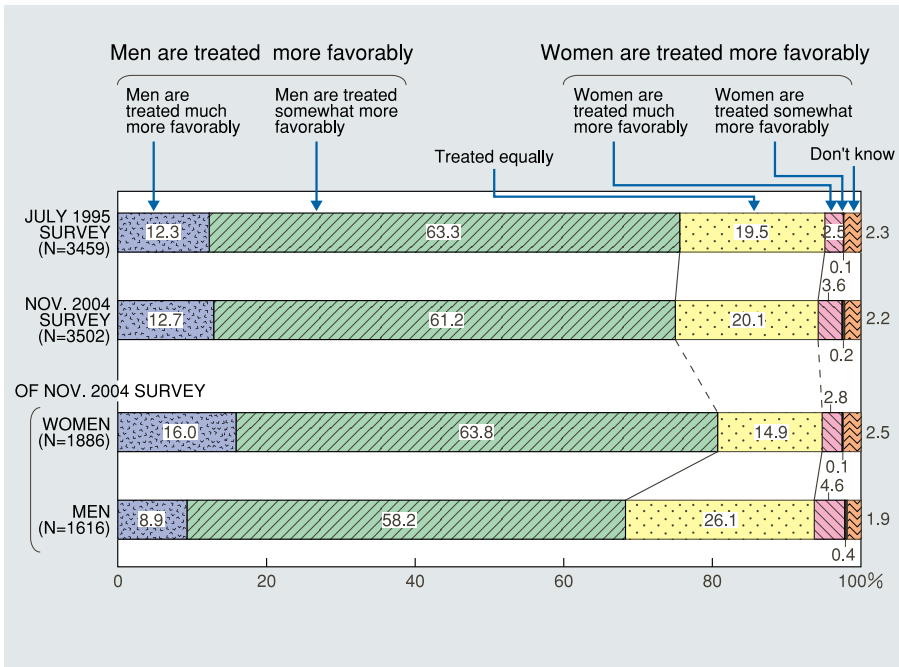


I Formation of a Gender-equal Society

男女共同参画社会の形成の状況

1. Perceptions of Gender Equality and Stereotyped Role-Sharing

Perceptions of Equality Regarding the Status of Women and Men

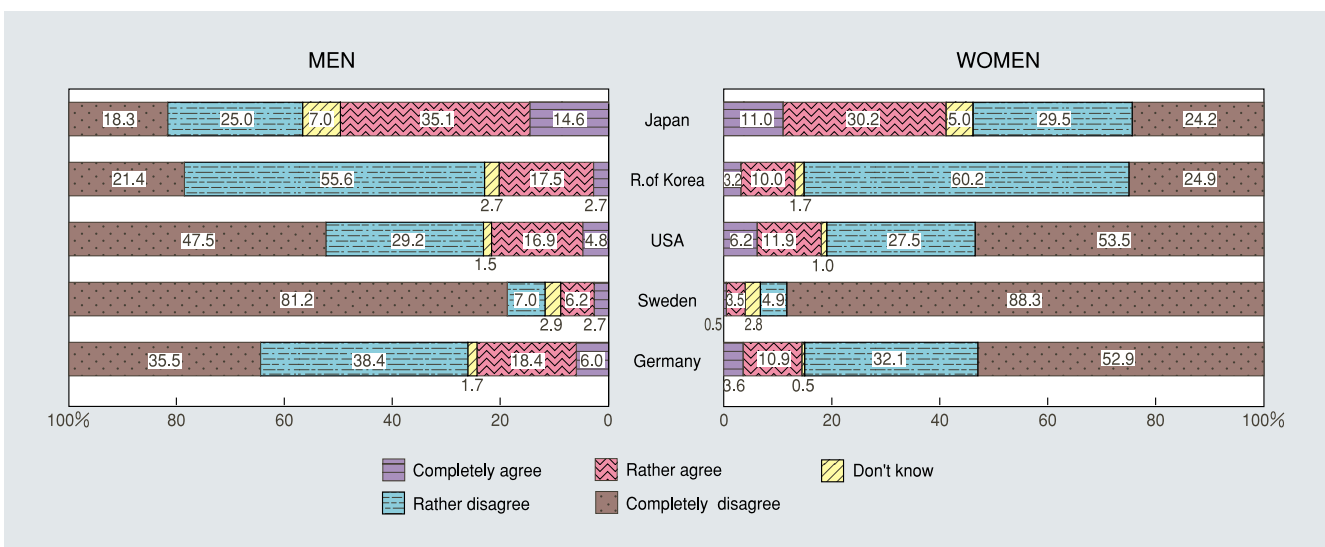


When asked for their views on gender equality in society as a whole, both women and men feel that disparities exist between the status of women and men. Approximately 74 percent of all women and men hold the perception that men are treated more favorably.

Stereotyped perceptions of gender roles have developed over a long period of time and have come to be viewed as standardized norms in the minds of many Japanese people. It is such perceptions that pose an obstacle to the formation of a truly gender-equal society.

(Source) "Public Opinion Poll on a Gender-equal Society (Nov. 2004)," Cabinet Office

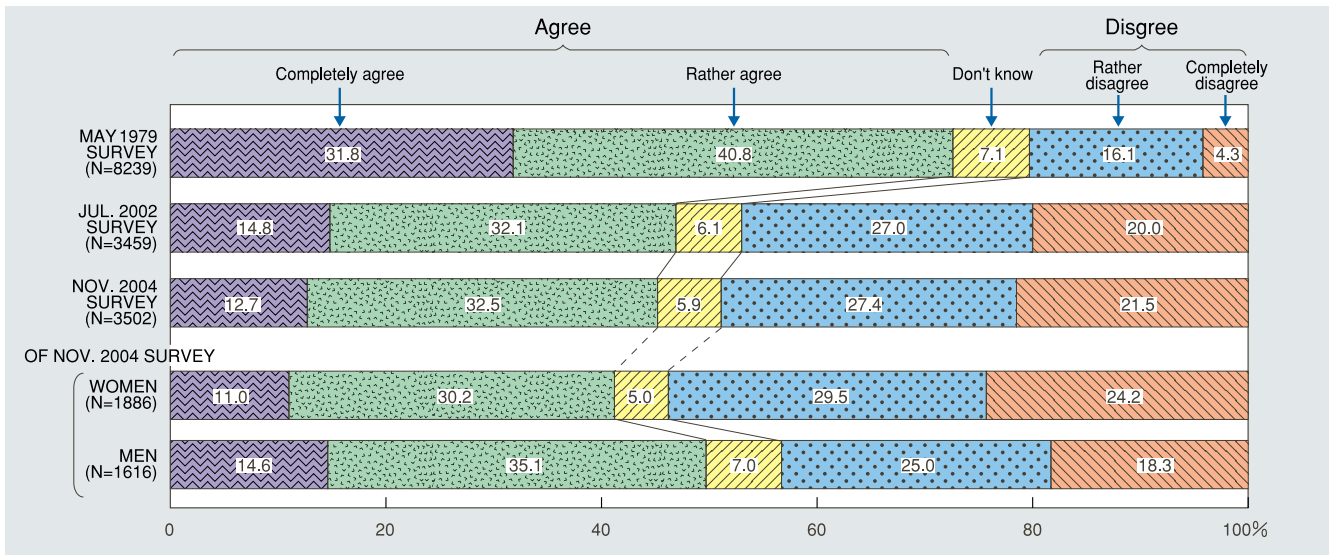
International Comparison: View on the Question, "The Husband Should Be the Breadwinner, the Wife Should Stay at Home"



In other countries very few respondents indicate that they "Support" the above view or "Support it to some degree." This tendency is particularly strong in Sweden. Respondents who agree with this view are still of a higher proportion in Japan.

(Source) Japan: "Public Opinion Poll on a Gender-equal Society (Nov. 2004)," Cabinet Office
The others: "International Comparison on a Gender-equal Society (Jun. 2003)," Cabinet Office

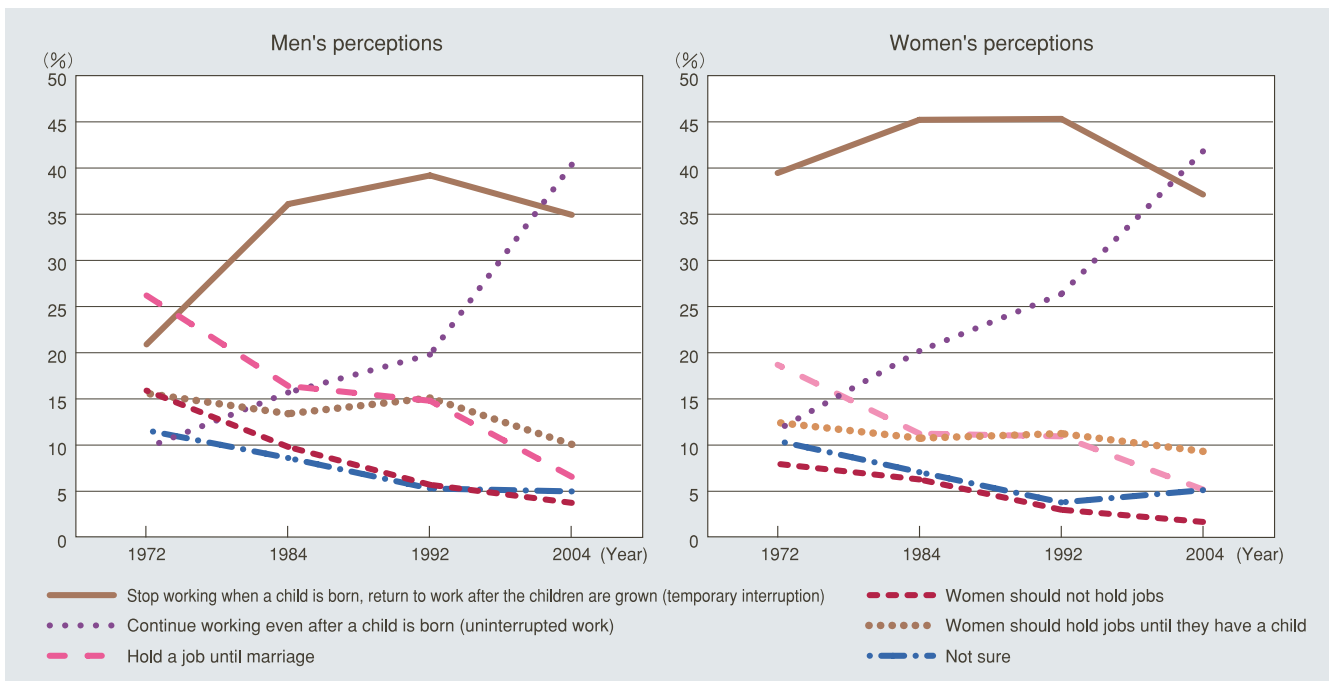
Changing Views Over Time on the Question, "The Husband Should Be the Breadwinner, the Wife Should Stay at Home"



In an opinion poll implemented in 1979 over 70 percent of respondents agreed with the above view. Twenty five years later, in the 2004 Public Opinion Poll on a Gender-equal Society, the number of those who disagreed with the view (48.9%) exceeded those who agreed with it (45.2%) for the first time. However, even in 2004, by gender it was the case that while 53.8 percent of women disagreed with the view as opposed to 41.3 percent who agreed with it, a majority of men (49.8%) were in agreement, with only 43.3 percent in opposition.

(Source) "Public Opinion Poll on a Gender-equal Society (Nov. 2004)," Cabinet Office
 (Note) Numbers on the figure may not equal 100 due to decimal data processing

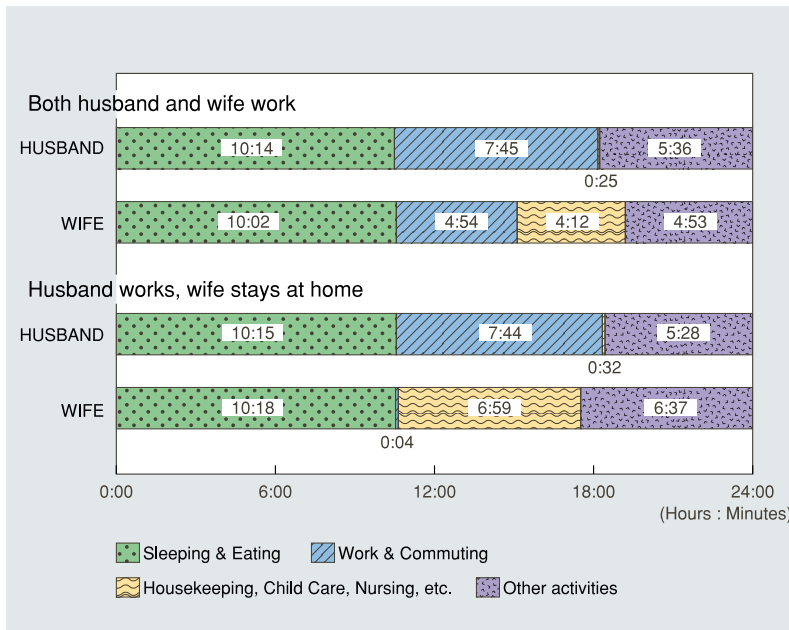
Change in public attitude on women engaging in employment



Attitudes supportive of women engaging in employment are steadily growing among both women and men. Among men, in particular, those who support "uninterrupted work" for women have sharply increased in number since 1992. Combined with those who support "temporary work interruption," more than 70 percent of men are supportive of women engaging in employment.

(Source) "Public Opinion Poll on a Gender-equal Society (Nov. 2004)," Cabinet Office and other survey results

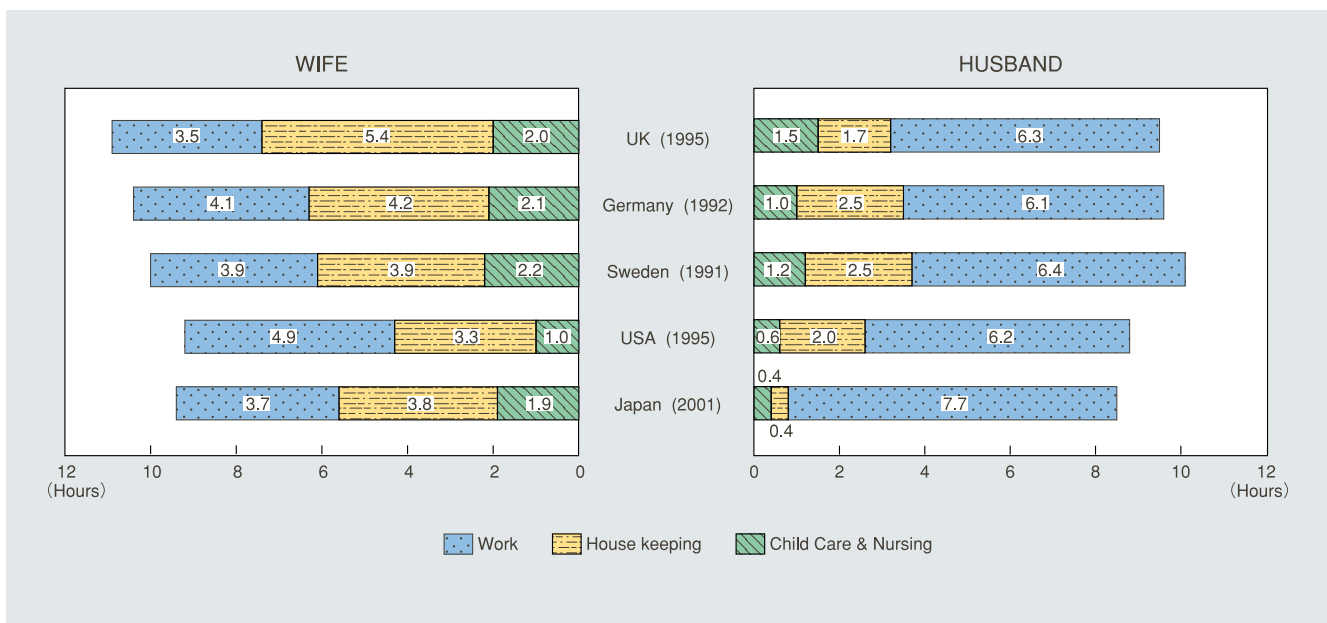
Japan: Time Usage by Married Couples



Looking at how Japanese couples spend their time, we see that regardless of whether their wives work, husbands spend little time on housework, raising children, or nursing care for the elderly. As a result, working wives have to shoulder their responsibilities both at home and at work.

(Source) "Basic Survey of Social Lifestyles 2001," Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications

International Comparison: Time Usage by Married Couples



In international comparisons Japanese husbands are also seen to spend little time on housework and raising children.

(Source) "Basic Survey of Social Lifestyles 2001," Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications, "Employment Outlook 2001," OECD

2. Women's Participation in Policy and Decision-making Processes

International Comparison of Human Development Indices

HDI (Human Development Index)			GEM (Gender Empowerment Measure)			GGI (Gender Gap Index)		
HDI Rank	Country	HDI	GEM Rank	Country	GEM	GGI Rank	Country	GGI
1	Norway	0.965	1	Norway	0.932	1	Sweden	0.8133
2	Iceland	0.960	2	Sweden	0.883	2	Norway	0.7994
3	Australia	0.957	3	Iceland	0.866	3	Finland	0.7958
4	Ireland	0.956	4	Denmark	0.861	4	Iceland	0.7813
5	Sweden	0.951	5	Belgium	0.855	5	Germany	0.7524
6	Canada	0.950	6	Finland	0.853	6	Philippines	0.7516
7	Japan	0.949	7	Netherlands	0.844	7	New Zealand	0.7509
8	United States	0.948	8	Australia	0.833	8	Denmark	0.7462
9	Switzerland	0.947	9	Germany	0.816	9	United Kingdom	0.7365
10	Netherlands	0.947	10	Austria	0.815	10	Ireland	0.7335
11	Finland	0.947	11	Canada	0.810	11	Spain	0.7319
12	Luxembourg	0.945	12	United States	0.808	12	Netherlands	0.7250
13	Belgium	0.945	13	New Zealand	0.797	13	Sri Lanka	0.7199
14	Austria	0.944	14	Switzerland	0.797	14	Canada	0.7165
15	Denmark	0.943	15	Spain	0.776	15	Australia	0.7163
16	France	0.942	16	United Kingdom	0.755			
17	Italy	0.940	17	Ireland	0.753	18	South Africa	0.7125
18	United Kingdom	0.940	18	Singapore	0.707			
19	Spain	0.938	19	Argentina	0.697	21	Colombia	0.7049
20	New Zealand	0.936	20	Portugal	0.681	22	United States	0.7042
21	Germany	0.932	21	Costa Rica	0.675			
22	Hong Kong, China (SAR)	0.927	22	Trinidad and Tobago	0.660	40	Thailand	0.6832
23	Israel	0.927	23	Israel	0.656			
24	Greece	0.921	24	Italy	0.653	49	Russian Fed.	0.6770
25	Singapore	0.916	25	Lithuania	0.635			
26	Korea, Rep. of	0.912	26	Nambia	0.623	63	China	0.6560
27	Slovenia	0.910	27	Latvia	0.621			
28	Portugal	0.904	28	Czech Republic	0.615	65	Singapore	0.6550
29	Cyprus	0.903	29	Greece	0.614			
30	Czech Republic	0.885	30	Poland	0.610	67	Brazil	0.6543
31	Barbados	0.879	31	Estonia	0.608	68	Indonesia	0.6541
32	Malta	0.875	32	Slovenia	0.603			
33	Kuwait	0.871	33	Croatia	0.602	70	France	0.6520
34	Brunei Darussalam	0.871	34	Slovakia	0.599			
35	Hungary	0.869	35	Mexico	0.597	72	Malaysia	0.6509
36	Argentina	0.963	36	Tanzania, U. Rep. of	0.597			
37	Poland	0.862	37	Bulgaria	0.595	77	Italy	0.6456
38	Chile	0.859	38	Cyprus	0.584			
39	Bahrain	0.859	39	Peru	0.580	79	Japan	0.6447
40	Estonia	0.858	40	Panama	0.568			
41	Lithuania	0.857	41	Hungary	0.560	89	Cambodia	0.6290
42	Slovakia	0.856	42	Japan	0.557			
43	Uruguay	0.851	43	Macedonia, TFYR	0.554	92	Korea Rep. of	0.6157
44	Croatia	0.846	44	Moldova, Rep. of	0.544			
45	Latvia	0.845	45	Philippines	0.533	98	India	0.6010

(Source) UNDP

(Total: 177 countries)

(Source) UNDP

(Total: 75 countries)

(Source) World Economic Forum (Total: 115 countries)

According to the Human Development Report 2006 produced by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), Japan is ranked 7th out of 177 countries in the Human Development Index (HDI), which is a comparative measure of basic standards of living and human capacities for countries worldwide. However, Japan's rank in the Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM), which shows the extent to which women participate in politics and economics, is at a much lower level, standing at 42nd out of 75 countries.

In addition, Japan also ranks at a low level in the Gender Gap Index (GGI), achieving only 79th place out of 115 countries. The GGI was created by the World Economic Forum (WEF) to gauge the degree of disparity between women and men in economic, political, educational and health fields. As these figures suggest, although Japan has achieved considerable success in the degree of human development and standards of living in general, women still do not have sufficient opportunities to participate to their full capacity in political and economic activities.

HDI (The Human Development Index)

The HDI is a composite index that measures how far basic human abilities have been developed by assessing the level of achievement in three basic areas: "a long and healthy life," "knowledge," and "a decent standard of living." In concrete terms, it is calculated using average life expectancy at birth, the standard of education (adult literacy rate and school enrollment rate) and adjusted GDP per capita (PPP US\$).

GEM (The Gender Empowerment Measure)

This is a measure of whether women are able to participate actively in economic and political life, and in decision-making. Whereas the HDI focuses on the degree of human development, the GEM focuses on whether people are able to use these abilities to take advantage of various opportunities throughout their lives. In concrete terms, it is calculated using women's estimated earned income, the percentage of women holding professional and technical positions, the percentage of women holding administrative or managerial positions and the percentage of female elected representatives in government.

GGI (Gender Gap Index)

The GGI measures whether or not disparities exist between women and men in economic, political, educational, and health fields. In comparison with GEM, GGI adds the educational and health areas and also utilizes many forms of statistical data for political and economic areas. The higher the ranking a country receives indicates the fewer the disparities between women and men and the closer that society is to becoming equal. The GEM includes consideration of income levels (although not in terms of male-female disparity) but GGI does not incorporate income into its calculations. Therefore, it is possible for low income countries to achieve a high ranking.

International Comparison: Women in National Parliaments

Rank	Country	Seats	Women	% of W
1	Rwanda	80	39	48.8
2	Sweden	349	158	45.3
3	Costa Rica	57	22	38.6
4	Norway	169	64	37.9
5	Finland	200	75	37.5
17	Germany	614	195	31.8
30	Mexico	500	129	25.8
35	Australia	150	37	24.7
50	Canada	308	64	20.8
57	United Kingdom	646	127	19.7
69	Italy	630	109	17.3
83	United States of America	435	66	15.2
93	Korea, Rep. of	299	40	13.4
128	Japan	480	45	9.4

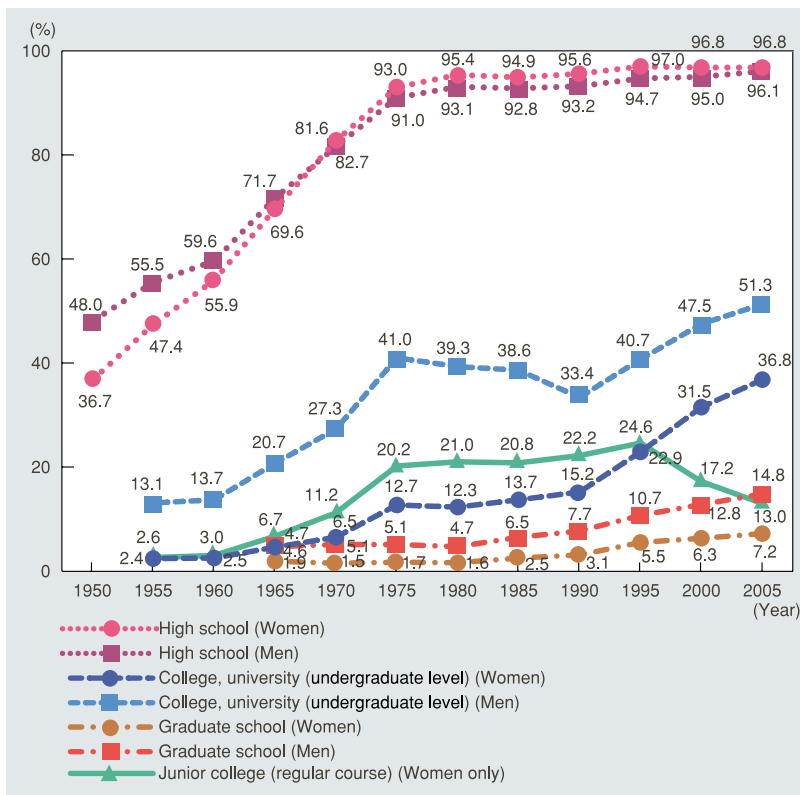
(Situation as of 31 May 2006)

The proportion of women's participation in national parliament in Japan remains noticeably low.

(Source) IPU (Inter-Parliamentary Union) Website (<http://www.ipu.org/wmn-e/classif.htm>)

(Note) 187 countries are classified by descending order of the percentage of women in the lower or single House.

Enrollment Rate by School Category

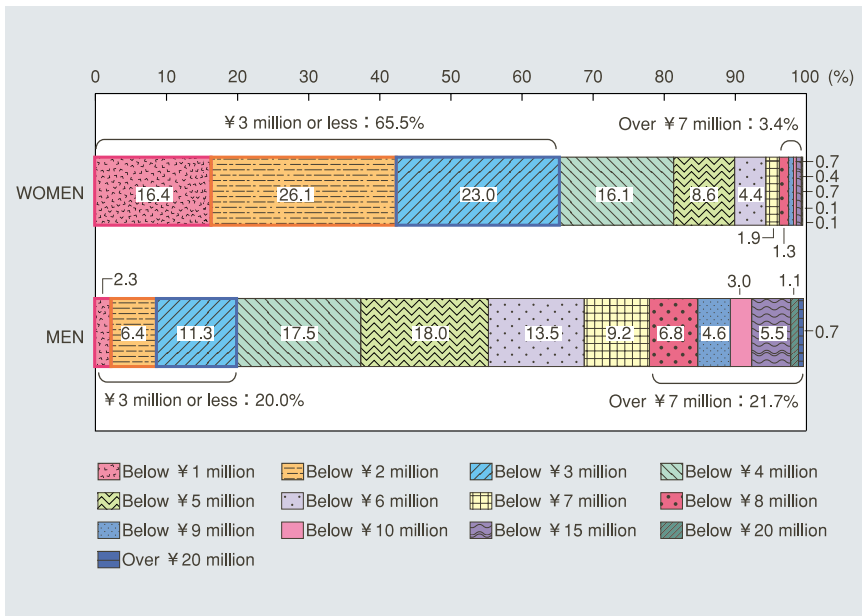


(Notes)

- "School Basic Survey," Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology
- High school: Percentage of students who graduated from junior high schools and completed equivalent education and entered high schools (regular course, special course). Those who have taken high-school correspondence courses are not included.
- College, university (undergraduate level), junior college (regular course): Percentage of students who entered universities and junior colleges (including those who failed entrance exams and tried to pass on a second attempt), divided by the number of those who graduated from junior high schools and completed equivalent education three years earlier. Those who have taken college or junior college correspondence courses are not included.
- Graduate school: Percentage of college students who went on to graduate level, education immediately after graduating from university (students going on to doctorate courses in the case of the medical and dental departments). Those who have taken graduate school correspondence courses are not included.

The percentage of students advancing to high school in Japan is extremely high, with the percentage of female students exceeding that of male students. In terms of higher education, most male students choose universities (undergraduate level). On the other hand, some female students go to universities (undergraduate level), while other female students enter junior colleges. The percentage of women advancing to institutions of higher education is on an upward trend. In particular, the percentage of women advancing to graduate school-level education is at its highest level ever, standing at 7.2 percent.

Composition of Salaried Workers by Income Bracket



There is a significant income gap between male and female workers. Among female salaried workers who work through the entire year, 65.5 percent earn 3 million yen or less a year (male workers: 20.0 percent); and 16.4 percent make 1 million yen or less a year (male workers: 2.3 percent). Only 3.4 percent of women make more than 7 million yen a year (male workers: 21.7 percent).

(Source) "Salary Level Survey in Private Sector (FY2004)," National Tax Agency

International Comparison: Women's Participation in Managerial Positions

Country	Percentage of women in managerial positions	
		Government offices
United States	42.1	23.1
France	7.2	19.3
Germany	35.2	9.5
Sweden	31.8	—
Japan	10.1	1.7

The number of women engaged in managerial level positions in Japan is still at a low level when compared with the situation in Western countries.

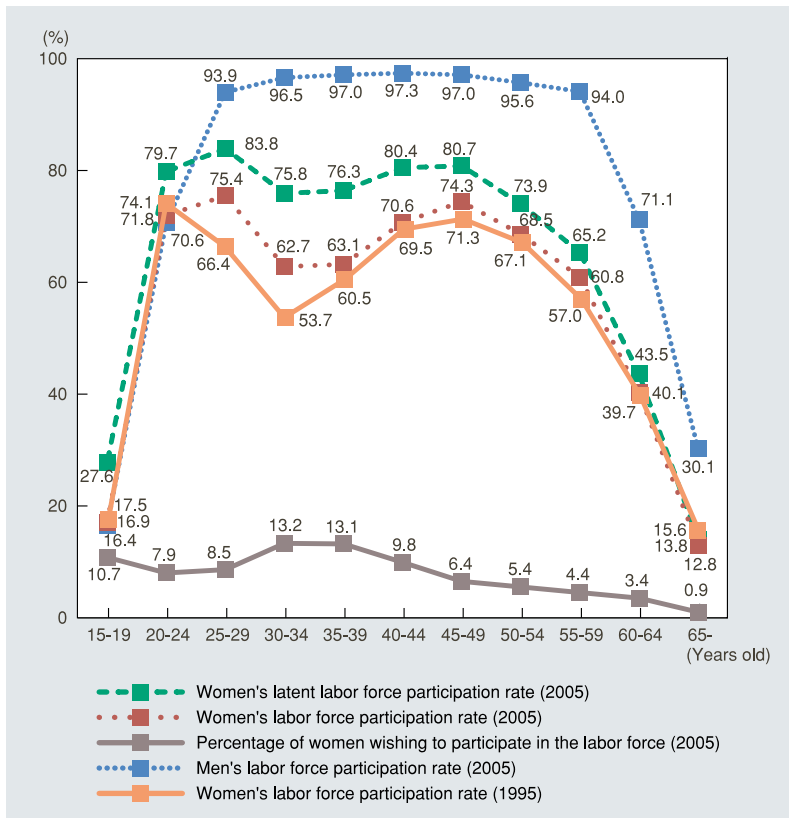
(Source)

1. "LABORSTA," ILO; "Labor Force Survey," Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications; "Annual Report on the Employment of Minorities, Women and People with Disabilities in the Federal Government," U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Committee; "Annual Report," Ministry of Government Officials, Decentralization and Reformation of the State (France); "The 4th Report on Improvement of Women's Position in Federal Jobs," German Federal Government Office; "Report on Public Servants in Regular Work," the National Personnel Authority.

2. With regard to the percentage of those who are employed in managerial positions in government offices, Germany's data were compiled in 1998, Japan's data in 2005, and other countries' data in 2001. As for the percentage of women in managerial positions in other companies, Japan's data were compiled in 2005 and other countries' data in 2004.

3. Present Status of Women in Employment

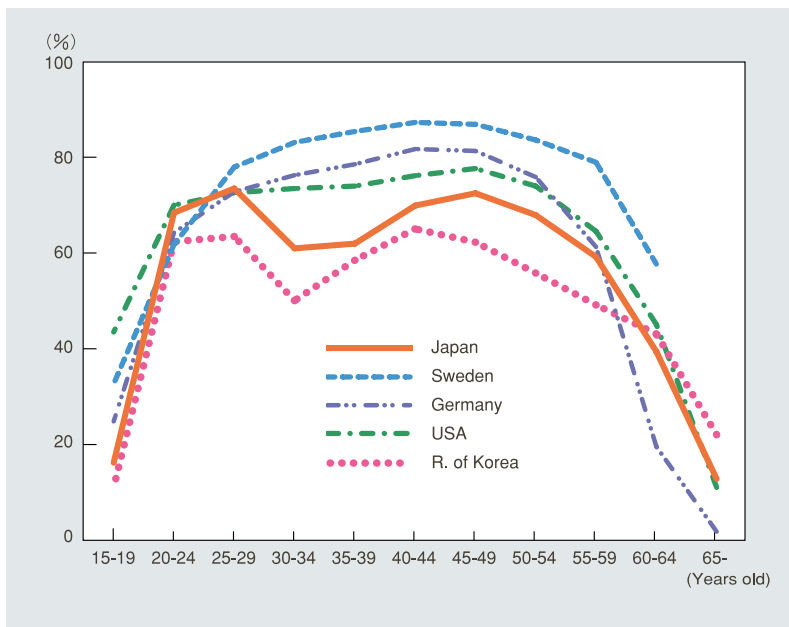
Women's Labor Force Participation Rate by Age Bracket



The labor force participation rate of women in Japan shows an M-shaped curve, as labor force participation rate declines during the periods in a woman's life when she marries, bears children and raises children. The latent labor force participation rate has a less concave portion than the labor force participation rate. Therefore, it would suggest that women's aspirations to work are not being realized. Comparing figures for 2005 and 1995, it becomes apparent that the bottom figures of the M curve have been rising, approaching to a trapezoid shape. This change would suggest that the age that women engage in childrearing became older because of late marriage and late childbirth and that the period of childrearing has shortened, due to the fact that women are bearing fewer children.

(Note) Women's latent labor force participation rate by age-bracket = (Population of the labor force (by age-bracket) + Population of non-working population who want to work (by age-bracket))/Population aged 15 years and older (by age-bracket)
 (Source) "Labour Force survey (2004)," Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications

International Comparison: Women's Labor Force Participation Rate by Age Bracket



In the United States, Germany and Sweden the pattern of women's labor force participation rate by age bracket is not M-shaped. In Japan, like Republic of Korea, on the other hand, the M-shaped pattern is clear. In many Western countries, women's labor force participation rate by age bracket shows an inverted U shape for a number of reasons: a favorable working environment for working women through measures to harmonize working life and childrearing, the relative ease of switching between full-time and part-time jobs, and greater degree of advancement to higher education among women.

(Note) 1. Labor force participation rate = (Population of the labor force/Population aged 15 years and older)
 2. "15-19 years old" of USA and Sweden means 16-19 years old.
 (Source) "Labour Force Survey (2004)" Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications, "LABORSTA" ILO

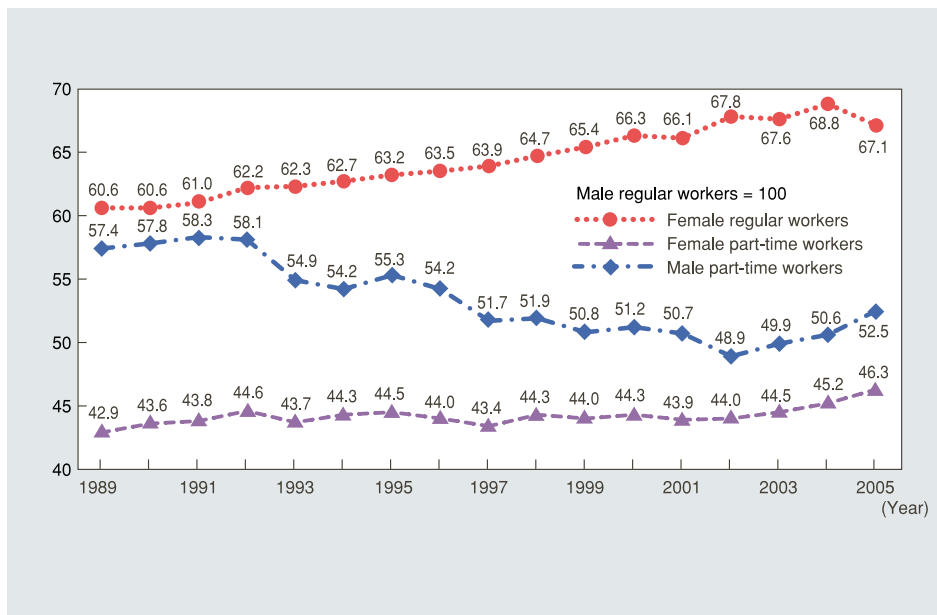
Changes in Employment Status of Employees (excluding executives of company or corporation) in Industries except for Agriculture and Forestry



Part-timers and other non-regular workers have increased in both women and men. This trend is particularly obvious for female employees. The ratio of female part-timers has increased rapidly from 31.9 percent in 1985 to 52.4 percent in 2005.

(Note) The data from 1985 to 2001 are cited from Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications, "Special Survey of the Labour Force Survey" (every February), while the 2004 and 2005 data come from the "Labour Force Survey (Detailed Tabulation)" (annual average).

Changes in Average Hourly Wage for Workers (male regular workers = 100)

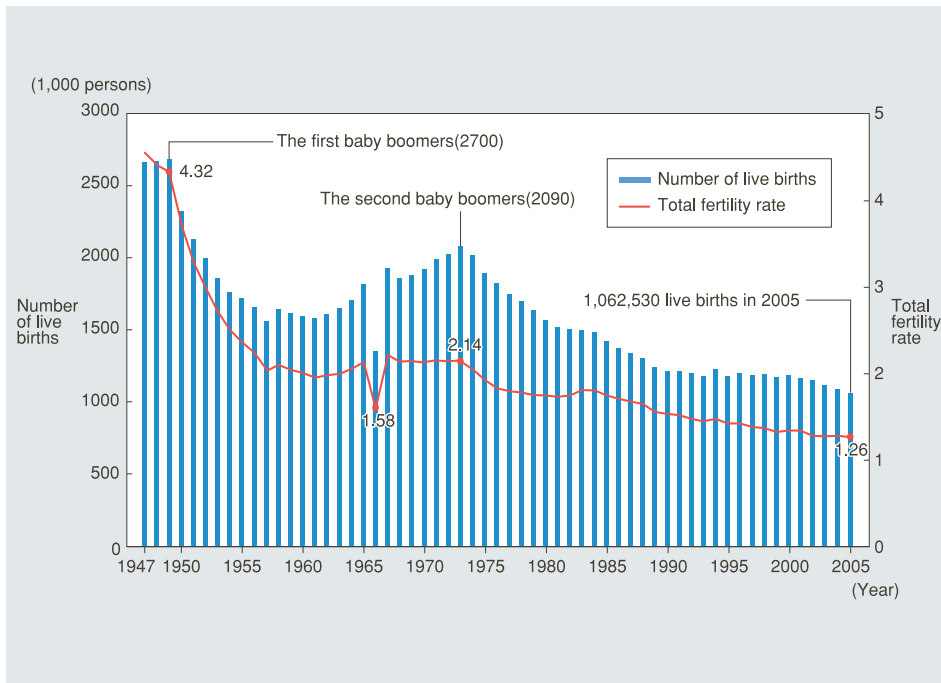


In the indexed figure (male regular workers' salary level : 100), the salary level of male part-time workers was 52.5 as of 2005, while that of female part-timers was 46.3. Part-time workers still earn a much lower salary level than male regular workers.

(Source) "Basic Survey on Wage Structure," Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare

4. Balancing Working Life and Child-rearing

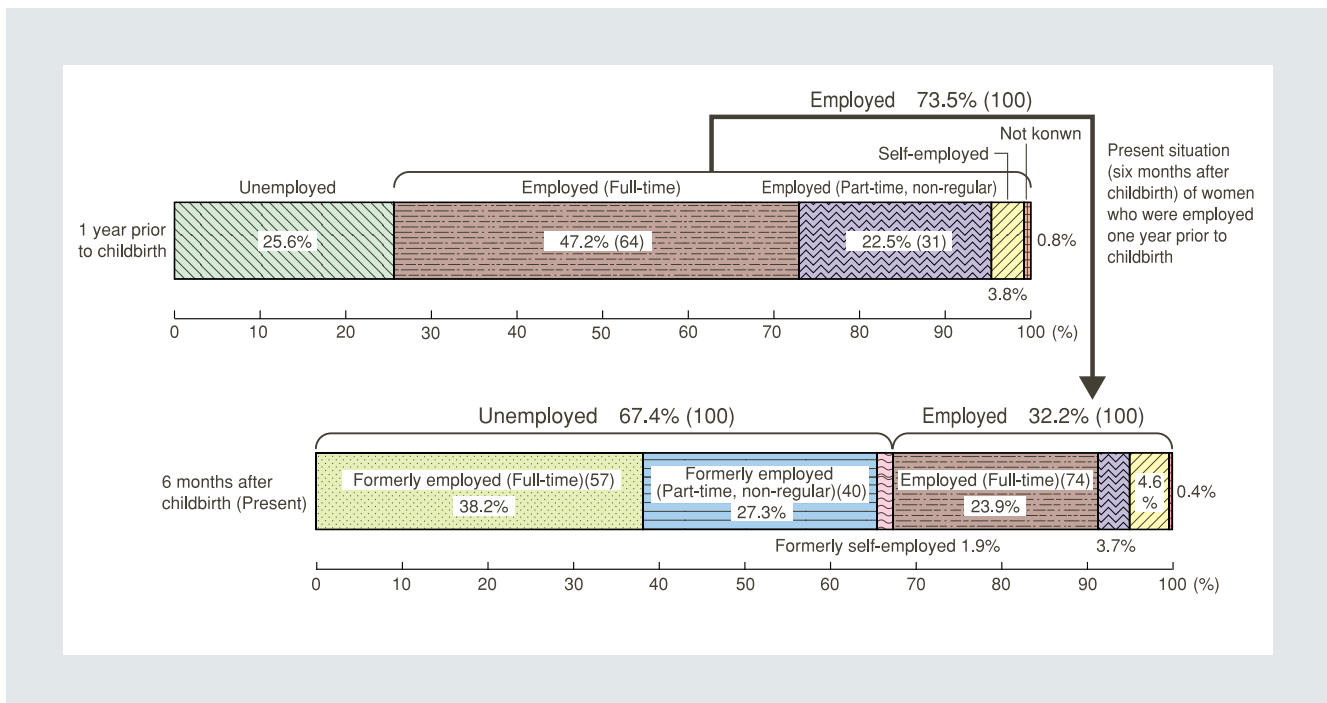
Trends in Live Births and Total Fertility Rate



In recent years Japan has seen its birthrate and total fertility rate continue to decline. The total fertility rate (a cumulative rates of age specific fertility rates for women aged 15 to 49 in a given year; this corresponds to the number of births per woman in her lifetime based on these age specific birthrates) fell below 2.00 in 1975 and has been declining further since then. In 2003, the rate dropped to 1.29, falling below 1.3 for the first time in history. (The rate was 1.26 in 2005.)

(Source) "Vital Statistics of Japan," Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare

Employment Status at Time of Birth of First Child



Looking at the employment status of women at around the time of the birth of a first child, research shows that the birth of a child prompts approximately 70 percent (67.4%) to give up their jobs. Looking at the figures by work type shows that while the majority of women who were formerly part-time or non-regular workers stopped working at the time of the birth of a child, the number of women who gave up full-time positions due to childbirth was also high.

(Source) "First Profile Survey on New-Born Children in the 21st Century (2002 edition)," Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare

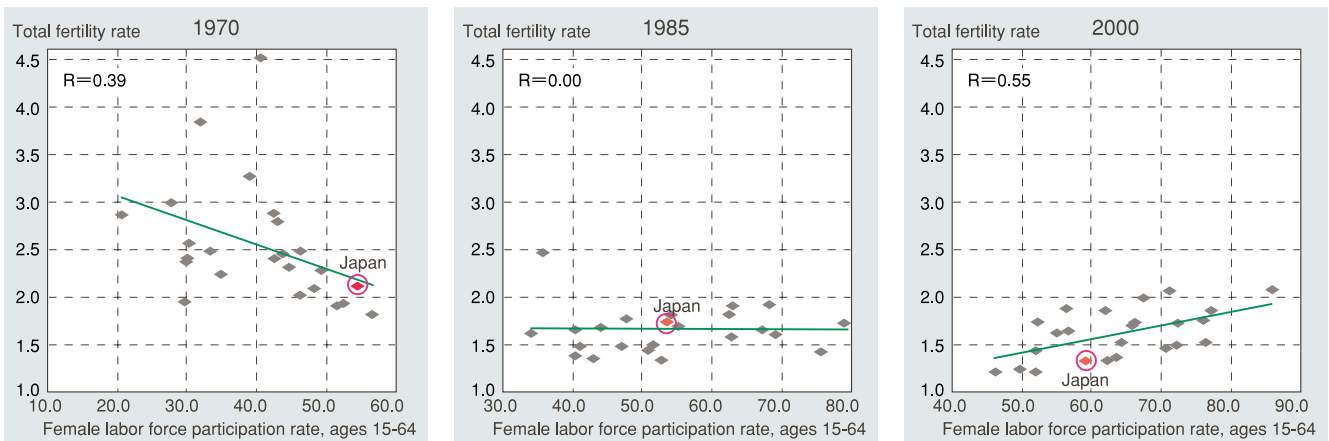
Relationship Between the Female Labor Force Participation Rate and the Birthrate (International Comparison)

According to data from 24 of the Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) countries (with per-capita GDP of at least US\$10,000), in 1970, the higher the female labor force participation rate, the lower the birthrate tended to be. In 2000, however, a tendency for countries with higher rates of female labor force participation to have higher birthrates had become evident. This demonstrates that there is no firm relationship between the female labor force participation rate and the birthrate such that when one goes up the other does as well. Instead, it is apparent that social environments (policies, systems, values, etc.), have a role to play and affect both labor force participation and birthrate. It therefore follows that a high degree of participation in society by women and a high labor force participation rate does not necessarily mean that the birthrate will drop. (Figure 1)

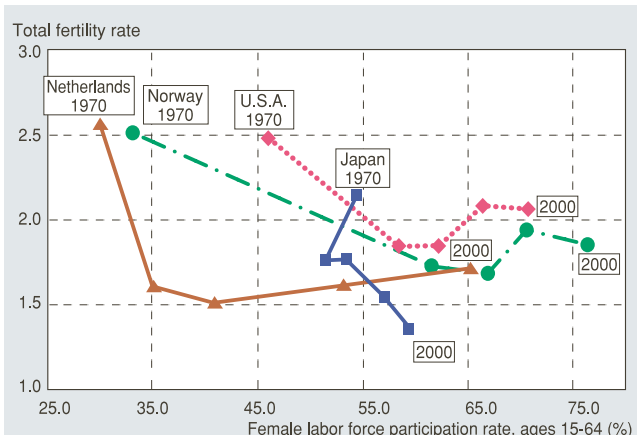
Although the US and northern European countries such as Norway benefit from the image that a high proportion of women have been working in those societies for a long time, in actual fact, in 1970 the proportion of working women was higher in Japan. In countries such as the US, Netherlands and Norway, the labor force participation rate of women took off in the 1970s and from the mid-1980s the birthrate had also recovered. On the other hand, in the case of Japan, from 1970 to 2000 the rate of increase in female labor force participation was the smallest among the 24 OECD members (5.2 percent increase compared to an average increase of 23.3 percent) and the birthrate continued on its downward path. (Figure 2)

Social environments in countries like the US, Netherlands and Norway, that have both increased the female labor force participation rate and restored birthrates over the past 20 years are characterized by their successes in securing a diversity of lifestyle choices in their societies. Such lifestyle choices include flexibility in working styles for both women and men; overhauling fixed gender stereotypes; participation of men in housework and parenting responsibilities; and equity in employment opportunities. (Figure 3)

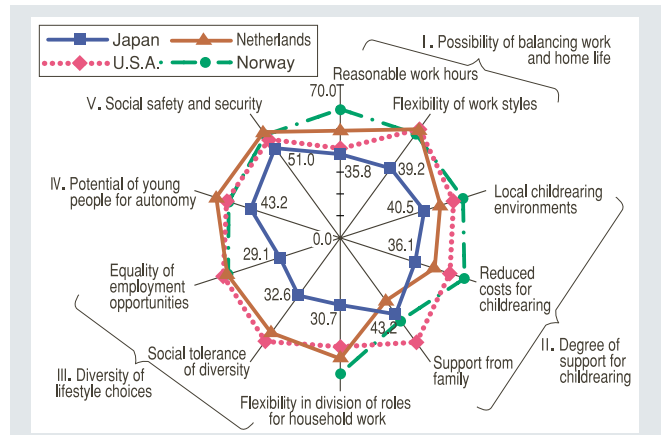
(Figure 1) Female Labor Force Participation Rate and TFR in 24 OECD countries



(Figure 2) Changes in Female Labor Force Participation Rate and Total Fertility Rate in Japan, USA, Netherlands, and Norway



(Figure 3) Social Environment Indices for Japan, USA, Netherlands, and Norway

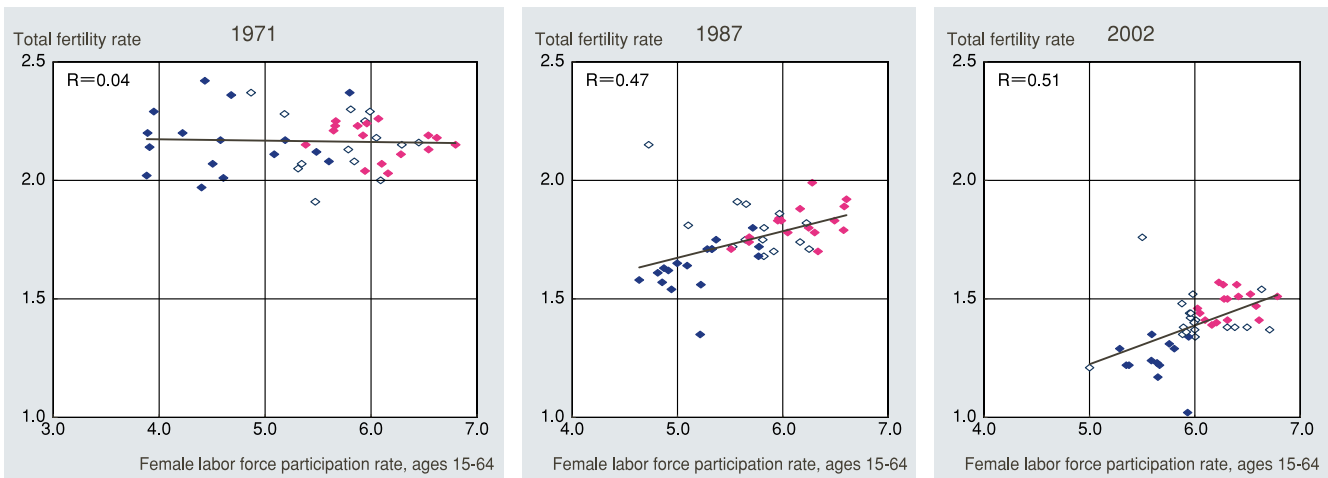


(Source) "International Comparison of the Social Environments regarding Declining Birthrates and Gender-Equality (2005)," Specialist Committee on the Declining Birthrate and Gender Equality, Council for Gender Equality

Domestic Analysis of the social environments regarding declining birthrates and gender-equality

1. Looking at ratio of “female engaged in work” and the total fertility rate by prefecture in Japan, we see that in 1971 there was no correlation between the two figures. However, in 1987 and once again in 2002 a trend had become apparent whereby prefectures with a high ratio of “female engaged in work” also had a high total fertility rate. In international comparisons, although there are some countries in which the birthrate is recovering, in Japan, the total fertility rates for all prefectures are showing a downward trend. (Figure 1)
2. The 47 prefectures of Japan were broken down using rate of change and level of the total fertility rate and the level of ratio of “female engaged in work.” This breakdown resulted in most prefectures being classified largely in two opposing categories: either regions in which the rate of decline in the total fertility rate was small and the level of ratio of “female engaged in work” remained high (Type 1), or regions in which the rate of decline in the total fertility rate was large, coupled with a low level of female labor participation (Type 7). (Figure 2)
3. Type 7 regions displayed a lower level than average (50) among the 47 prefectures in terms of the social environment (policies, systems, values, etc) overall. In particular, scores were low in the three areas which have a high correlation with the birthrate: “reasonable work hours,” “support from family (inter-generational support for child care)” and “social tolerance of diversity.” Prefectures that were classified as Type 1 regions almost all scored highly in these three categories. On the other hand, these scores were particularly low in the Tokyo metropolitan area, which has the lowest total fertility rate out of all the Type 7 regions. (Figure 3)

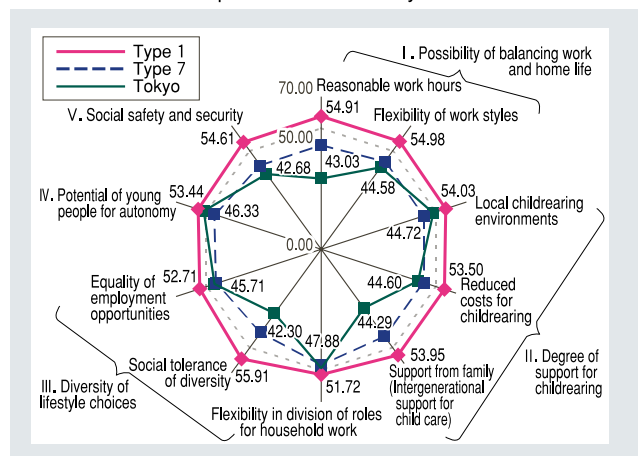
(Figure 1) Ratio of Female Engaged in Work and Total Fertility Rates in 47 Prefectures in Japan



(Figure 2) Breakdown of prefectures into 7 types

Declining rate of TFR (1982-2002)	Below Average				Above Average			
	Above Average		Below Average		Above Average	Below Average		
Total Fertility Rate (2002)	Above Average		Below Average		Above Average	Below Average		
Ratio of Female Engaged in Work (2002)	Above Average	Below Average	Above Average	Below Average	Below Average	Above Average	Below Average	
Type	Type 1		Type 2	Type 3	Type 4	Type 5	Type 6	Type 7
Prefectures	Kumamoto, Yamagata, Nagano, Saga, Aomori, Yamanashi, Fukushima, Toyama, Tottori, Iwate, Miyazaki, Fuku, Mie, Shimane, Gunma, Shizuoka		Kagawa, Oita, Yamaguchi, Nagasaki, Kagoshima, Okayama, Okinawa	Gifu, Kochi	Akita, Aichi	Shiga, Tochigi	Niigata, Ishikawa	Tokushima, Osaka, Ehime, Hokkaido, Wakayama, Fukuoka, Hyogo, Ibaraki, Hiroshima, Kanagawa, Tokyo, Kyoto, Miyagi, Saitama, Chiba, Nara

(Figure 3) Social Environment Indices for Type 1 and Type 7 prefectures and Tokyo



(Source) "Report on Domestic Analysis of the Social Environments Regarding Declining Birthrates and Gender-Equality (Sept. 2006)," Council for Gender Equality Specialist Committee on the Declining Birthrate and Gender Equality

5. Basic Data on Gender Equality in Japan

Gender Equality for Japanese Women

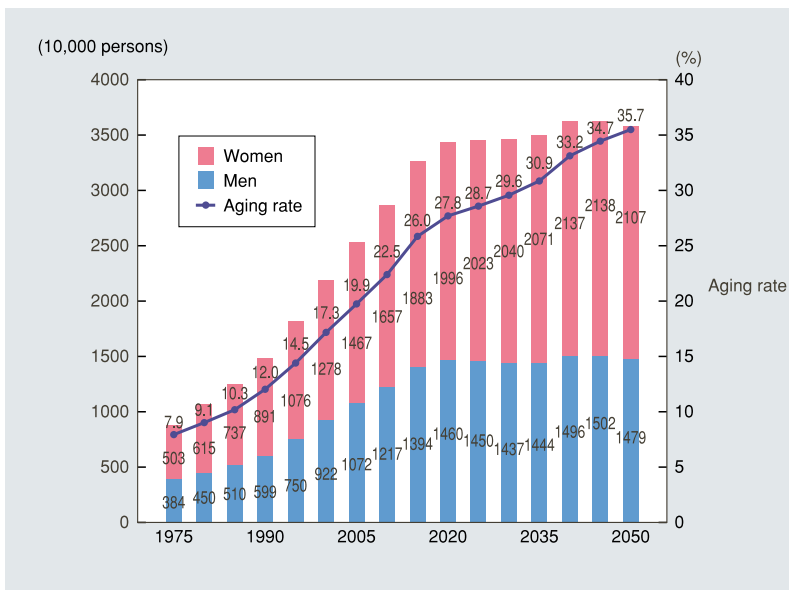
(1) Population

In Japan, society is aging coupled with a declining birthrate. The total fertility rate (The number of births a woman would have by the end of her reproductive life if she experienced the currently prevailing age-specific fertility rates from age 15 to 49 years.) fell below 2.00 for the first time in 1975 and has continued a declining tendency since then. Behind this declining birthrate in Japan is the fact that women are increasingly opting to marry late, bear children at later ages, or not marry at all.

The mean age at first marriage continues to rise, having reached 29.8 for men and 28.0 for women in 2005. About half the women in Japan now remain unmarried into their late 20s, an age in the past when they were most likely to be bearing children. As for women and men who remain unmarried at the age of 50, the ratio has been rising since 1960 for both women and men, although the tendency is stronger for men.

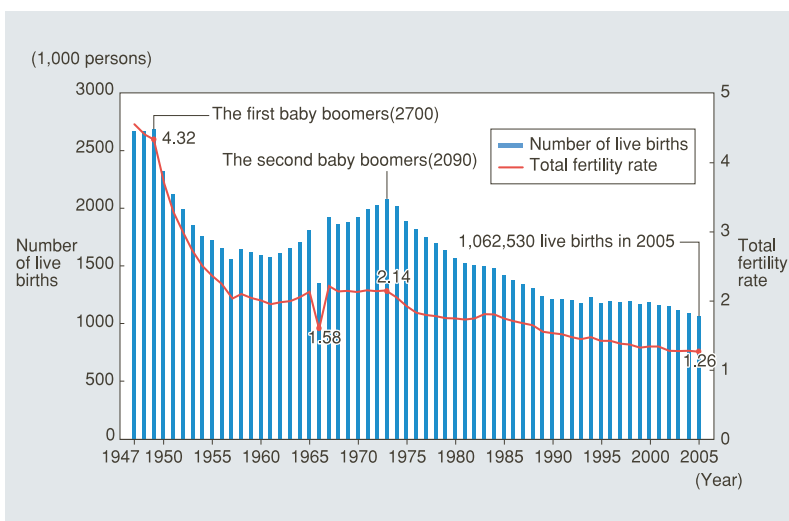
The aging rate (the proportion of people aged 65 or over in the entire population) is rapidly advancing in Japanese society. Declining birthrates and growing life expectancy are main factors of population aging. The life expectancy at birth, for instance, extended to 85.49 for women and 78.53 for men in 2005 (from 2005 data on abridged life tables).

Population of People Aged 65 or Older and Changes in Aging Rate



(Source) Up to 2000: Population census by the Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications; after 2005: "Expected Future Population in Japan (January 2002)," population on October 1 each year, National Institute of Population and Social Security Research (medium estimate)

Trends in Live Births and Total Fertility Rate



(Source) "Vital Statistics of Japan," Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare

(2) Education

The percentage of junior high school students enrolling in high school is extremely high in Japan, with the ratio of women surpassing that of men. Of those who go on to higher levels of education from high schools, most men enter universities (undergraduate), but women are divided between those entering universities (undergraduate) and those choosing junior colleges. The ratio of women entering universities has been on the increase in recent years, while that of women choosing junior colleges is declining. There is also a tendency for increased diversification in the specialist subjects that women are choosing.

(3) Employment

The labor force participation rate by age bracket of Japanese women still shows an M-shaped curve with their participation declining due to marriage, childbirth and childcare, although the curve is not as significant as in the past. On the other hand, women who have given birth and are raising children demonstrate a strong desire to work. By taking into account those women wishing to work, the curve of the latent labor force participation rate is more evened out on top.

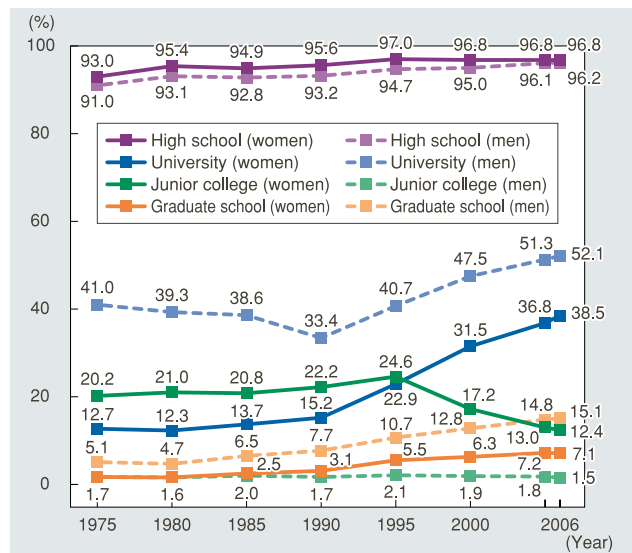
As for the time usage by married couples in typical Japanese families, husbands spend significantly fewer hours in such tasks as household chores, raising children, and nursing care, regardless of whether their wives are working or not. Working women, therefore, have a double burden to work and to take care of housekeeping.

One of the trends that has characterized recent employment is the diversification of working types. Both men and women, but particularly the latter, are increasingly working as part-timers, contract workers, and non-regular workers, rather than be employed as regular workers.

(4) Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries

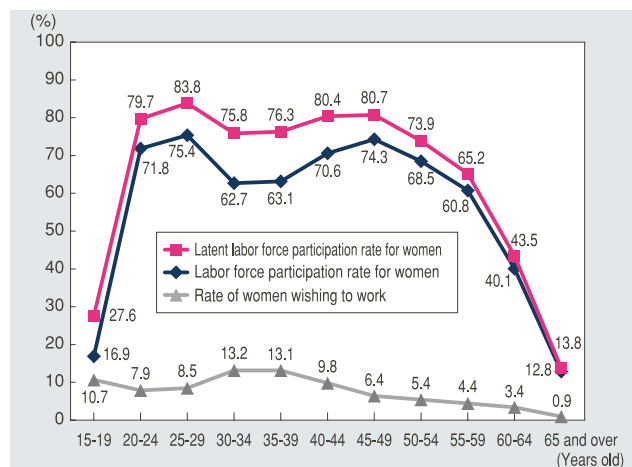
As for women who engage in work in the agriculture, forestry and fisheries industries in Japan, those who engage in agriculture accounted for 53.3% of the total farming population, those who work in forestry for 16.7%, and those in fisheries for 16.3% (all in 2005). As these figures show, women form an important labor force in each of these categories, contributing a great deal to the management of their households as well as the maintenance and revitalization of local communities. Regarding women's participation in management in rural areas, the number of income generating activities rose to 9,050 cases in 2005, up 4.4% from the previous year. The activities that use local farm products, such as food processing (75%) or sales in farmers' markets (44%), are the majority.

Enrollment Rate by School Category



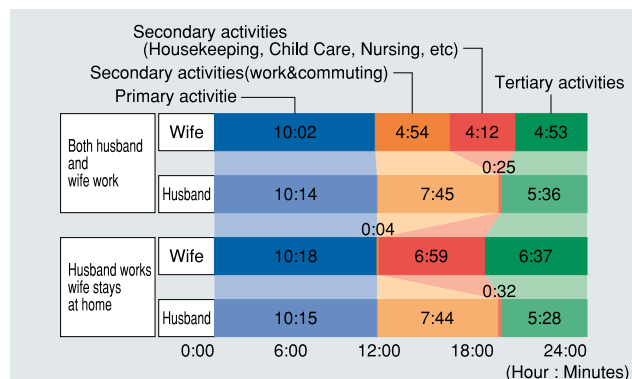
(Source) "School Basic Survey," Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology

Women's Latent Labor Force Participation Rate Avoids an M-shaped Curve



(Notes) Latent labor force participation rate by age bracket = Labor force (by age bracket) + Not in labor force wishing to work (by age bracket)/Population of 15 years old or more (by age bracket)
(Source) Labor Force Survey "Detailed Tabulation (2005)," Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications

Usage of Time by Married Couples



(Notes) Primary activities refer to activities of daily life such as sleeping and eating. Secondary activities refer to activities of a highly obligatory nature undertaken as part of social lives and encompass work and housework. Tertiary activities refer to activities not included in the above that individuals participate in during their free time. "Nursing" and "Shopping" are included in "Housekeeping, childcare, etc."

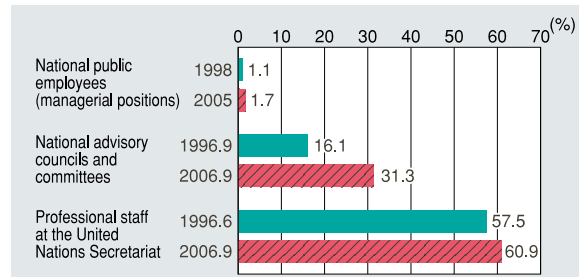
Women's Participation in Various Fields

(1) Administration

As of 2005, the proportion of women occupying senior positions among the ranks of national public employees was 1.7%, and over the long term this ratio has been gradually increasing.

Looking at the current situation of participation by female committee members in national advisory councils, a survey conducted on September 30, 2006 showed that the proportion of female committee members was 31.3%, while that of female expert members was 13.1%. There were 49 advisory councils in which female members accounted for more than a third of the council membership, equivalent to 46.2% of all advisory councils.

Women's participation in Administration and International fields



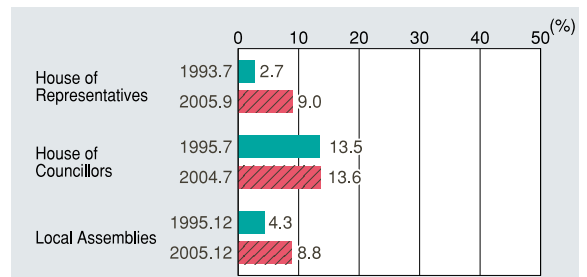
(Sources) National public employees, National Personnel Authority; National advisory councils and committees, Cabinet Office; Professional staff at the United Nations Secretariat, UN Secretariat

(2) International Fields

Since the appointment of the first woman ambassador in 1980 there have been thirteen female appointees to the position of ambassador extraordinary and plenipotentiary. Women are currently serving as ambassadors to Norway and Morocco, representing 1.6% of all Japanese ambassadors (as of November 1, 2006).

The proportion of women among Japanese employees of the agencies and offices of the United Nations was 60.9% as of the end of June 2006. In 1994 there were 180 Japanese female employees engaged in specialized work in international agencies including the United Nations, and this figure had risen to 430 in 2006. As of January 2006, Japanese women active as senior officials included the Deputy to the Director-General of the United Nations Industrial Development Organization (UNIDO) secretariat and the Executive Secretary of the Secretariat of the Basel Convention. A Japanese woman was appointed to the position of Director of the Administrative Office of the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP) in September 2006.

Women's participation in Politics

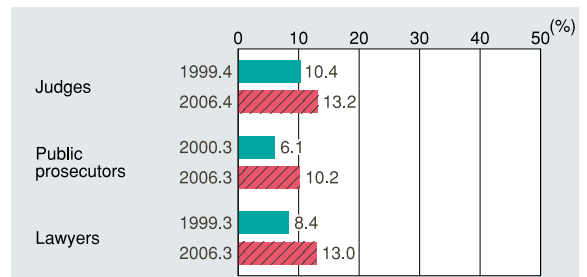


(Sources) House of Representatives, House of Councillors and Local assemblies: Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications

(3) Politics

With the exception of a short period after the Second World War, the proportion of women among members of the House of Representatives up until the 38th General Election in 1986 was between one and two percent. However, it has continued to rise since then and reached 9.0% in September 2005. In the House of Councillors, the number of women has continued to increase since the first election in 1947, when the proportion of female representatives was 4.0%, rising to 13.6% by July 2004. In local assemblies the figures for female representatives are relatively higher: as of the end of December 2005 women accounted for 21.8% of the members of special ward assemblies and 16.3% of the members of the assemblies of the government-designated major Japanese cities.

Women's Participation in the Judiciary



(Sources) Judges, Supreme Court: Public prosecutors, Ministry of Justice; Lawyers, Secretariat of the Japan Federation of Bar Associations

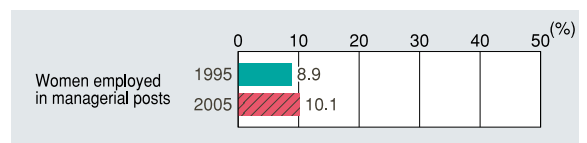
(4) Judiciary

The proportion of women among judges, prosecutors and lawyers is demonstrating a long-term upward trend.

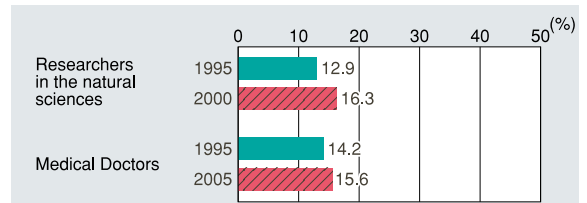
(5) Managerial, Professional, and Technical Fields

The proportion of women employed in managerial posts or as researchers in the natural sciences and medical doctors remains low but is gradually increasing.

Women's participation in Managerial, Professional and Technical fields



(Source) Labor Force Survey, Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications



(Source) Population Census of Japan, Ministry of Internal Affairs and Communications