

"FY2002 Annual Report on the State of Formation  
of a Gender-Equal Society"

and

"Policies to be Implemented in FY2003 to Promote  
the Formation of a Gender-Equal Society"

## Outline

(Tentative Translation)

The Cabinet Office

June 2003

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

"FY2002 Annual Report on the State of Formation of a Gender-Equal Society" and "Policies to be Implemented in FY 2003 to Promote the Formation of a Gender-Equal Society"

Outline

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## FY2002 Annual Report on the State of Formation of a Gender-Equal Society

### Part 1. The State of Formation of a Gender-Equal Society

#### *Preface. Gender equality situation in major nations*

#### Section 1. Characteristics and awareness regarding gender equality in major nations

##### 1. Characteristics of major nations

Chart 1. Gender equality and related schemes in major nations

	Japan	South Korea	The Philippines	U.S.	Sweden	Germany	U.K.
GEM rank (in 2002)	32nd	61st	35th	11th	3rd	8th	16th
National burden ratio (in 1999,%)	(in 2002) 38.3	31.9		(in 1997) 35.9	75.4	56.7	50.0
Percentage of female parliamentary members (in 2002,%)	7.3	5.9	17.8	14.3	45.3	32.2	17.9
Female labor force participation rate (in 2001,%)	49.2	48.8	52.8	60.1	76.2	48.8	55.0
Percentage of female managers (in 2001,%)	8.9	(in 2000) 4.9	58.1	46.0	30.5	26.9	30.0
While raising children, average married couple spends their time on:	Husband Wife			Husband Wife	Husband Wife	Husband Wife	Husband Wife
Working(hours)	7.7 3.7			6.2 4.9	6.4 3.9	6.1 4.1	6.3 3.5
Household tasks(hours)	0.4 3.8			2.0 3.3	2.5 3.9	2.5 4.2	1.7 5.4
Quota system (for politician)	Not adopted	Adopted	Adopted	Adopted	Adopted	Adopted	Adopted
Childcare leave	Slightly favorable	Slightly favorable	Not adopted	Not favorable	Favorable	Favorable	Not favorable
Men and Women's feeling on equality	Strongly feels inequality	Strongly feels inequality	Strongly feels equality	Strongly feels inequality	Strongly feels inequality	Strongly feels inequality	Strongly feels inequality
Awareness on gender role	Strong	Slightly getting weaker	Strong	Getting weaker	Almost none	Getting weaker	Getting weaker

- (Notes)
1. GEM (gender empowerment measure) is cited from UNDP, "Human Development Report" (2002 edition).
  2. National burden ratio is calculated from Finance Ministry's documents.
  3. Data on parliamentary members is cited from IPU (Inter-Parliamentary Union) documents.
  4. Labor participation ratio and female manager ratio are cited from ILO, "Yearbook of Labor Statistics" (2002 edition).
  5. Data on working hours and household duty hours for child caring married couples is collected from OECD, "Employment Outlook" (2001 edition) and "Survey on Time Use and Leisure Activities" published by Ministry of Public Management, Home Affairs, Posts and Telecommunications.
  6. Other data was collected from "Survey Report on Gender-equal Frameworks in Foreign Nations" (2001 and 2002 editions), "International Comparative Survey on Gender Equality" (2002 edition) and "Opinion Survey on Gender Equality" (2002 edition).

**(Sweden)**

Comprehensively Sweden shows the highest participation rates of female politicians, female public employees and female workers among these seven nations. The Swedish government provides various childcare support measures and a favorable environment for female workers. Swedish women do not usually quit their jobs due to marriage, childbirth or childcare. The nation also has the prominently highest figure for its female labor force participation rate. By 1980, Sweden had already eliminated its M-shape curve. However, Swedish men and women still feel inequality strongly. A wage gap between men and women still exists.

**(Germany)**

As German political parties adopted the quota system and endeavored to increase the number of female parliamentary members, Germany has the second highest participation rate of female politicians and female public employees at federal level after Sweden. Germany does not have sufficient childcare facilities, which would make working and family life compatible. However, German law allows workers to take childcare leave until their child reaches 3 years old. By the 1990s, Germany had successfully eliminated the M-shape curve of its female labor force participation rate.

**(The United Kingdom)**

In the United Kingdom, working conditions are basically determined by collective negotiation between employers and employees. In this context, except for some traditional laws that require equal labor treatment of men and women, the United Kingdom is less favorable in its childcare leave scheme and other support measures than Sweden or Germany. However, British people do not recently have a strong sense of gender role. In addition, wider job opportunities for female workers due to industrial structure, mainly in the service sector, and stronger need for flexible working conditions in private corporations, as well as the higher academic backgrounds of women, have been accelerating women's labor participation. Like Germany, the United Kingdom also eliminated the M-shape curve of its female labor force participation rate by the 1990s.

**(The United States)**

The United States not only has supporting measures for gender equality but also bans other kinds of discrimination, such as racial discrimination. The nation has been actively implementing affirmative action to correct gaps and achieve an equal society in employment and education. The United States does not have sufficient supporting measures to balance work and family life, but American people have easy access to childcare centers and other welfare facilities in the private sector. The nation already eliminated the M-shape curve of its female labor participation rate by the 1980s. Female workers also account for a large percentage of business managers. In addition, private corporations have recently started to hire female workers as top managers. On the other hand, female congress members account for a lower percentage compared with American women's labor participation in the private sector.

**(South Korea)**

Like Japan, Korea still shows lower participation rates of female parliamentary members, female civil employees and female workers in private corporations. However, as the Korean sense of gender role is weakening recently, South Korea is about to catch up with western nations. The Korean government established a new government ministry (the Ministry of Gender Equality) in charge of planning and controlling women policies, in 2001. The ministry actively pushes forward with women policies, implements the quota system for public employees, provides better working conditions for Korean women and encourages other related policies to achieve gender equality.

**(The Philippines)**

Since the Philippines is a developing country, it is not directly comparable to developed nations. However, the nation enjoys higher participation rates of female parliamentary members, female public employees and female workers than Japan for the following reasons: 1) the Philippines has adopted the quota system for parliamentary members despite insufficient supportive measures for childcare; and 2) the Filipino people have strong sense of gender role, but they also have strong sense of gender equality.

**(Japan)**

In Japan, female parliamentary members and female business managers account for a much lower percentage

than in Sweden and Germany. Japan also shows a slightly lower female labor force participation rate than the other six nations. In this context, women's participation in society is still low. (See Chart 1.)

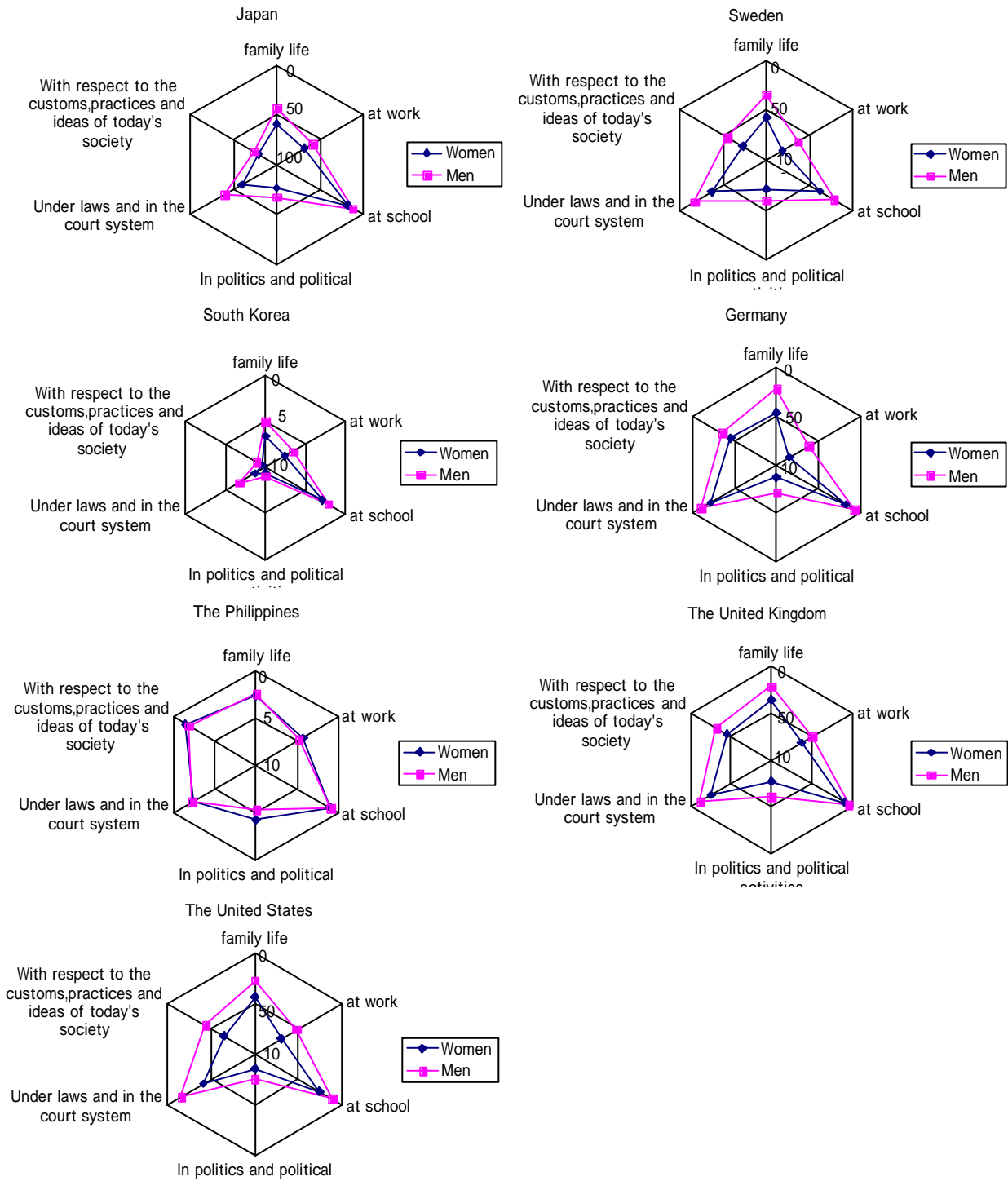
There is no significant gap between Japan and the Western nations in basic legal frameworks for achieving gender equality. However, unlike Germany and Sweden, Japan provides its female workers with insufficient support measures for balancing work and childcare. In addition, Japanese people still have a strong, rigid sense of traditional gender role. Female workers with high educational backgrounds do not enjoy sufficient job opportunities to demonstrate their full potential ,because Japan still has various social systems/practices based on these traditional concepts.

## **2. Basic awareness gap**

### **(Men's and women's sense of gender equality)**

The Cabinet Office surveyed people's awareness of gender gaps in the field of "family life," "the workplace", "school", "politics", "legal and institutional framework", and "social standards, customs and practices". According to the survey results, there were many respondents from all the surveyed nations, except for the Philippines, who answered that men enjoy a more favorable status than women in "the workplace," "politics" and "social standards customs, and practices". Many women in the Western nations strongly feel gender inequality in "the workplace" and "politics" as well as Japanese women, although women in the Western nations already enjoy a significantly high level of participation in society. Women in Japan and South Korea strongly feel that men enjoy a more favorable position in "family life," suggesting that the people of these two nations are still strongly conscious of gender roles. On the other hand, for the areas in which the respondents feel gender equality, "school" accounts for the largest percentage in Japan and all other surveyed nations because it guarantees fair opportunities to men and women and puts more emphasis on academic performance than gender. Except in the Philippines, women feel the gender gap more strongly than men. (See Chart 2.)

Chart 2. Sense of equality in the various fields



- (Notes)
1. The data were collected from the Cabinet Office, "International Comparative Survey on Gender Equality" (2002 edition) and "Opinion Survey on Gender Equality" (July 2002 edition).
  2. The axis represents the larger percentage of respondents who feel the gender gap as it gets closer to the center. If the area within the line gets smaller, more people feel that men enjoy a more favorable social status. In this case, many people feel the gender gap.



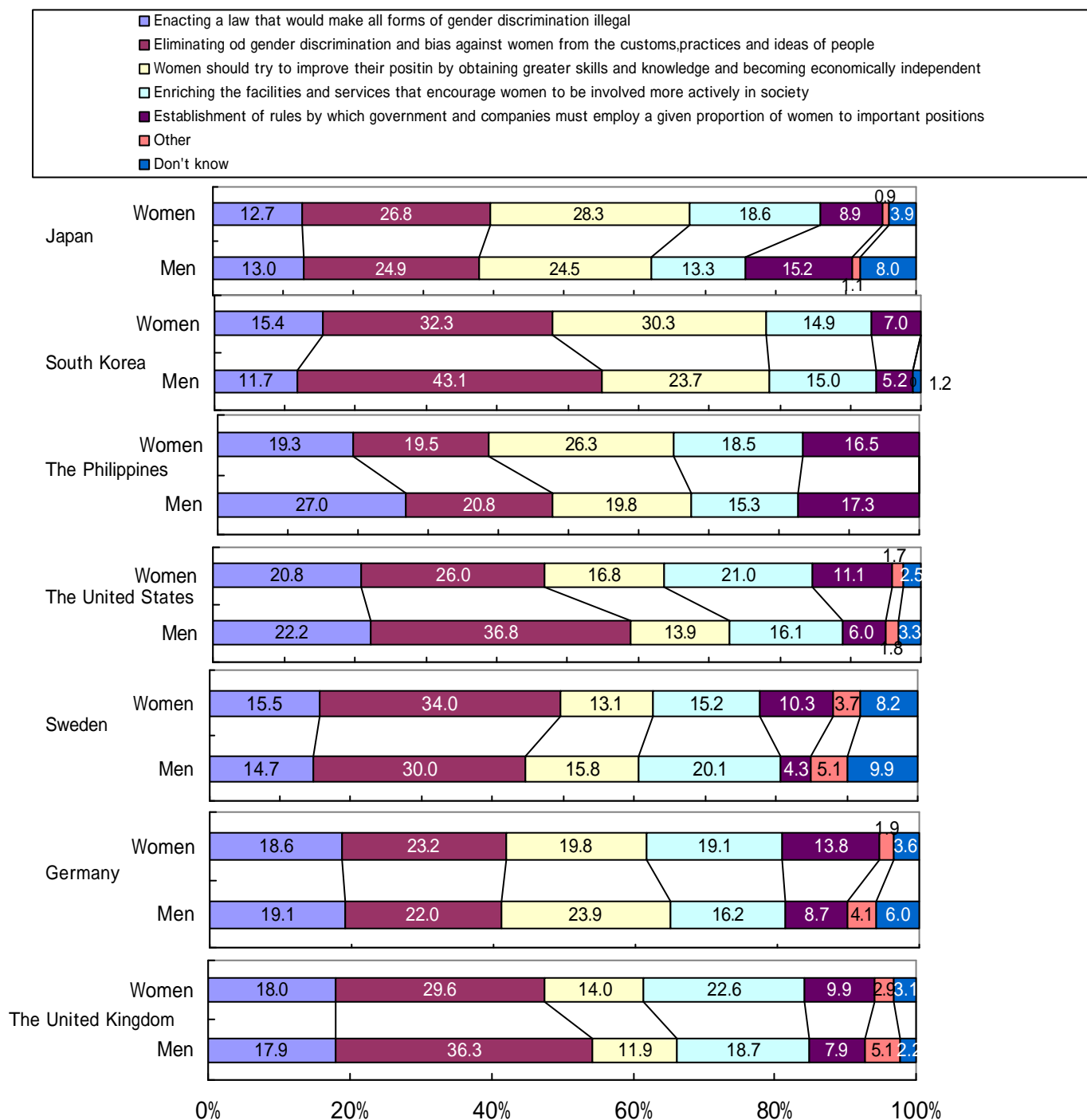
**(The most important factor in achieving gender equality)**

We also asked respondents what they thought was the most important factor in achieving gender equality. "Correcting rigid social standards" accounted for the largest percentage in the Western nations and South Korea. This answer option accounts for the largest or the second largest percentage in Japan and the Philippines as well. Among female Japanese respondents, the answer option "Women should endeavor to empower themselves" occupies the largest percentage. These survey results indicate that the largest obstacle to gender equality is traditional social standards, irrespective of how much women successfully participate in labor market. (See Chart 3.)

In the Western nations and South Korea, more female respondents chose the answer option "Allocating a certain percentage of important positions to female workers" than male respondents. On the other hand, more male respondents chose this answer option than female respondents did in Japan. Many Japanese women prefer the empowerment of women and measures to support women's empowerment rather than direct compulsory measures for women's labor participation.

This awareness of gender equality would have a significant impact on how men and women play their roles in politics/ administration, the labor market and family life as well as on how governments carry out and formulate policies and legal frameworks for gender equality.

Chart3. The most important factor in achieving gender equality



(Note) The data were collected from the Cabinet Office, "International Comparative Survey on Gender Equality" (2002 edition) and "Opinion Survey on Gender Equality" (July 2002 edition).

## Section 2. Women's participation in politics and administration

### 1. Women's participation in politics

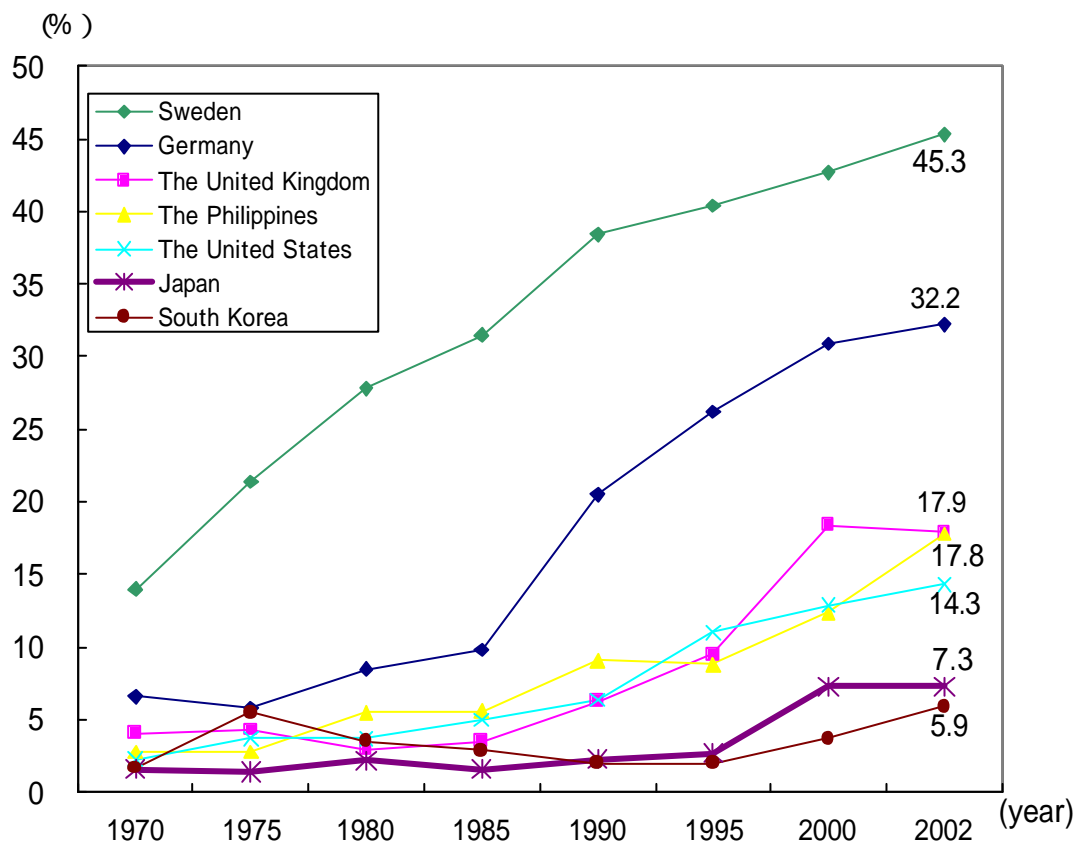
#### (Parliamentary members)

From 1970 to 2002, the number of female parliamentary members has increased in all the surveyed nations. However, there are differences between these nations in when the number started to increase in parliament, and how fast it has been increasing. (See Chart 4.)

Sweden has enjoyed a high percentage of female parliamentary members since the 1970s. In Sweden, the number of female parliamentary members steadily increased to about 40% in 1990 and accounts for 45.3% of all parliamentary members as of 2002. Other nations had a very low percentage from 1970 to 1985 and had little significant gap among them. However, the number of female parliamentary members has been increasing in Germany, the United Kingdom and the United States since 1985. In Germany, in particular, the number of female parliamentary members significantly increased in the 1987 election and had accounted for 32.2% of all parliamentary members as of 2002.

Japan and South Korea has also seen steady increases in the number of female parliamentary members since 1995, but their growth rate is still hovering low and falling short of 10% even by 2001.

Chart 4. Percentage of female parliamentary members



(Notes) 1. The data were collected from IPU (Inter-Parliamentary Union) documents.

2. The figures for the Philippines represent female congresspersons in the Lower House under bicameral legislature up to the 1978 election, female congress members under the unicameral system from the 1978 to the 1987 elections, and female Lower House members under bicameral legislature since the May 1987 election.
3. The figures for Germany only cover female parliamentary members in West Germany up to 1985

**(Cabinet members)**

In Germany and Sweden, women account for more than 40% of all cabinet members. As South Korea, the Philippines, the United States and the United Kingdom have also shown increases in their number of female parliamentary members, these nations have enjoyed steady growth in their number of female cabinet members as well. In particular, Germany and South Korea have recently shown a significant rise. Japan shows large gaps in the number of female ministers, depending on premierships; therefore, the number of female ministers is not steadily increasing. However, there is a higher percentage of women cabinet members than parliamentary members. (See Chart 5.)

Chart 5 Percentage in female cabinet members

		1982	1984	1989	1994	1998	2002
Japan	Minister	0.0%	*1 3.8%	0.0%	6.3%	0%	22.2%
	Vice minister	1 person	1 person	0.0%	8.0%	3%	4.5%
South Korea	Minister		*2 1 person	4.0%	3.8%	3 persons	*3 21.1%
	Vice minister				0%	1 person	
The Philippines	Minister	5.6%	9.6%	11.5%	7.7%	10%	20.8%
	Vice minister	7.3%	0.0%		11.4%	19%	
The United States	Secretary	5.0%	*2 15%	12.5%	13.6%	26%	20.0%
	Under secretary	0.0%			26.1%	33%	12.5%
Sweden	Minister	27.8%	25.0%	35.0%	30.0%	43%	45.5%
	Vice minister				4.3%	24%	
Germany	Minister	5.9%		17.6%	16.0%	8%	42.9%
	Vice minister	10.0%		10.0%	5.2%	5%	
The United Kingdom	Minister	4.5%	9.1%	4.5%	8.7%	24%	21.7%
	Vice minister	2.0%	3.1%	7.7%	7.1%	19%	

- (Notes) 1. The 1988 and 1994 data were collected from United Nations, "The World's Women 2000, 1995." Pre-1988 data was collected from "Special Activity Reports on Promoting Women's Participation in Policy-decision Process" published by Council of Cabinet Office (for women issues). The 2002 data was collected from publications of these surveyed nations.
2. \*1 represents the data as of 1985.
3. \*2 represents the data as of 1983.
4. \*3 represents the data as of 2003.

**2. Factors influencing how female parliamentary members are elected**

**(Electoral system)**

Germany, Japan, South Korea and the Philippines have electoral systems that are a mixture of single-seat constituency and proportional representation. Sweden has only a proportional representation electoral system. The United States and the United Kingdom both have the single-seat constituency system only.

Comparing these two electoral systems, proportional representation produces a higher percentage of female parliamentary members than single-seat constituency. (See Chart 6.) Under proportional representation, a female candidate will have a greater probability of being elected if she occupies a higher rank on the list prepared by her political party. In this context, many political parties and national governments introduced the quota system that requires political parties to include a certain number of female candidates in their lists.

Chart 6. Percentage of female parliament members by electoral system  
(%)

Japan	Proportional representation	12.2
	Single - seat constituency	4.3
South Korea	Proportional representation	23.9
	Single - seat constituency	2.2
Germany	Proportional representation	26.2
	Single - seat constituency	19.1

- (Notes)
1. Data was collected from documents of Secretariats, House of Representatives in Japan. Data represents percentage of female parliamentary members in 2001.
  2. Data of South Korea was collected from "Women Statistics Annual Report: 2001 Edition." The data represents the 2000 figures.
  3. Data of Germany was collected from Equal Opportunities Commission, "Women in Parliament: A Comparative Analysis." The data represents figures in 1994.

### (Various efforts to elect more female parliamentary members )

Chart 7. Major efforts to increase the number of female parliamentary members in foreign nations(See Next Page)

#### (Quota system)

There are two types of quota system. The first type is a political party's internal quota system to allot women for certain managerial positions or as candidates. The second type is external, and places a certain number of women on the candidate list for general election. The internal quota system helps female members to run for external election because it provides them with more opportunities to achieve strong positions in the political party. On the other hand, the external quota system provides more direct opportunities to female members to be elected as parliamentary members. (See Chart 7.)

Political parties in Sweden, Germany and the United Kingdom spontaneously stipulated the quota system in the party platforms, while South Korea and the Philippines stipulated it as a legally binding scheme. All of the surveyed foreign nations, except for the United States, have already adopted the quota system. These nations adopted various quota systems, considering domestic social conditions and women's status in society. The effect of quota system depends much on the social basis to encourage women's participation in the political arena.

In Sweden, as the percentage of female parliamentary members fell in the 1991 election, Swedish political parties introduced the quota system for their election candidate lists. The number of female parliamentary members significantly increased in subsequent elections. The quota system worked effectively in Sweden because Swedish women are willing to participate in politics and also because Sweden has the social environment necessary to encourage women's political participation.

Germany also saw steady increases in the number of female parliamentary members after the major political parties had adopted the quota system in the late 1980s. Even before that time, German political parties endeavored to improve women's status in the political parties, but these efforts did not work effectively. After detailed examination, they decided to adopt the quota system as a last resort. The quota system successfully motivated women to participate in politics.

In the United Kingdom, two major political parties have always disputed women's policies during general elections. In the 1990s, as the Labour Party adopted the quota system in various ways, the party doubled its number of female parliamentary members from 60 in 1992 to 120 in 1997.

Like Japan, South Korea has a small percentage of female parliamentary members. Before the 16th general election in 2000, the National Assembly amended the Political Party Law to allocate 30% of proportional representation candidates to women. The number of female parliamentary members increased from 9 (3.0%) to

Chart 7. Major efforts to increase the number of female parliamentary members in foreign nations

	South Korea	The Philippines	The United States	Sweden	Germany	The United Kingdom
Quota system in political party			The Democratic Party Charter provides that at least one delegate must be a woman. The Charter also demands impartial allocation of the party's top positions to both genders and allocation of National Committee delegate positions equally to both genders, but it prohibits the quota system. A Republican Party internal rule provides that each state subordinate organization shall appoint a male and a female National Committee delegate. The internal regulation also requires that women must account for at least 33% of National Committee delegates.	1972 The Liberal Party promised that each gender would account for 40% of its top executive posts. 1990 The Leftist Party platform stipulated that women "must account for 50% or more of the elected representatives and appointed positions." 1993 The Social Democratic Party introduced the quota system for its top executive positions.	1986 The Green Party introduced the quota system for its top executive positions. 1988 The Social Democratic Party adopted the quota system that requires female candidates to comprise a third of the candidates for its internal election. The Social Democrats will phase out this quota system by 2013. 1996 The Christian Democratic Party (CDU) introduced a modified quorum system in which a top executive election is conducted if female executives fall short of a third of all party elected executives.	1990 Labor Party introduced the quota system for its top executive positions.
Quota system for candidate list	2000 The Korean National Assembly amended the Political Party Law so that female candidates must account for 30% of all the candidates on the list for nationwide proportional representative constituency.			1994 The Liberal Party, the Social Democratic Party, the Environmentalist Party and the Leftist Party prepared candidate lists that placed male and female candidates by turns. (These candidate lists were for national-level and local-level elections.)	1986 The Green Party first prepared candidate lists that named male and female candidates by turns (i.e. 50:50 quota system). (This candidate list was for national-level and local-level elections.) 1988 The Social Democratic Party introduced one-third quota system. Before 1994, women had to account for 25%. 1996 CDU introduced the quota system in which women must account for a third of the candidates on the list. (This candidate list was for national-level and local-level elections.)	1993 ~ 96 Labor Party introduced "All Women Short List" that named only female candidates to a half of the electoral districts where a current parliamentary member is retiring or where Labor Party has the pull over other parties. Labor Party abolished this list system in 1996 because it would violate Sex Discrimination Act. 1999 Labor Party and Liberal Democratic Party prepared their candidate lists that named male and female candidates by turns. Labor Party introduced "Twining" scheme. This scheme regards two neighboring electoral districts as one district and allows the most internally popular female candidate to run from one of these two districts and the most popular male candidate to run from the other district. 2002 British Parliament amended Sex Discrimination Act so that political parties would be able to introduce All Women Short List.
Other efforts		1998 In accordance with the Republic Act #7941, the Philippines Congress assigned 20% of its legislative seats to representatives of women, elderly people, the working class, disabled people's organizations, etc.	1971 NWPC (National Women's Political Caucus) was established to recruit female candidates and provide them with training and election support. 1985 A civilian organization, "Emily's List," was established to provide financial support for female Democrat candidates. 1992 A civilian organization, the "Wish List," was established to provide financial support for female Republican candidates.		1999 The Green Party introduced the mentor system.	1993 Labor Party started Emily's List, a financial support program for its prospective female parliamentary member candidates. 2000 Labor Party introduced the mentor system.

(Note) The data were collected from the Cabinet Office, "Survey Report on Gender-Equal Frameworks in Foreign Nations" (2001 and 2002 editions) and Fusae Ichikawa Memorial Association, "Documents on Women's Political Participation."

16 (5.9%) in the 16th general election; however, they still account for a small percentage of parliamentary members in South Korea. After the democratization declaration in 1987, South Korean political parties launched various measures to improve women status. In particular, after the 14th presidential election in 1992, they publicly promised to support women's further political participation. In this context, South Korean women are more conscious of their own political participation. In 1995, the National Assembly enacted a "Basic Law for the Advancement of Women" that stipulates that government supports expanding women's political participation. These reforms led to the amendment of the Political Party Law in 2000.

In the United States, the judicial branch has judged some affirmative action in employment or education as unconstitutional and illegal since the late 1970s. Due to these judgments, political parties are rather reluctant to adopt the quota system.

#### **(Some other efforts than the quota system)**

There are some other unique efforts than the quota system. Political parties in Germany and the United Kingdom have a mentor system in which incumbent legislators provide instruction or financial support for female candidates. In the United States and the United Kingdom, private organizations provide financial support and electoral cooperation for female candidates.

In the United States, a private organization was established in 1971 to recruit, train and provide electoral support for female legislator candidates. Then, as the Democratic Party and the Republican Party established subordinate organizations to give financial and electoral support to female candidates, the number of female congresspersons has increased since 1990.

In Germany, not only political parties but also state governments adopted the mentor system to enhance women's political participation.

The Swedish parliament has an agency system for parliamentary members. When a parliamentary member takes childcare leave, his/her agent can be on behalf of the parliamentary member. This system contributes to balancing work and family life.

### **3. Women's awareness of political participation**

#### **(Voting rate)**

Sweden, Germany and the Philippines enjoy high voting rates (almost 80%) although the voting rate is becoming lower recently in these nations. The voting rate is around 60% in Japan, South Korea and the United Kingdom. The United States sees a lightly lower voting rate, which falls short of 50% for both genders.

A time series analysis indicates the voting rate has been falling in all the surveyed nations. Generally, people are becoming less interested in politics.

In terms of the voting rates of each gender, women have higher voting rate than men in Japan, the United States, Sweden and the Philippines, indicating that women are not less interested in politics than men.

### **4. Women's participation as administrative service**

#### **(Current situation of female national government employees)**

Japan has the lowest percentage of female public employees in national government (20.2%). Japan also records the lowest percentage of female managerial-level public employees (1.4%) among the surveyed nations (Chart 8). Among all public employees, women account for a little less than 50% in the United States and the United Kingdom and slightly less than 60% in the Philippines. Even in these nations, there is a smaller percentage of managerial-level female public employees. On the other hand, Swedish women account for 40% of all public

employees and also account for more than 50% of all the managerial-level public employees.

Although the percentage of female public employees remained almost flat between 1995 and 1999, female managerial-level public employees accounted for a significantly larger percentage in 1999 than in 1995 in the United States and the United Kingdom. In Japan, the percentage of female managerial-level public employees remained almost flat between 1995 and 1999. In this sense, women experience slow career promotion in Japan, as well as in South Korea and Germany.

Chart 8. Percentage of female national government employees

	1995		1999	
	Female public employees as a percentage of all public employees	Female managerial public employees as a percentage of all managerial-level public employees	Female public employees as a percentage of all public employees	Female managerial public employees as a percentage of all managerial-level public employees
Japan	19.4	1.0	*1 20.2	*1 1.4
South Korea	18.6	1.4	21.6	2.0
The Philippines	-	-	53.0	34.8
The United States	49.5	18.5	49.3	23.1
Sweden	-	-	*2 43.0	*2 51.0
Germany	37.8	*3 8.3	*2 39.0	*2 9.5
The United Kingdom	48.0	12.1	49.1	17.2

- (Notes)
1. The data on Japan (only the 1995 data), South Korea, the United States, Germany and the United Kingdom were collected from the National Personnel Authority, "Annual Report 2000."
  2. The data on Japan were collected from the National Personnel Authority, "Survey Recruitment Report on Regular Service of National Government Employees."
  3. The data on Sweden were collected from "Women and Men in Sweden, Facts and Figures 2000."
  4. The data on the Philippines were collected from fact sheets in the "National Commission on the Role of Filipino women."
  5. Japan: "All public employees" means regular service, and "managerial-level public employees" means government employees belonging to Grade 9 or higher in the "salary schedule for administrative services (I)" and government officials in designated positions. South Korea: "All public employees" means general public employees, and "managerial-level public employees" means government employees belonging to Grade 4 (director-level) or higher. The Philippines: "Managerial-level public employees" means government officials in the "third level." The United States: "All public employees" means white-collar workers (general salary schedule), and "managerial-level public employees" means senior management-level employees. Sweden: The figures include local government staff. Germany: The data cover public employees in the highest federal agencies, and "managerial-level public employees" means full-time senior-level employees. The United Kingdom: "Managerial-level public employees" means Grades 4 and 5 (director-level) or higher staff.
  6. \*1 represents the data in 2001. \*2 represents the data in 1998. \*3 means the data in 1996.

**(Efforts to recruit/promote more female public employees)**

Since the 1960s, the United States government had been required to prepare the affirmative employment plan for female public employees every five years and to set numerical targets and a schedule. However, government agencies are not currently obliged to do so.

In Germany, the 2001 Federal Equality Act allows the quota system under certain conditions.

As a temporary measure up to 2002, the South Korean government has also set numerical targets for hiring female national public employees. When the government introduced the target for hiring female public employees in 1996, women accounted for 26.5% of all applicants who passed the recruitment examination. This percentage increased to 33.4% in 2001. In the Philippines, ministries must recommend both male and female candidates for any vacant position. In Japan, each government agency has started to prepare and carry out the women recruitment and enlargement plan in 2001. Japanese government agencies are not obliged to set



numerical targets, but some government agencies had been established their own numerical targets.

On the other hand, the Swedish government has been emphasizing training/education for female public employees since 1995. The United Kingdom also gives the focuses on training or instruction to female public employees by introducing the mentor system. To enhance promoting/recruiting female public employees, the South Korean government created a database of information on female managerial-level public employees (Chart 9). In Japan, the government has just started to enlarge recruitment and promotion of women public employees. Various measures in foreign nations will provide valuable information for Japanese government agencies to achieve the targets of their recruitment and promotion plans.

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Chart 9. Main efforts to recruit/promote more female public employees

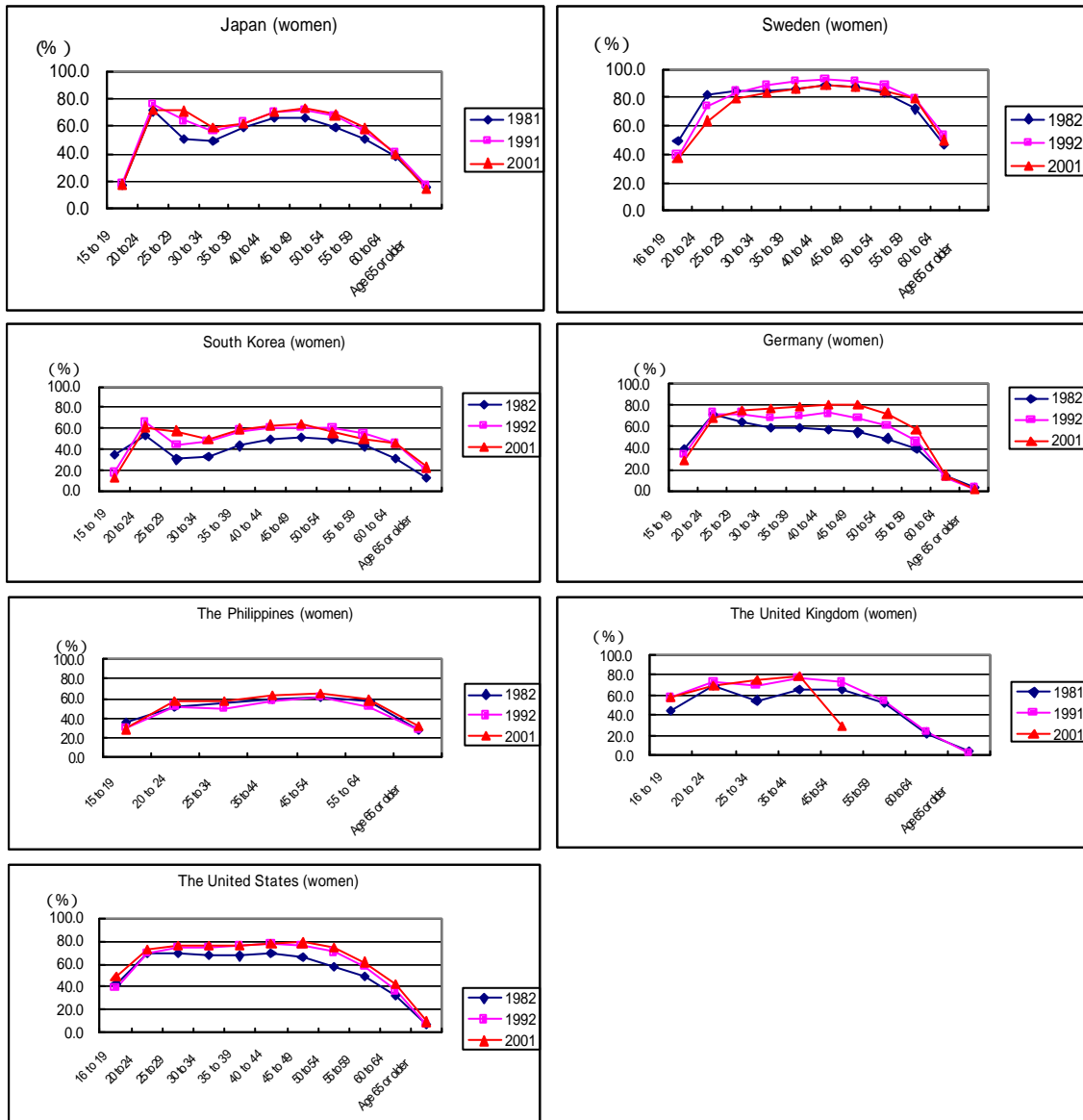
	Japan	South Korea	The Philippines	The United States	Sweden	Germany	The United Kingdom
Efforts to recruit/promote more female public servants	2001 Each Office and Ministry formulate its plan to enlarge the recruitment and promotion of women employees until FY 2005. Council for Gender Equality carefully monitors how ministries and agencies actually carry out their plans. Monitoring Expert Group is in charge of this monitoring task.	1989 The South Korean government abolished its gender-category-based staff recruitment system.	1999 In order to alleviate career promotion for female public servants, government ministries shall recommend male and female candidates to grade 3 position, if the position becomes vacant.	1964 Title VII of Civil Rights Act requires government departments and agencies to prepare and carry out its affirmative employment plan for providing equal job opportunities to minorities and women if they have 500 employees or more. Each government department or agency prepares this plan at 5-year intervals and their annual report every year. Before 1986, departments and agencies were required to set up numerical target and timetable, but they became optional in 1987.	1995 The government held Management Academy to recruit more female executive-level public servants. A half of female public servants who have completed this academy course will move on to new positions.	1994 In accordance with Women Promotion Act, each ministry prepares its women promotion plan at 3-year intervals.	1984 The equal opportunity action plan for female public servants aims at increasing ratio of top-class female public servants to 15% by 2000.
		1996 Set out specific target on recruiting female public servants. In 1998, the government set the target year ahead of the initial plan. In 1999, the government postponed the target year from 2000 to 2002 but raised the target percentage of female public servants. In order to provide training to female executive-level public servants, the government set out the target to increase the percentage of grades 5 (middle-class staff) female public servants to 10% and grade 6 female servants to 20% before 2005.			1996 In order to recruit executive-level female staff in charge of international affairs, the Swedish government started holding Management Academy jointly with Denmark, Ireland and Norway. In 1999, the Academy has 8 European member nations.	2001 The phrase "quota system that is proper in specific circumstances" was added to Federal Equality Act.	1997 The government prepared "Action Plan for Achieving Equal Opportunity for Public Servants."
		2001 Established the database of some 6,000 female executive-level public servants.	2003 Required national universities to allocate 30% of professorships to female staff.				1999 "Government Modernization White Paper" set out the target to raise the ratio of executive-class female public servants to 135% by 2005.
							2000 The government launched the mentor program in which senior female public servants would give advice and counseling to junior female public servants.

(Note) The data were collected from the Cabinet Office, "Survey Report on Gender-Equal Frameworks in Foreign Nations" (2001 and 2002 editions) and the National Personnel Authority, "Annual Report 2000."

**Section 3. Women's participation in the labor market**

**(Female labor force participation rate in foreign nations)**

Chart 10. Female labor force participation rates in foreign nations by age bracket



- (Notes)
1. The data were collected from ILO, "Yearbook of Labour Statistics."
  2. In the 2001 Philippines data, "Ages 55 to 64" should be read as "Ages 55 to 74," and "Age 65 or older" should be read as "Age 75 or older. " In the 2001 UK data, "Ages 35 to 44" and "Ages 45 to 54" should be read as "Ages 35 to 49" and "Age 50 and older," respectively.
  3. The figures on South Korea, the Philippines, the United States, Sweden and Germany represent the data in 1982, 1992 and 2001.

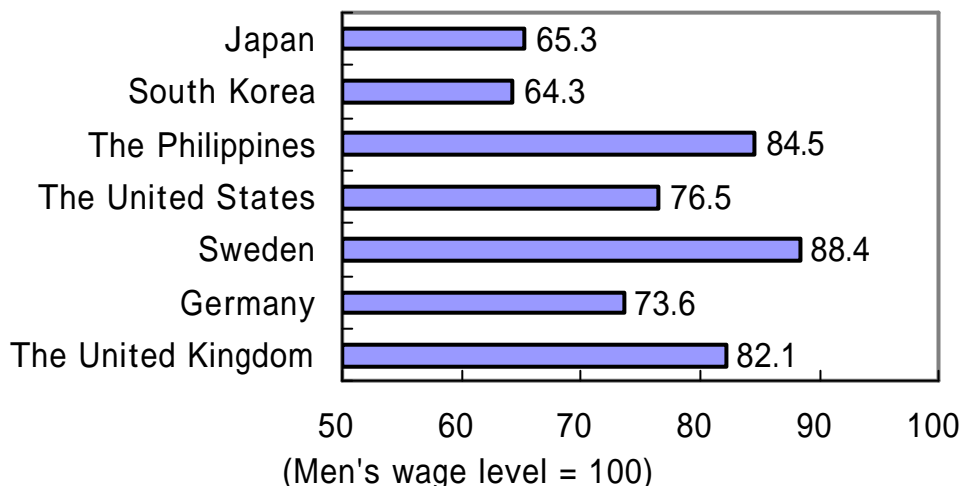
Generally, the female labor force participation rate has been rising since the 1980s in all the surveyed foreign nations, except Sweden. The female labor force participation rate (by age bracket) already showed reverse U-shape curves in the United States, Sweden and the Philippines in the 1980s. The United Kingdom and Germany used to have an M-shape curve in 1991 and 1992, but these two nations successfully had changed the shapes into a reverse U-shape curve by 2001. Western nations have such reverse U-shape curves for the following reasons: 1) The government provides proper environment for working women and carry out supportive measures to balance work and childcare; 2) Women are able to flexibly change full-time work and part-time work; and 3) More and more women now have high educational backgrounds. It should be noted that South Korea still shows a clear M-shape curve as well as Japan, but the trough of M-shape curve has shifted from the "Ages 25 to 29" age bracket in 1992 to "Ages 30 to 34" in 2001. (See Chart 10.)

## 2. Women's status in the workplace

(Wage gap between men and women in Japan)

Although every nation has a wage gap between men and women, Japan has larger gender wage gap than the foreign nations (Chart 11). "class of position" and "length of service years" have the most significant impacts on the wage gap between men and women.

Chart 11. Wage gap between men and women



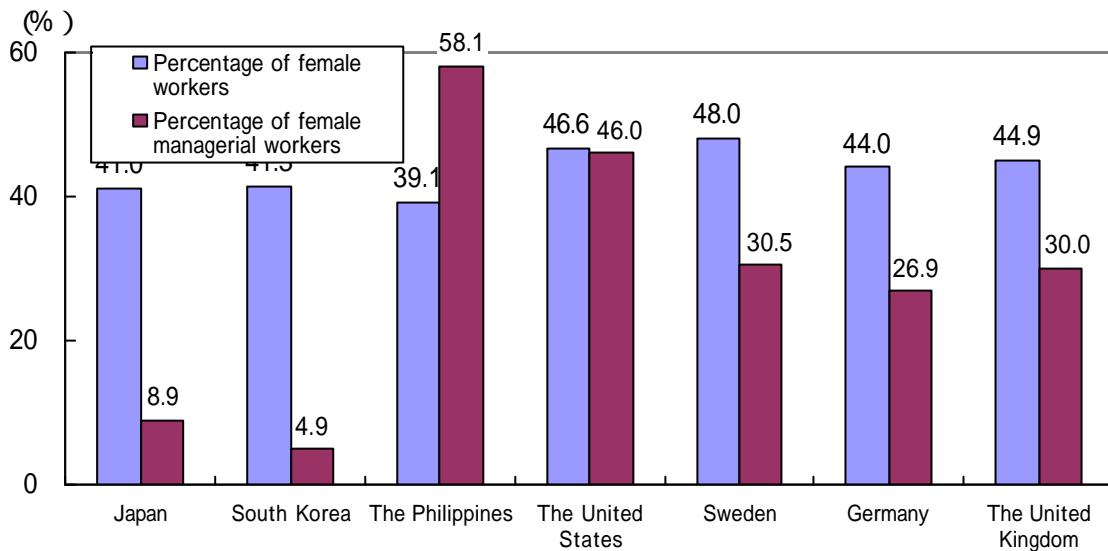
- (Notes)
1. The data were collected from ILO, "Yearbook of Labour Statistics" (2002 edition) and the US Department of Commerce, "Statistical Abstract of the United States."
  2. The wage gap between men and women represents female worker's wages as a percentage of male worker's wages.
  3. "Wage" means cash salary and bonus benefit for regular full-time workers (on an hourly, daily, weekly or monthly basis).
  4. The figures for the United States represent the 1999 data, while the figures for the other nations are the data in 2001.
  5. The scope of "workers" is not necessarily standardized.

**(Promotion to managerial-level position in the surveyed nations)**

Japan has a lower percentage of female managerial workers than the other surveyed nations. Although women account for 40% of all workers, female managerial workers account for a much lower percentage in Japan than in the Western nations. Japan also has a much larger gap between the female employment rate and female managerial workers rate among all the surveyed nations except South Korea. (See Chart 12.)

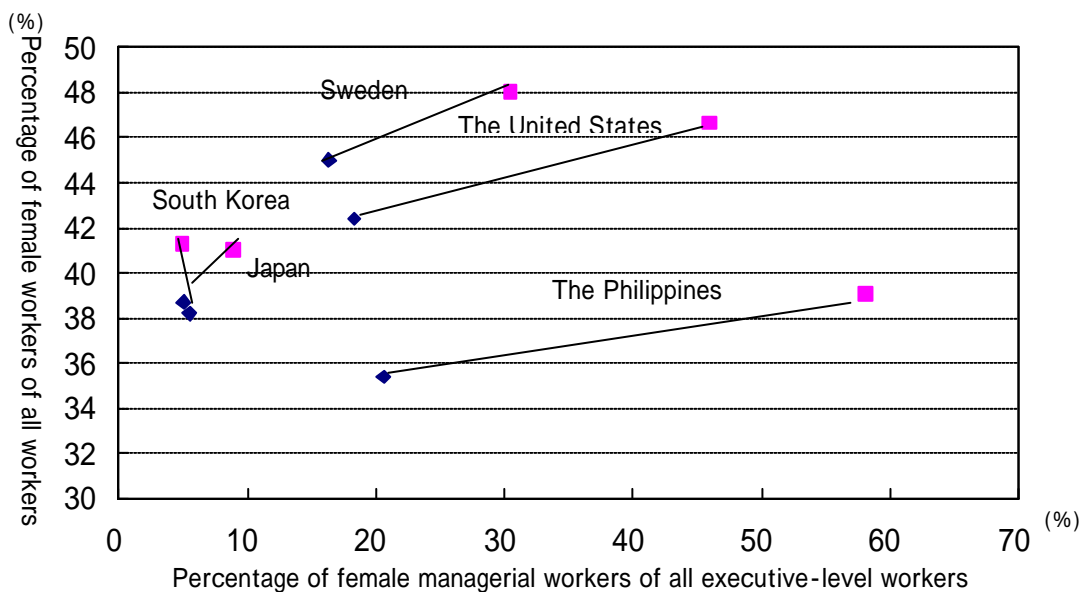
None of the surveyed nations have shown significant changes in the percentage of female workers since 1982. However, the percentage of female managerial workers has been significantly rising since 1982 in the United States, the Philippines and Sweden. The United States has seen the most significant increase. On the other hand, Japan has shown almost no change in the female managerial-level workers rate. (See Chart 13.)

Chart 12. Rates of female workers and female managerial-level workers



(Notes) 1. The data were collected from ILO, "Yearbook of Labour Statistics 2002."

Chart 13. Changes in percentage of female workers and female managerial workers (from 1980 to 2001)



(Notes) 1. The data were collected from ILO, "Yearbook of Labour Statistics."  
 2. The figures on Japan, the Philippines, the United States and Sweden covers the period between 1980 and 2001. The data on South Korea cover the period between 1980 and 2000.

Slow promotion for female workers is part of the reason for the wage gap between men and women.

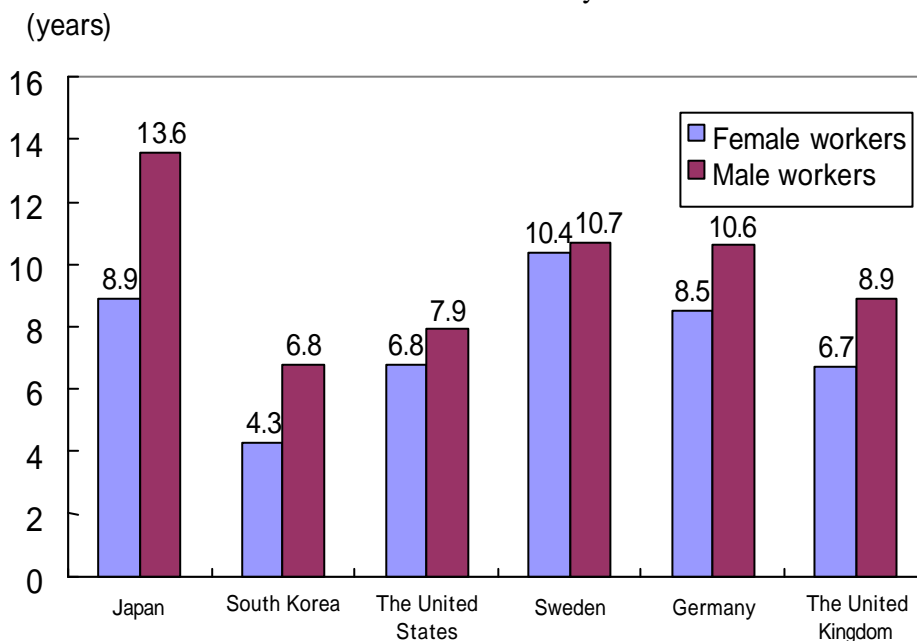
The United States has almost no gap between female employment rate and female managerial workers rate. Since the 1960s, the nation has been implementing affirmative actions to correct disadvantageous state of minority group-members and women. Executive Order #11375 in 1967 requires a federal contractor to apply affirmative action to eliminate employment discrimination against women, if the contractor has contract transactions with the federal government of \$10,000 or more. The US court is also entitled to order proper affirmative action. The Small Business Act also stipulates favorable treatment in government procurement for small- and medium-sized corporations run by minority group-members or women. In 1991, the US government established the Glass Ceiling Commission that recommends private corporations and the government about future possible affirmative measures to promote minority group members and women to managerial positions. At the same time, American women also became more career-oriented. Currently, women account for about 44% of new law-school graduates and about 29% of the new top ten MBA school enrollments. About 82% of the Fortune 500 companies have one or more female executive officer. These female operating officers account for 12.5% of the directors of the Fortune 500 companies.

In the Philippines, women account for more than half of managerial workers, but the nation also has a widening income gap between the rich and the poor. Upper- and middle-class women are able to hire employees to help them with domestic or childcare duties. This phenomenon, as well as the traditional gender-equality concept in the Philippines, women to participate in the society and encourages women's participation in politics, public employees and private office workers.

**(Service years)**

Male Japanese workers have significantly longer service years than workers in the other nations. Japan also has a larger gap in service years between male and female workers. (See Chart14.)

Chart 14. Service years



- (Notes)
1. The data on Japan were collected from the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare , "Basic Survey on Wage Structure" (2001 edition).
  2. The data on South Korea were collected from Korea Labor Institute documents.
  3. The data on the other nations were collected from OECD, "Employment Outlook" (1997 edition).
  4. The figures for Japan represent data in 2001; the figures for South Korean represent data in 1998; the figures for the United States are data in 1996; and the figures for the other nations are data in 1995.

### 3. Working part-time from the perspective of childcare and work balance

Some nations have the reverse U-shape curves of their labor force participation rate because they have flexible employment management practices regarding working hours such as transition to a part-time position. This flexibility enables female workers to continue their jobs while raising children.

#### **(Transition between full-time and part-time work during the childcare period)**

Employment practices regarding part-time work encourage female employees to continue working while raising children.

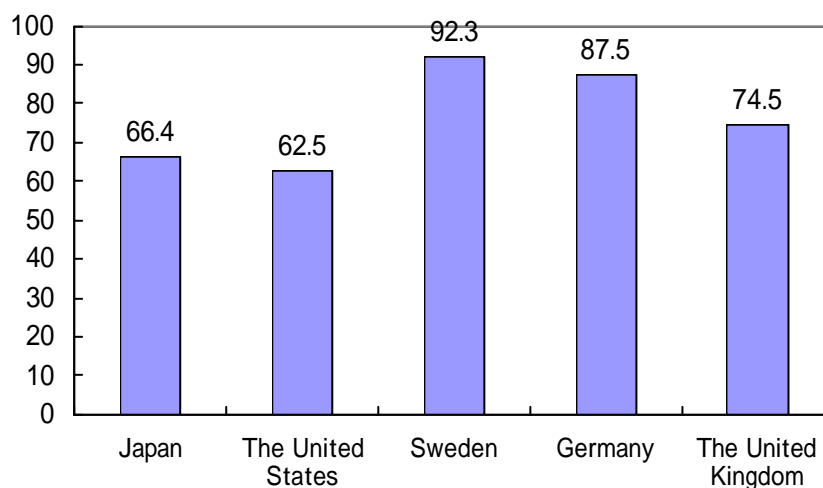
Female part-time workers account for a large percentage in all the surveyed nations, except for South Korea.

Some nations show a reverse U-shape curve of their female labor force participation rate (by age bracket). In the United States, part-time workers account for only 18.8% of mothers who have a child under 6 years old, while they account for a larger percentage in the United Kingdom (65% of mothers whose youngest child is younger than 5 years old) and in Sweden (54% of mothers who have two children, the youngest of whom is aged 1 or 2). In these nations, working mothers usually keep their regular worker status and change service hours from a full-time to a part-time, rather than quitting their job. This working style encourages working mothers to stay in their jobs.

#### **(Gaps in working conditions between full-time and part-time workers)**

Japan has significant gaps in working conditions between full-time and part-time workers. As Japanese companies tend to hire part-time workers as simply a cheap labor force, part-time workers receive significantly lower wages than full-time workers, even if they are assigned the same duties as full-time workers. The hourly wage for part-time workers is only 66.4% that of full-time workers. Compared with the full-time worker's wage level, the hourly wage for part-time workers is 92.3% in Sweden, 87.5% in Germany and 74.5% in the United Kingdom. In this sense, these nations have a smaller wage gap than Japan. (See Chart 15.)

Chart 15. Part-timer's wage level vs. full-time worker's wage level (Women)



- (Notes)
1. The data on Japan were collected from the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, "Basic Survey on Wage Structure" (2001 edition).
  2. The data on the United Kingdom were collected from the "New Earning Survey 2000."
  3. The data on the United States, Sweden and Germany were collected from OECD, "Employment Outlook" (1999 edition).
  4. The figures for Japan represent data in 2001; the figures for the United States are data in 1996; the figures for Sweden and Germany are data in 1995; and the figures for the United Kingdom represent data in 2000.

**(Systems and practices for working part-time in the surveyed nations)**

In the European nations such as Sweden, Germany, the United Kingdom and other European nations, EU Work Directives stimulated EU member nations to provide proper legal/institutional frameworks for providing equal opportunities to men and women for balancing work and family life. The EU Bargaining Agreement stipulates equal treatment for part-time workers, prohibits disadvantageous treatment of part-time workers, and also sets out job style transfer between part-time and full-time works to achieve a proper balance between work and family life. (See Chart 16.)

On the other hand, the United States does not have a specific legal framework for such job style transfer between part-time and full-time works.

A total of 60% of US companies have internal schemes for changeable job style transfer from full-time to part-time work for workers to fulfill their childcare and other household duties. In addition, many US corporations are responding flexible needs regarding working hours, such as off-duty on an hourly basis and periodic changeover of working hours.

Regular Japanese workers seldom change their job style between full-time and part-time work. Female Japanese workers usually quit their jobs due to childbirth and childcare and start working again when they are relieved of their childcare duties. However, if they are aged 30 or older, most of them will have almost no choice but to take a part-time position in charge of subordinate duties. After raising children, it is very difficult for Japanese mothers to find jobs that utilize their full potential.

4. Childcare leave frameworks in the surveyed nations

**(Childcare leave schemes in the surveyed nations)**

There are various childcare support measures for working mothers even in nations that have a reverse U-shape curve of the female labor force participation rate. Germany and Sweden have very favorable supportive measures, while the United Kingdom and the United States do not have as generous childcare leave schemes as that of Japan. (See Chart 17.)

Germany enacted an "Act for Granting Childcare Benefits and Childcare Leave" in 1986. Then, to encourage more fathers to take childcare leave, "childcare leave" was renamed "parent time" in 2001. Workers can take parent time until their child reaches 3 years old. Both parents are also able to take parent time at the same time. During parent time, they are able to work as part-time workers for 30 hours a week maximum. If both parents take parent time, they can work for 60 hours a week in total.

Sweden enacted a "Parent Leave Law" in 1974. Parent Leave was for 180 days in 1974 but has been gradually extended through law amendments. A worker is currently able to take a 480-day parent time in total until his/her child reaches 8 years old or completes the 1st grade education at elementary school. The parent insurance scheme provides 80% of one's salary for 390 days and also grants a fixed amount of benefit for the remaining 90 days. Because fathers are supposed to take 60-day long parent time out of these 390 days, they are not able to transfer this 60-day leave to their wives.

As the United States literally does not have childcare leave, American workers are supposed to take leave in accordance with the "Family and Medical Leave Act" enacted in 1993. The act provides workers with the leave; to raise a child/adopted child, to take nursery care of family members or to recuperate themselves from an illness. Childcare leave is 12 weeks in total and provides no income guarantee. A worker is able to take the childcare leave within 12 months of having a baby or adopting a child. On the other hand, the US scheme is very flexible because a worker may take childcare leave on an hourly basis or reduce their working hours, and is not necessarily required to take continuous childcare leave. In addition, after the leave, a worker has the legal rights to go back to his/her original position or demand that the employer assign him/her to the position under the similar conditions as in the original position. As long as part-time workers satisfy certain conditions, they are also able to take similar leave.



Chart 16 Legal framework for part-timers in the surveyed nations

	Japan	South Korea	The Philippines	The United States	Sweden	Germany	The United Kingdom
Name of law	Part-time Work Law	Labor Standard Act, and Ordinance for Enforcing the Labor Standard Act	1. Presidential decree #442 2. Republic Act #7655	There is no specific applicable law.	There was no special law applicable to part-timers because they basically enjoy the same working conditions as regular workers. In July 2002, the law to protect part-timers became effective.	Act regarding part-time and fixed-term employment contracts (Gesetz ueber Teilzeitarbeit und befristete Arbeitsvertraege (Teilzeit- und Befristungsgesetz))	Rules regarding preventing disadvantageous treatments against part-timers in Employment Relations Act (1999)
Year of taking effect	1993		1. 1974 2. 1993			2000 (The law significantly expanded the scope of the 1985 Employment Promotion Act.)	2000
Brief description	Aims at providing proper working conditions for and improving employment management for part-time workers. The law requires employers to provide proper working conditions for part-timers, taking into consideration the balance with regular workers.	Requires employers to set out short-time worker's wage level in proportion to working hours of regular workers involved in the same task at the same corporation. In addition, the presidential decree stipulates it in addition. Also stipulates women's rights to take a paid menstrual leave and maternity leave.	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Prohibits asking home-helper to provide services other than household duties.</li> <li>Also requires employers to hire minors (under 18 years old) who at least completed the primary education.</li> <li>Stipulates legal minimum wage for home-helpers.</li> </ul>		<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>There is only a minor gap in working hours between part-time workers and full-time workers.</li> <li>Part-timers enjoy the same social security benefits as full-time workers.</li> <li>Employers calculate the hourly wage for part-timers in the same manner as that for full-time workers.</li> <li>According to the new law, if a part-timer provides employer with evidence of discriminatory treatment, the employer must assume the burden of proof.</li> <li>The law expanded the scope of part-timers who would receive supplementary pension benefits.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Prohibits disadvantageous treatment against part-timers.</li> <li>Must guarantee part-timer's wage in proportional to working hours.</li> <li>Invalidates dismissal on account of refusal to transfer from full-time position to part-time position and vice versa.</li> <li>Employer must accept working hour reduction/extension offered by workers, including executive-level workers.</li> <li>Prohibits providing temporary workers with worse working conditions than those of regular workers, except that an objective reason would justify it.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>Part-timers have rights not to suffer from disadvantageous treatments in hourly wages, vacation schemes (such as annual paid holiday and childcare leave), disease/childbirth benefits, corporate pension benefits, occupational trainings in comparison with full-time workers.</li> <li>If a part-timer suffers disadvantageous treatment, he/she may demand the employer to explain the reason of such treatment in a written form within 21 days. In addition, a part-timer may file a case to employment tribunal within 3 months after he/she suffers from disadvantageous treatment by the employer.</li> </ul>
Other				Among corporations with 100 or more employees, about 60% of these firms have internal scheme to transfer from full-time to part-time position. They also provides flexible working hour schedules, such as hourly-based off duties.		In order to encourage work sharing, German labor unions express their supports to part-time working style.	Some court judgments held that discriminatory treatments against part-timers would fall under indirect discrimination as mentioned in Sex Discrimination Act, because most part-timers are female workers.

(Note) There data were collected from the Cabinet Office, "Survey Report on Gender-equal Frameworks in Foreign Nations" (2001 and 2002 editions).

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Chart 17. International comparison of childcare leave schemes

	Japan	South Korea	The Philippines	The United States	Sweden	Germany	The United Kingdom
Name of law	Law concerning the Welfare of Workers Who Take Care of Children or Other Family Members Including Child Care and Family Care Leave (Childcare and Nursing Care Law)	Law of Equal Employment for Both Genders	1. Federal ordinance #647 2. Republic Act #1564 3. Presidential decree #442 4. Republic Act #8187	Family and Medical Leave Act	Parent Leave Law (foraldraledighetslag)	Act for Granting Childcare Benefits and Parent Time (Gesetz über die Gewährung von Erziehungsgeld und Erziehungsurlaub (Bundeserziehungsgeldgesetz))	Employment Relation Act
Year to be effective	1992, as amended in 2002	1987, as amended in 2001	1. 1941 2. 1956 3. 1974 4. 1996	1993	1974	1986, as amended in 2000	1999
Requirements	Regular workers working for a year or longer for the same employer	Before 2001, the childcare leave scheme only covered "female workers and their working spouses who have a child younger than 1 year old." The 2001 amendment law permitted "all workers" to take the childcare leave.	1. A married and regular government official will fully receive her salary during the childcare leave if she works for the government for two years or longer. If she works for the government for two years or shorter, she will receive a half of her salary. If she is not a regular government official, she will receive no salary but is guaranteed that she may go back to her original position. 2. The above-mentioned federal ordinance #647 is also applicable to female public servants with service years of two years or less. 3. The presidential decree requires female workers to work for at least six months over the 12 months immediately before taking childcare leave and allows only four sets of childcare leave per person. 4. A male worker working in the private or public sector is also able to take childcare leave when his spouse gives birth.	"A worker is able to take the childcare leave in order to raise his/her child or adopted child, take nursery care of family member or cure his/her own sickness." -A worker is able to take the leave if he/she works for a corporation with 50 or more employees, works for the company for one year or more and works for 1,250 hours or more over the 12 months immediately before taking leave. Part-time workers and other temporary workers can take leave proportional to regular worker's childcare leave if they satisfy certain requirements. -After taking leave, the worker has the right to go back to the original position or to transfer to a different position that has the same working conditions.	A worker must work for the same employer for 6 consecutive months or for 12 months in the past two years.	The 2000 amendment mainly aims at encouraging fathers to take the childcare leaves. The amendment also extends the childcare allowance payment period and the childcare leave duration. After the parent time is over, employers are obliged to assign the worker to his/her original position or to other tasks of a similar nature. If a worker reduces his/her working hours during the parent time, he/she has the right to demand that the employer restore his/her original full-time position.	Male and female workers who work for 1 year or longer for the same employer
How long the childcare leave is effective	Before a child becomes one year old	Within one year	1. Guarantees 60-day childbirth leave. 2. Grants 30-days childbirth leave to female public servants who have service years of two year or shorter. 3. Only grants the leave for two weeks before and four weeks after the childbirth. 4. Seven days only.	- The leave will be total 12 weeks long if the worker satisfies all the conditions for taking the leave. - A worker is able to take the total 12-week long childcare leave within 12 months after he/she has a baby or adopts a child.	480 days before a child becomes 8 years old or completes 1st grade education process	Until a child reaches 3 years old (As for the third year, a worker is able to carry over the parent time until his/her child reaches 8 years old.)	13 weeks unpaid leave until a child becomes 5 years old. A worker is able to take 4-week long leave a year at maximum (a week is a basic calculation unit for taking the childcare leave).
Flexibility in the scheme (working hour reduction)	Possible		1. Impossible 2. Impossible 3. Impossible 4. Impossible	Possible	Possible (a worker is able to reduce his/her working hours to three quarters at maximum until his/her child becomes 8 years old.)	Possible (30 hours a week at maximum) Because both parents are able to reduce their working hours at the same time, they are able to work 60 hours a week in total. This enables both parents to raise their children while keeping their jobs.	Impossible
Income division	Impossible		1. Impossible 2. Impossible 3. Impossible 4. Impossible	Possible	Possible	Possible	Possible
Whether or not both parents are able to take the childcare leave	Possible		1. Impossible 2. Impossible 3. Impossible 4. Impossible	Possible	Possible. (A worker is not allowed to transfer the 60-day leave entitlement to his/her spouse, out of the total 390 days leave in which the worker is entitled to receiving 80% of normal salary. So, a male worker (a father) must take 60-day childcare leave in order to fully take the 390-days leave.	Possible (Both parents are able to take the leave at the same time.)	Possible - Introduced the paid childcare leave for fathers in 2003 (i.e., they may take 2-week childcare leave within 8 weeks after the childbirth.).
Payable benefits	Provides 40% of pre-leave wages as childcare leave benefits (under unemployment insurance scheme)	Employment Insurance Act (as amended in 2001) newly added the childcare leave salary scheme that provides applicable workers with 200,000 won a month.	1. Only for 60 days 2. 30 days 3. Grants regular or average salary for two weeks before and four weeks after the childbirth 4. Only for seven days	None	80% of salary is guaranteed for 390 days. The daily fixed benefit (60 krone) is payable for remaining 90 days.	Grants childcare benefits until a child becomes two years old.	Unpaid
Measures for a sick child	Employers should make endeavors to introduce the nursing care leave scheme.		1. Impossible 2. Impossible 3. Impossible 4. Impossible	Possible if a child faces "significantly severe health crisis."	Both parents are able to receive parent insurance temporary benefit for 120 days at maximum per child until their child becomes 12 years old.	Sick child nursing care leave scheme (social law code) provides sickness benefits.	None

(Note) The data were collected from the Cabinet Office, "Survey Report on Gender-equal Frameworks in Foreign Nations" (2001 and 2002 editions).

In the United Kingdom, private corporations have voluntarily introduced childcare leave, family leave and paternal childbirth leave through collective agreement with employees. In addition, female workers can take childbirth leave for a relatively long period. "Regulations on Paternal and Maternal Leaves" in the 1999 Employment Relations Act legally introduced the childcare leave. However, the Act only provides 13-week childcare leave (4-week childcare leave per year at maximum) until their child reaches 5 years old. The Act does not guarantee workers' income while they are taking childcare leave.

In Japan, workers can legally take childcare leave before their child reaches 1 year old. Japanese law also requires employers to take measures, such as reducing the worker's working hours, until the worker's child reaches 3 years old. Workers on childcare leave are entitled to receive 40% of their salary from Employment . On the other hand, if the collective agreement has a specific rule, employers are not necessarily required to give childcare leave to workers whose parents can raise the child under normal condition, for example the partner is not in her maternity leave.

**(Ration of male workers taking childcare leave)**

Female workers taking childcare leave account for 56.4% of all female workers who has bone a child in Japan, 16.0% in the United States, and about 12% in the United Kingdom. Almost all female Swedish workers take childcare leave. On the other hand, male Japanese workers taking childcare leave account for only 0.42% of all male workers whose spouse has born a child and represent only 2.4% of all workers taking childcare leave. While only 2.4% of male German workers take childcare leave, about 12% and 13.9% of male workers take childcare leave in the United Kingdom and the United States, respectively. As male Swedish workers account for a relatively high percentage (about 36%) of all workers taking childcare leave, Swedish men tend to be actively involved in childcare. (See Chart 18.)

Sweden shows a higher rate of male workers taking childcare leave because they have 60-day "paternal leave," which they cannot assign to their wife.

In the United States, workers can not take a long period of leave but are able to take leave in a flexible manner, such as leaves on a hourly basis. Male American workers also have easy access to childcare leave.

Nonetheless, fewer male workers take childcare leave than female workers even in nations where male workers account for a relatively higher rate of those taking leave. This is probably because most nations still have a wage gap between male and female workers although the gaps in these nations are smaller than in Japan.

Chart 18. Percentages of workers taking the childcare leave

Japan	The United States	Sweden	Germany	The United Kingdom
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• A total of 56.4% of female workers who give birth take the childcare leave, while 0.42% of male workers take leave.</li> <li>• Among all workers taking childcare leave, female workers account for 97.6%, and male workers account for 2.4%.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Among all workers take taking family and medical leave, 16.0% of female workers and 13.9% of male workers take leave to raise their children.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Almost all female workers take childcare leave.</li> <li>• Women account for 64% of all workers taking the childcare leave. Men account for 36%.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• A total of 95% of all eligible male and female workers take childcare leave. A total of 2.4% of male workers take childcare leave.</li> <li>• Women account for 98.5% of all workers taking childcare leave. Men account for 1.5%.</li> </ul>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• A total of 12% of male and female workers take childcare leave.</li> </ul>

- (Notes)
1. The data on Japan represent the 1999 data on corporations with 5 or more employees, which was cited from the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, "Female Employment Management Basic Survey" (1999 edition).
  2. The data on the United States represent the 2000 data, which were collected from Department of Labor, "2000 Survey of Employees."
  3. The data on Sweden are the 1999 data, which were collected from "Women and Men in Sweden - Facts and Figures 2000."
  4. The data on Germany are the 2000 data, which were collected from the German Federal Ministry for Family Affairs, Senior Citizens, Women and Youth, "Women in Germany" (2002 edition).
  5. The data on the United Kingdom are the 2002 data, which were collected from the Ministry for Trade and Industry, "The Government's Green Paper - Work and Parents: Competitiveness and Choice."

**(Availability of childcare service)**

In terms of the relationship between female labor participation rate and childcare service available for children aged 3 or younger, the nations that provide favorable childcare services and other childcare support tend to have a high female labor participation rate.

Sweden enjoys a high percentage of users of childcare services and a high female labor participation rate. This is because the nation provides favorable childcare leave scheme and other generous childcare supportive measures for working women.

Germany shows a low rate of users of childcare services, but it enjoys a high female labor participation rate because workers are able to take the childcare leave until their child reaches 3 years old.

The United States shows a high rate of users of childcare services and also provides various childcare services in the private sector. However, the United States has a lower female labor participation rate than Sweden because of insufficient childcare leave schemes.

**Section 4. Gender equality in family life**

1. The situation of the family

**(Decline in birthrate)**

The total fertility rate (TFR) is a major factor that influences family size. TFR in the United States is currently 2.13 and has been exceeding 2.0 since the 1990s. On the other hand, TFR in Sweden recovered to 2.0 around 1990, but it started to fall down again to 1.54 in 2000. The United Kingdom and South Korea are also seeing a decline in their TFR. TFR in Japan (1.3) is almost at the same level as Germany and the lowest among the surveyed nations. While TFR in Germany is bottoming out, Japan is still seeing a declining TFR.

Chart 19. Total fertility rates

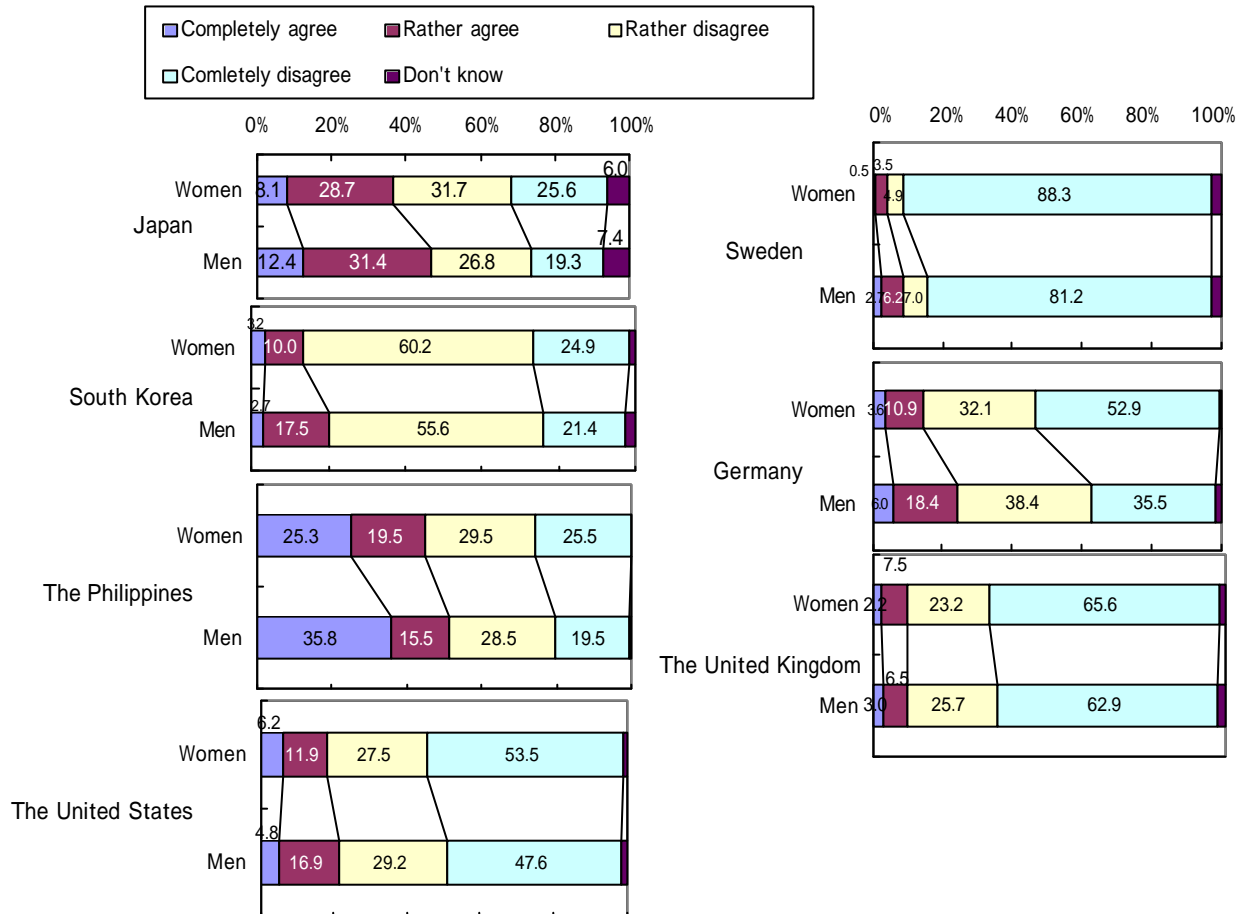
	Japan	South Korea	The Philippines	The United States	Sweden	Germany	The United Kingdom
1975	1.91	3.30	-	1.80	1.78	1.45	-
1980	1.75	2.70	-	1.84	1.68	1.46	-
1985	1.76	1.70	-	1.84	1.74	1.30	1.80
1990	1.54	1.59	4.30	2.08	2.13	1.45	1.85
1995	1.42	1.64	-	2.02	1.74	1.25	1.71
2000	1.36	1.47	3.40	2.13	1.54	1.36	1.65
2001	1.33	-	-	-	-	-	-

- (Notes)
1. The data were collected from the United Nations, "Demographic yearbook."
  3. Year 2000 data on the United States and South Korea were collected from these nations' related materials.
  4. The year 2000 data on Sweden, Germany and the United Kingdom were collected from "Council of Europe, Recent demographic development in Europe 2001."

**(Expected roles for the husband and wife)**

Chart 20. Awareness of traditional gender roles

("A husband should work outside, while a wife should be full-time homemaker")



(Note) These data were collected from the Cabinet Office, "International Comparative Survey on Gender Equality" (2002 edition) and "Opinion Survey on Gender Equality" (July 2002).

In Japan, more people tend to agree with the traditional gender roles in which "A husband should work outside, while a wife should stay home," than in the Western nations. (See Chart 20.)

In Japan, 36.8% of female respondents and 46.6% of male respondents agreed with such traditional gender roles, which means Japanese men believe in this idea more than women. More respondents in their 40s and 50s agree with it than those in their 20s and 30s. Fewer respondents gave a positive response than in the 1982 survey. This suggests that the traditional gender roles are getting weaker even among Japanese people, especially in the younger generation, but they still have a stronger sense of traditional gender roles than the Western people.

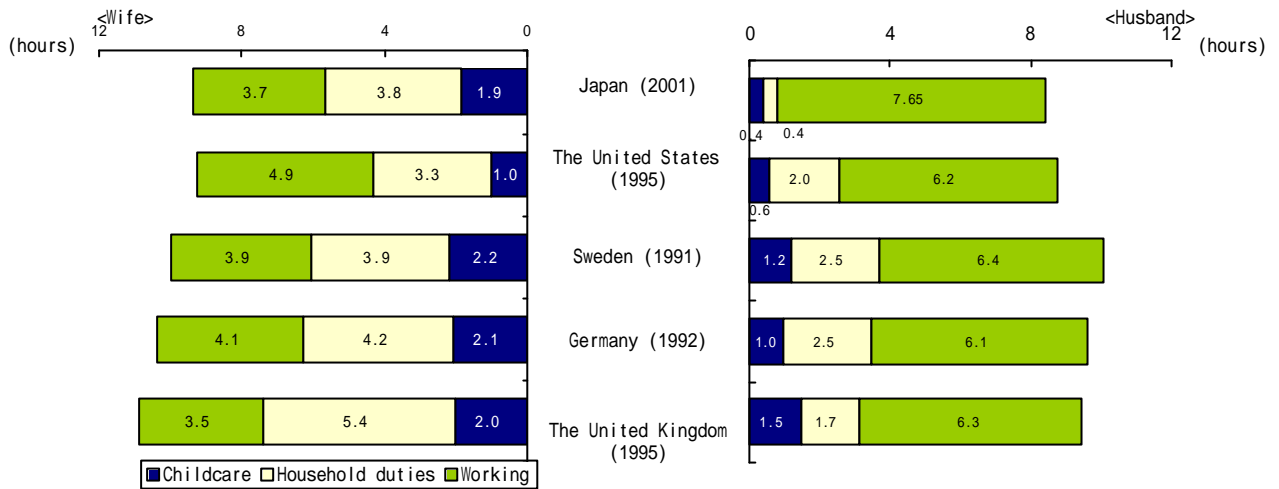
**(Husband's involvement in household duties)**

In Japan, a husband spends 0.8 hours per day on childcare and household duties (hereinafter, these duties are collectively referred to as "chores") in 2001 even if he has a small child. On the other hand, the Swedish husband spent 3.7 hours per day on chores in 1991; and the German husband spent 3.5 hours per day on chores in 1992. Japanese husbands spend less time on chores than Swedish or German husbands. (See Chart 21.)

The average Japanese husband with a small child spends 0.2 hours longer per day on chores in 2001, compared with 0.6 hours per day in 1996. At the same time, the average Japanese working mother with a small child also increased their chores time by 0.2 hours per day from 5.4 hours per day in 1996 to 5.6 hours per day in 2001.

There is still a large gap (4.8 hours) in chores hours between men and women in Japan.

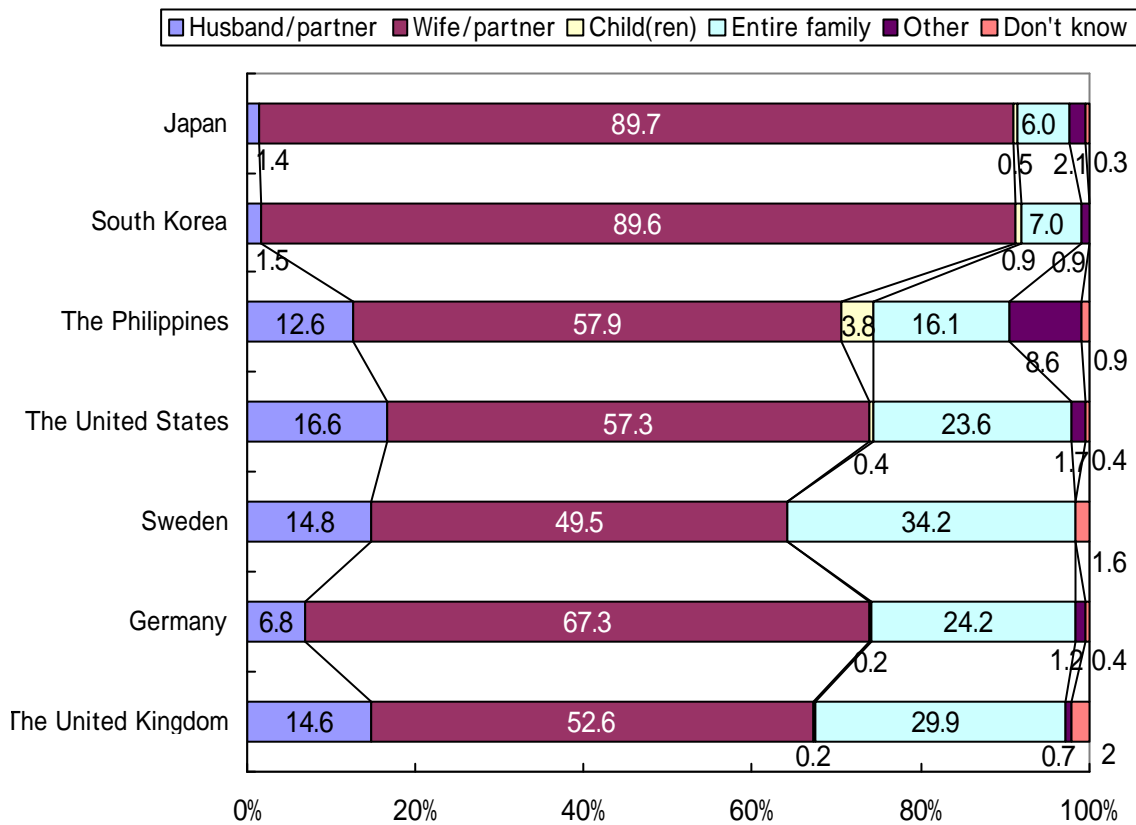
Chart 21. International comparison of how many hours husband and wife spend on childcare, household duties and working when they have a small child



- (Notes)
1. Data The data were collected from OECD, "Employment Outlook 2001" and the Ministry of Public Management, Home Affairs, Posts and Telecommunications, "Survey on Time Use and Leisure Activities" (2001 edition).
  2. In this chart, the model couple is assumed to have a child younger than 5 years old (or, younger than 6 years old in the case of Japan).
  3. The wife is assumed to be a full-time worker (or, a wife with occupation a job in the case of Japan). The figures for the husband are the average for all husbands.
  4. In terms of other nations than Japan, "household duties" means "other charge-free labors" in "Employment Outlook 2001."
  5. The figures for "household duties" in Japan represent the total hours spent on for "household duties," "Working" in the other nations means "paid labor" as mentioned in "Employment Outlook 2001."

In Japan, meal preparation falls to the wife (89.7%), the husband (1.4%) or all family members (6.0%). On the other hand, the percentage is different in the foreign nations because meal preparation falls to the wife (49.5% in Sweden, 52.6% in the U.K.), the husband (14.8% in Sweden, 14.6% in the U.K.) or all family members (34.2% in Sweden, 29.9% in the U.K.). Meal preparation tends to be an exclusive task for wives in Japan, while all family members tend to jointly work on meal preparation in the Western nations (Chart 22).

Chart 22. Burden-sharing for household chores (meal preparation)

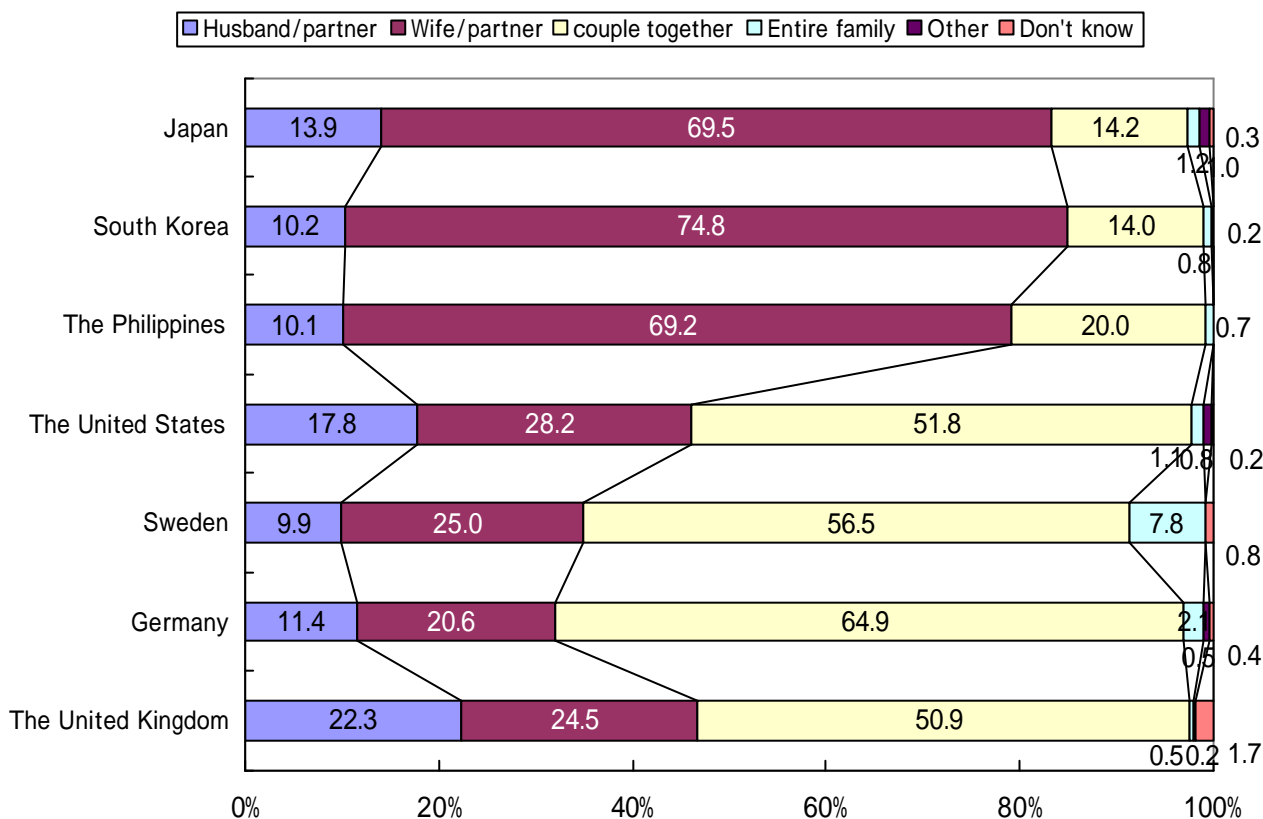


(Note) The data were collected from the Cabinet Office, "International Comparative Survey on Gender Equality" (2002 edition) and "Opinion Survey on Gender Equality" (July 2002).

**(Final decision-maker on household budget)**

In Japan, the household budget manager is the wife (69.5%), the husband (13.9%) or both the husband and wife (14.2%). On the other hand, in Sweden and Germany, the task falls to the wife (25.0% in Sweden, 20.6% in Germany), the husband (9.9% in Sweden, 11.4% in the Germany) and the both husband and wife (56.5% in Sweden, 64.9% in Germany). The wife tends to handle family finances in Japan, while the husband and wife are usually joint decision-makers on household budgets in Sweden and Germany (Chart 23).

Chart 23. Final decision maker on household budget

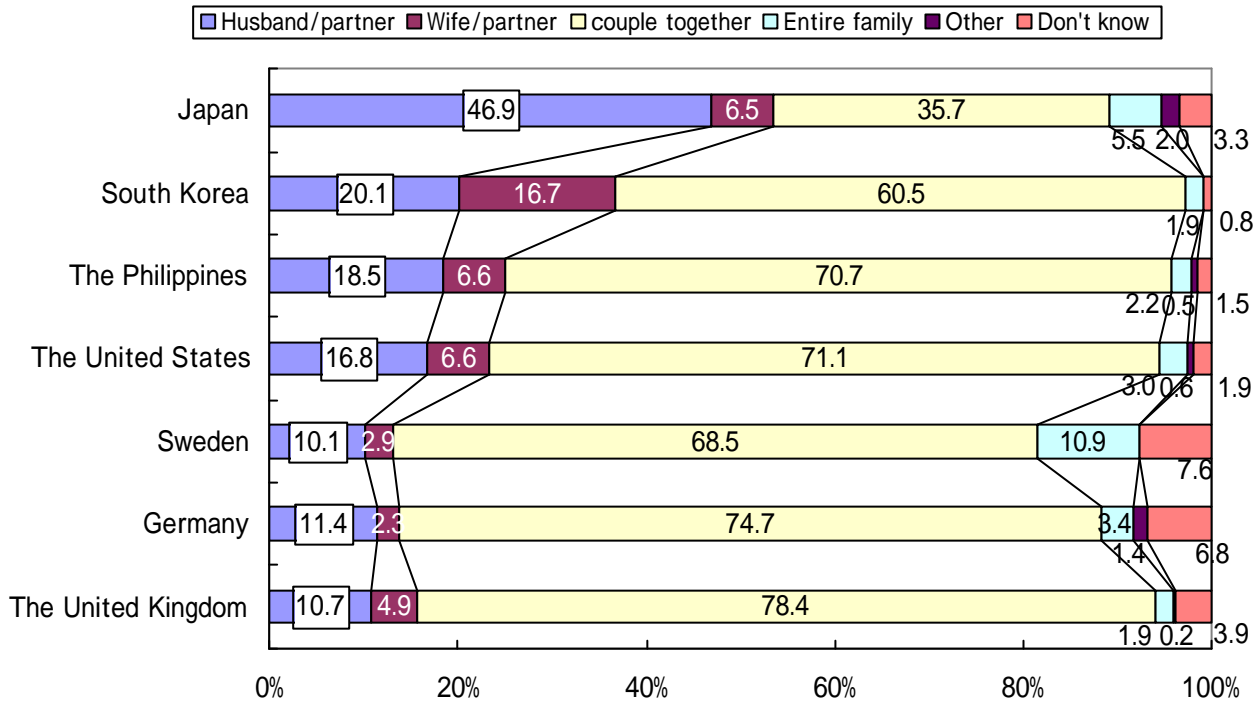


(Note) The data were collected from the "International Comparative Survey on Gender Equality" (2002 edition) and the "Opinion Survey on Gender Equality" (July 2002).



When buying real estate, the final decision-maker in the household is the wife (6.5%), the husband (46.9%) or both the husband and wife (35.7%) in Japan. On the other hand, in Sweden and Germany, the final decision-maker is the wife (2.9% in Sweden, 2.3% in Germany), the husband (10.1% in Sweden, 11.4% in Germany) or both the husband and wife (68.5% in Sweden, 74.7% in Germany). Unlike household budget management, the husband is a powerful decision-maker in Japanese households in buying real estate. (Chart 24).

Chart 24. Final decision-maker in buying real property



(Note) The data were collected from the Cabinet Office, "International Comparative Survey on Gender Equality" (2002 edition) and "Opinion Survey on Gender Equality" (July 2002).

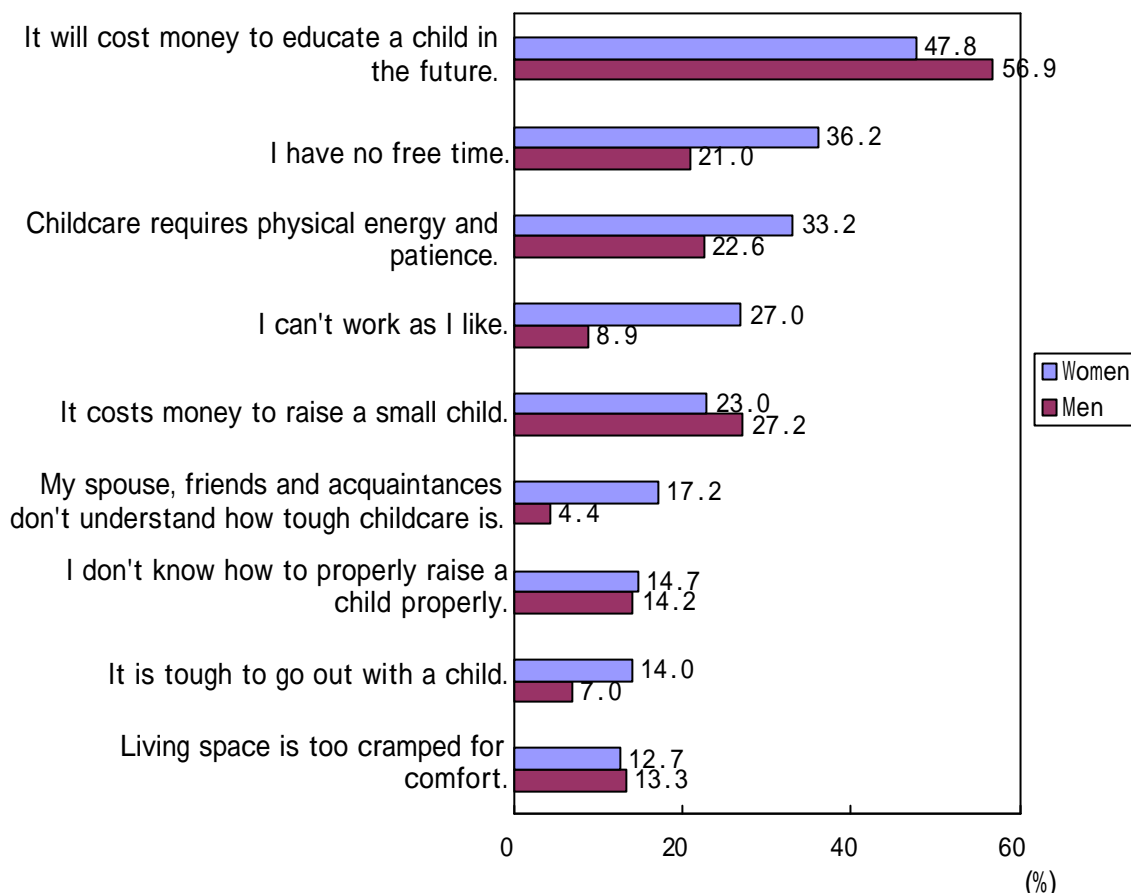
In this context, the husband tends to be the final decision-maker for expensive purchases in Japan, while both the husband and wife tend to make joint decisions for expensive purchases in the Western nations and Philippines.

## 2. Situations regarding childcare

### (Consciousness of childcare)

In an "Opinion Survey on Social Consciousness" (December 2002), the Cabinet Office asked respondents about negative experiences in raising children. Economic difficulty in raising a child accounts for the largest percentage of all answer options. 27.0% of female respondents and 8.9% of male respondents feel that "I can't work as I like to." A total of 17.2% of female respondents and 4.4% of male respondents think, "Other people including my spouse don't understand how tough childcare is." There is significant perception gap between men and women. (See Chart 25.)

Chart 25. Negative experiences in raising children



(Note) The data were collected from the Cabinet Office, "Opinion Survey on Social Consciousness" (December 2002).

**(Social support for childcare)**

The Japanese labor market does not provide a flexible working style, partly because people in general still adhere to traditional gender role stereotypes. Although Japan legally has favorable childcare leave schemes, male workers are still hesitant to take childcare leave.

In Japan, 25,000 children are still on waiting lists of childcare centers as of April 2002. In Japan, childcare centers only accept 16% of children of 3 years old or younger, which is a much lower percentage than in Sweden (41%) that has almost no children on waiting lists of childcare centers. Compared with foreign nations, Japan provides a less favorable child subsidy, which is 5,000 yen for the first and second children and 10,000 yen for the third child and subsequent children. (See Chart 26.)

In this context, Japan does not provide favorable social support programs for childcare. It is necessary to establish an appropriate environment that will encourage female workers to raise their children more easily.

Chart 26. Childcare schemes in the surveyed nations

		Japan	The United States	Sweden	Germany	The United Kingdom
Childcare services	Types, users and capacity of major childcare services for small children	Childcare center: 552,000 children (younger than 3) (1,828,000 children under school age) (As of April 2001)	Childcare centers: 1.82 million children Nursery school: 1.15 million children (under school age) Home childcare: 2.14 million children (under school age) in 1993 (Note) There is no standardized nationwide scheme.	Childcare center: 93,000 children (younger than 3) Home-type childcare: 25,000 children (younger than 3) in 1997.	Childcare center: 151,100 children (younger than 3) Special childcare service: unknown (Note) There is no standardized nationwide scheme.	Childcare center: 194,000 children (younger than 5) Special childcare: 365,000 (under school age). More than a half of these children are younger than 5.
	Responsible organization, position of home childcare	The government grants necessary expenses to municipalities that provide childcare services.	Some childcare centers are certified by the state government or other public organizations, but other are not.	Communes are responsible for providing childcare services. (There is no gap with childcare center.)	Some state governments grant subsidies for special childcare service users.	Childcare centers need to register with the local government.
	Service usage	Some municipalities provide sufficient service, but others do not. Childcare centers accept 16% of 3-year-old or younger children.	Accepted children as a percentage of all children aged 5 or younger who have (married and) working mothers Childcare center: 18% Nursery school: 12% Home childcare: 22% (Other childcare styles include childcare services provided by grandparents or babysitters.)	Almost all children are accepted. Accepted children as a percentage of all children aged 3 or younger Childcare center and home-type childcare service: 41%	Former West Germany does not have sufficient childcare centers. Capacity of childcare centers as a percentage of all children aged 3 or younger: 6% (Former West Germany: 2%; Former East Germany: 41%)	Childcare services are insufficient. Capacity of childcare centers and special childcare services as a percentage of all children aged 5 or younger: a little more than 10%
Child allowance	Eligible persons and income limitation	From the first child. Until the child reaches school age. There is an income limitation.	No child allowance scheme available.	From the first child. The child must be younger than 16 in principle. There is no income limitation.	From the first child. The child must be younger than 18 in principle. There is no income limitation in principle.	From the first child. The child must be younger than 16 in principle. There is no income limitation.
	Monthly payable amount	First child: 5,000 yen Second child: 5,000 yen Third child and subsequent children: 10,000 yen	-	First and second children: 750 krone (11,000 yen) Third child: 950 krone (14,000 yen) Fourth child: 1,350 krone (20,000 yen) Fifth and subsequent children: 1,500 krone (22,000 yen)	First child: 250 marks (17,000 yen) Second child: 250 marks (17,000 yen) Third child: 300 marks (20,000 yen) Fourth and subsequent children: 350 marks (23,000 yen)	First child: 62.4 pounds (12,000 yen) Second and subsequent children: 41.6 pounds (8,000 yen) Child allowance is granted on a weekly basis.

(Note) The data were collected from the Cabinet Office, "Report on Lifestyle Selection and Taxation, Social Security and Employment Systems" (2002 edition).

**Chapter 1. Women's participation in policy decision-making processes**

**(Increase in the rate of female parliamentary members.)**

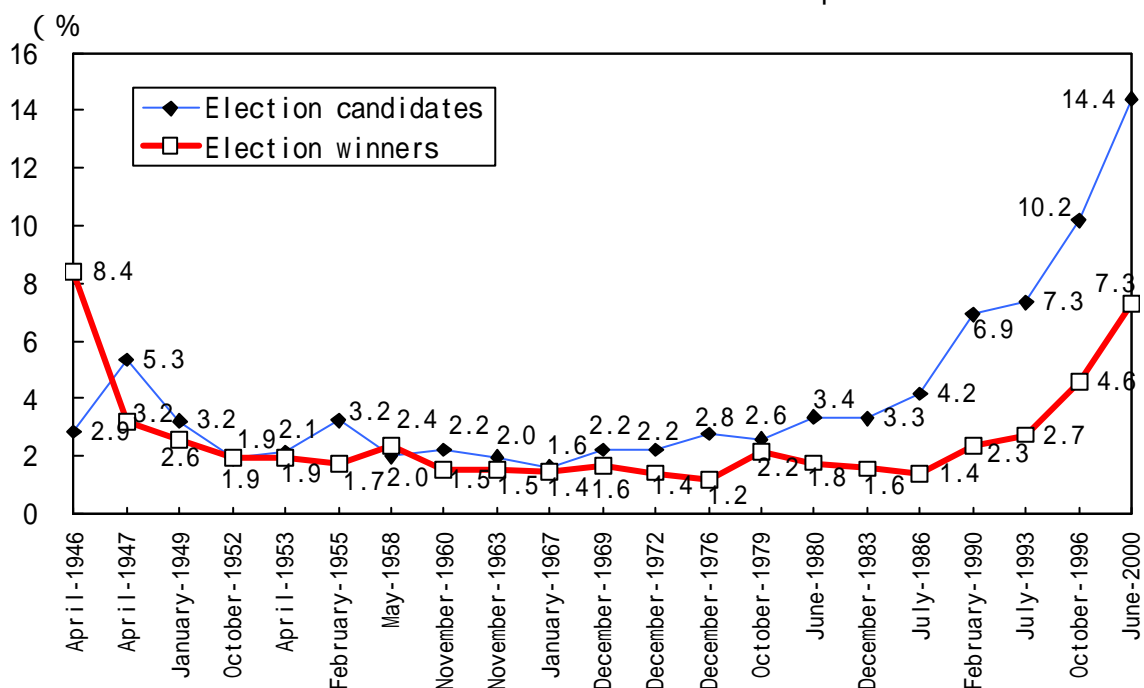
Except for the certain period immediately after WWII, women accounted for 1% to 2% of all household members up to 1986 (the 38th election) in Japan's House of Representatives. After the Japanese Diet introduced a mixture of single-seat constituencies and proportional representation in 1996 (for the 41st election), the percentage of female Diet members significantly increased. They are still increasing and currently occupy 34 seats, or 7.1%, in January 2003.

The number of female members has been also increasing in the House of Councilors from 4.0% in 1947 (the 1st election). In 1989 (the 15th election), the number of female members significantly increased from 8.7% to 13.1%. The number increased further to 38 (15.4%) in January 2003.

**(Increase in the rate of female candidates and election winners.)**

Since 1960 (the 29th election), the rate of female election candidates has exceeded that of female election winners in the House of Representatives. In addition, the numbers of female Diet member candidates and female election winners have been both increasing. In particular, women accounted for 14.4% of election candidates and 7.3% of election winners in the June 2000 election, which represent a significant increase from 10.2% of candidates and 4.6% of election winners in the October 1996 election (Chart 27).

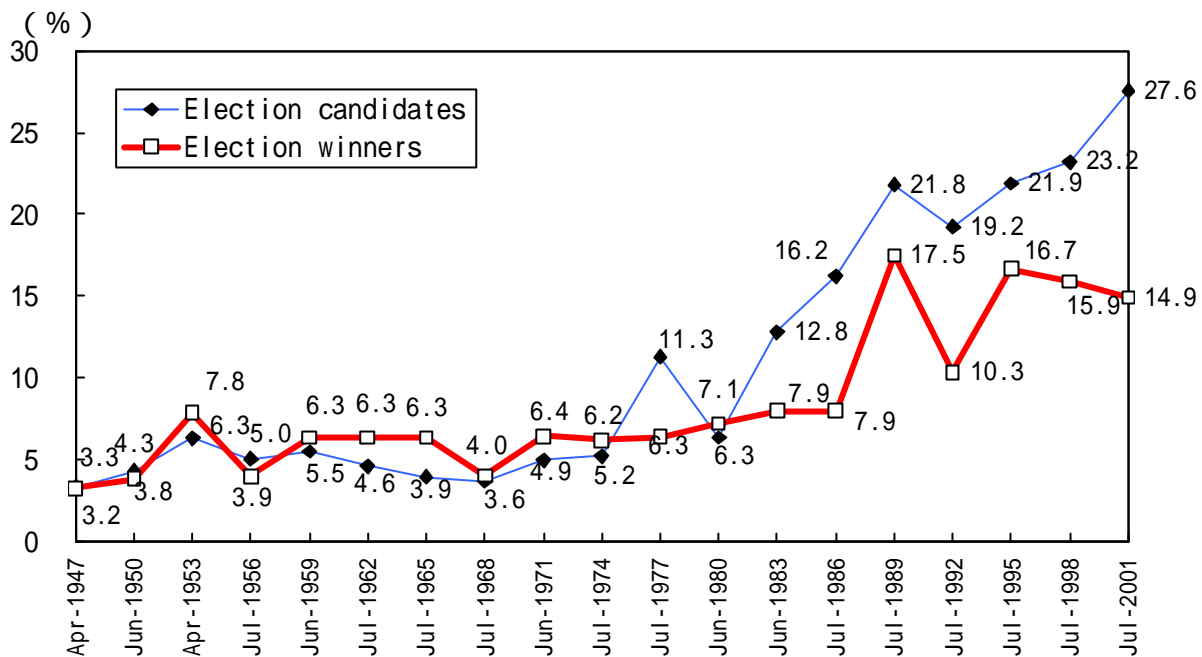
Chart 27. Percentages of female candidates and female election winners in House of Representatives



(Note) The data were collected from documents of the Ministry of Public Management, Home Affairs, Posts and Telecommunications.

In the House of Councilors, women have been accounting for a steadily larger percentage of election candidates since 1983 (the 13th election). In 2001 (the 19th election), women accounted for 27.6% of election candidates, a significant increase from 23.2% in 1998 (the 18th election). On the other hand, female election winners accounted for 14.9% of all election winners in 2001 (the 19th election), a slight decrease from the 1995 election (the 17th election). (See Chart 28.)

Chart 28. Percentages of female candidates and female election winners in House of Councilors



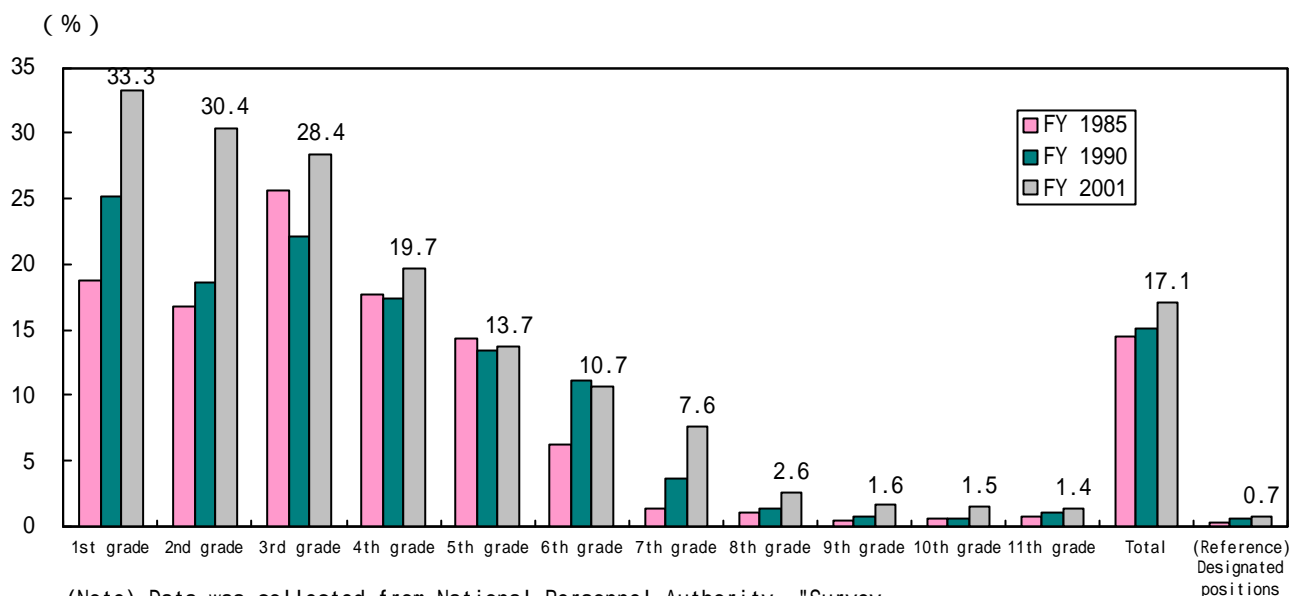
(Note) The data were collected from documents of the Ministry of Public Management, Home Affairs, Posts and Telecommunications.

Both in the House of Representatives and in the House of Councilors, female Diet members have accounted for a larger rate in the long term. The number of female candidates is increasing more rapidly than female election winners. This phenomenon suggests women's greater willingness to actively participate in the political arena.

**(Long-term increase in the rate of female national government employees.)**

Since 1985, women have been accounting for a larger percentage of national government employees covered by a "salary schedule for administrative services (I)." In FY2001, women account for a third (33.3%) of 1st grade public employees who are in charge of routine work, while the female rate grows smaller for higher positions. Female public employees account for 10% of 4th to 6th grades employees (section chief in ministry headquarters) and only 1% of 9th to 11th grades (director or deputy director in ministry headquarters). Female public employees account for significantly different rates, depending on job status (Chart 29).

Chart 29. Rate of female national government public employees by salary grade  
(Salary schedule for administrative services (I))



(Note) Data was collected from National Personnel Authority, "Survey Report on Recruitment of National Government General Public Servants."

(Note) Data was collected from National Personnel Authority, "Survey Recruitment Report on Regular Service of National Government Employees."

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

At the end of 2002, the rate of female assemblypersons is 20.2% in Tokyo ward councils, which represents the largest percentage. They account for 14.9% in cabinet-order designated city councils, 10.8% in city councils, 5.8% in prefecture assemblies, and 4.9% in town councils. Female local assembly members tend to account for a higher rate in metropolitan areas.

**(Rate of female local government employees)**

Women account for 4.5% of prefectural government officials and 5.9% of cabinet-order designated city officials. Their number has been increasing especially in cabinet-order designated cities since 1998.

**(Human development indices)**

According to the "Human Development Report" published by the United Nations Development Program(UNDP) in 2002, Japan was ranked the 9th for HDI (Human Development Index) among 173 nations and 11th for GDI (Gender Development Index) among 146 nations. For GEM (Gender Empowerment Measure), Japan stood 32nd among 66 nations. Japan occupies very much lower rank for GEM than for HDI and GDI. Singapore and Poland had accounted for lower GEM ranks than Japan in last year's report, but they showed significant improvements in their GEM. This resulted in Japan's slightly lower GEM rank from 31st to 32nd.

Note:

**HDI (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 of three basic factors “the ability to live a long healthy life”, “knowledge” and “living standards worthy of humans”. In concrete terms, it is calculated using average life expectancy, the standard of education (adult literacy rate and school attendance rate) and adjusted income per capita.

**GDI (Gender-Related Development Index)**

Like the HDI, the GDI measures the level of achievement of basic human abilities, but in doing so, it also considers inequalities in the levels of achievement of men and women.

Like the HDI, it is also calculated using average life expectancy, the standard of education and income per capita, but penalties corresponding to gender differences are deducted, and it can be thought of as an “HDI adjusted for gender inequalities”.

Gender can be defined as sexual differences created by social and cultural factors. It is distinguishable from sex, which refers to biological sexual differences.

**GEM (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 expansion of human abilities, the GEM focuses on whether people are able to use these abilities to take advantage of various opportunities throughout their lives.

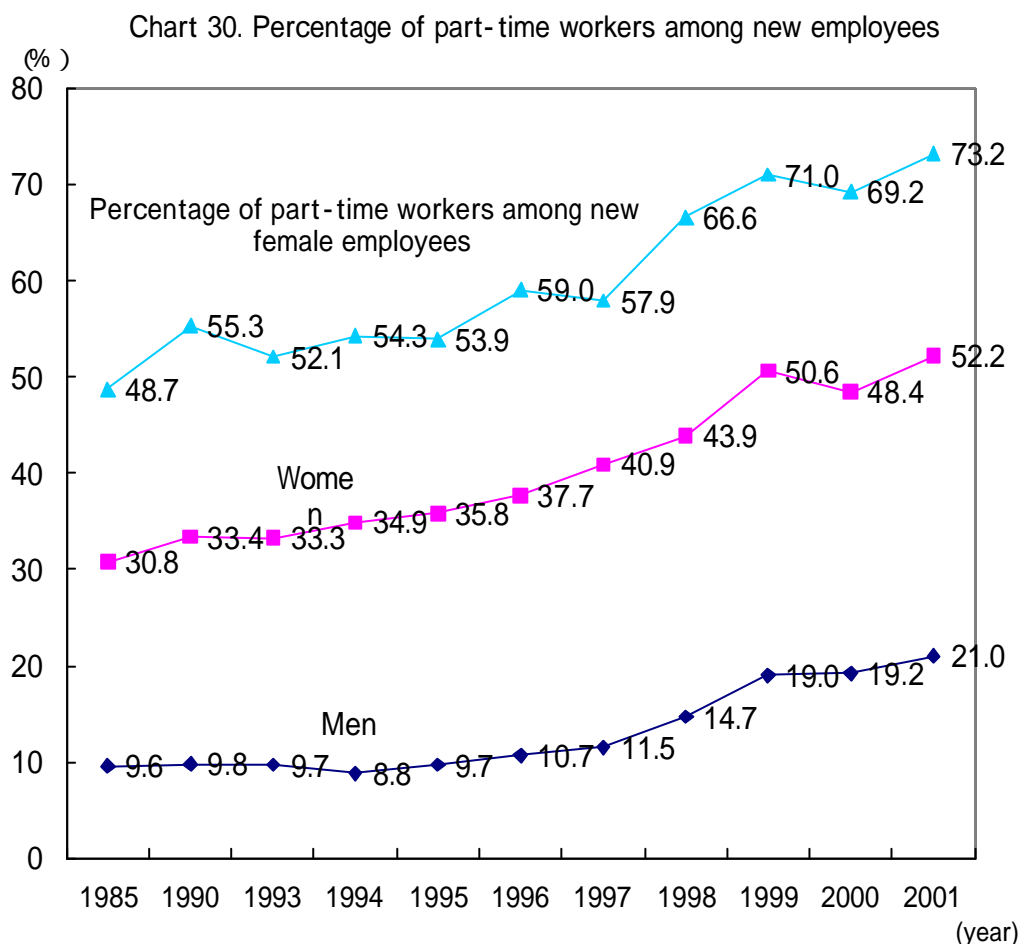
In concrete terms, it is calculated using women’s income, the percentage of women holding professional and technical posts, the percentage of women holding administrative or managerial posts and the percentage of women Diet members.

The UNDP has advised that a new method for calculating data was adopted for the 1999 report onwards, and comparison cannot be made with values listed in the reports prior to and including the 1998 report.

## Chapter 2 Gender equality in labor participation

### (Part-time workers account for a higher percentage among new male and female employees.)

More new male and female employees take part-time positions when they enter the labor market. Part-time workers account for 50% of new female employees, while about 20% of new male employees take part-time positions. More than 70% of female new employees are part-time workers. ("New employee" means workers who have not worked for one year before employment. It excludes non-working new university graduates.) This suggests the difficulty of finding full-time positions (Chart 30).



(Notes)

1. The data were collected from the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, "Survey on Employment Trends."

2. Percentage of part-time workers among new female employees =  $\frac{\text{(Newly hired female part-time workers from non-working women)}}{\text{(Newly hired workers from non-working women)}} \times 100$

### (Female part-time workers are seeking full-time work.)

According to Japan Institute of Workers' Evolution, "Survey on Diversified Working Styles" (2001 edition), many female part-time workers in their 20s take part-time positions because they "could not find a suitable full-time job". Many female part-time workers in their 30s to 50s "intentionally chose a part-time work."

On the other hand, female part-time workers who "would have sought full-time positions if they didn't have a child, an aged relative or chores around the house" account for 55.6% aged 30 to 34, 47.5% aged 35 to 39 and 49.7% aged 40 to 44. Female part-time workers with young children tend to choose this answer option.



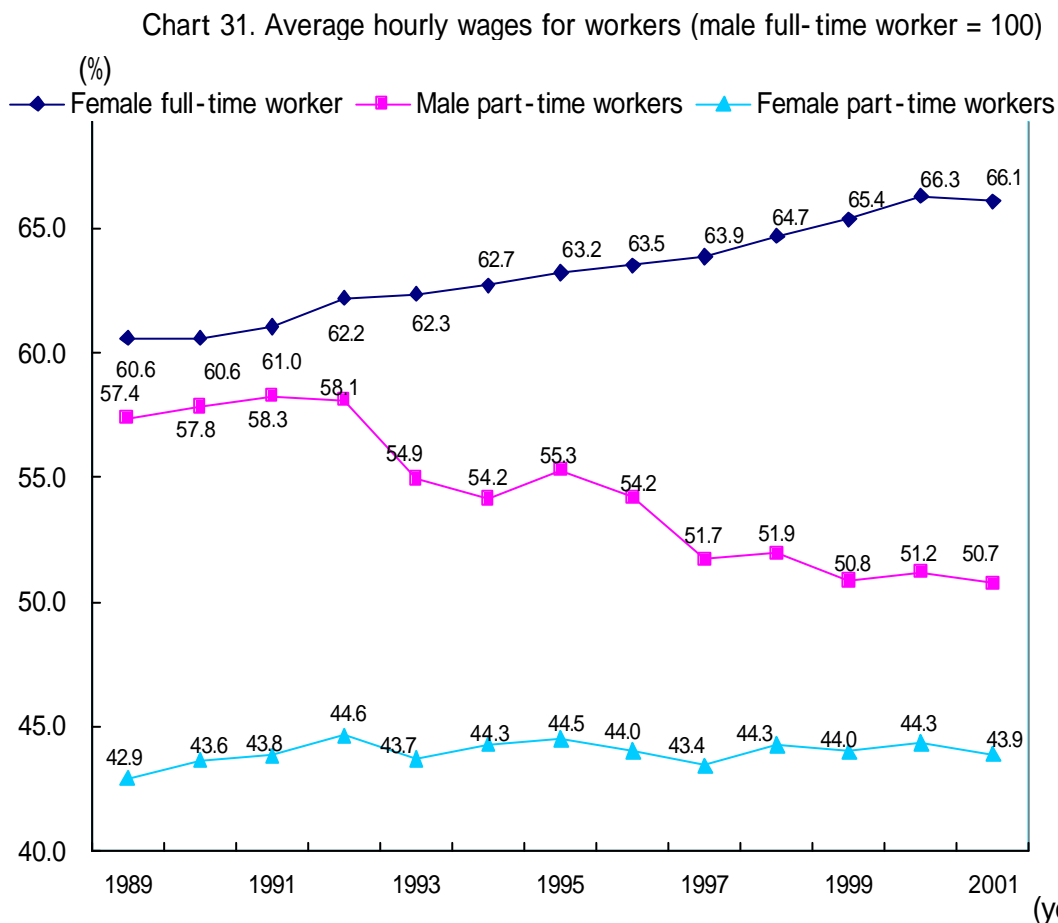
**(Wage gap is shrinking between male and female workers but expanding between part-time workers and full-time workers.)**

According to the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, "Annual Report on Monthly Labor Survey" (2001 edition), an average regular worker (a full-time employee and a part-time worker) earns a monthly salary of 440,196 yen (male worker) and 220,727 yen (female worker). Female workers have only half the salary of regular male workers. This gap has not shrunk significantly since 1989.

The hourly wage for a female full-time worker is 66.1% that of male full-time worker as of 2001. There is still a significant wage gap between male and female full-time workers, but the gap is gradually shrinking (Chart 31).

On the other hand, the wage gap is expanding between full-time workers and part-time workers. (Hereinafter, "part-time worker" means an employee who has fewer working hours a day and works fewer days in a week than a full-time worker.) The hourly wages for female part-time workers and for male part-time workers are only 43.9% and 50.7% that of male full-time workers. Meanwhile, the wage gap is gradually shrinking between female and male part-time workers. In 2001, a female part-time worker's hourly wage is 86.5% of a male part-time worker's hourly wage.

It is necessary to address the wage gap between part-time workers and full-time workers for both genders.

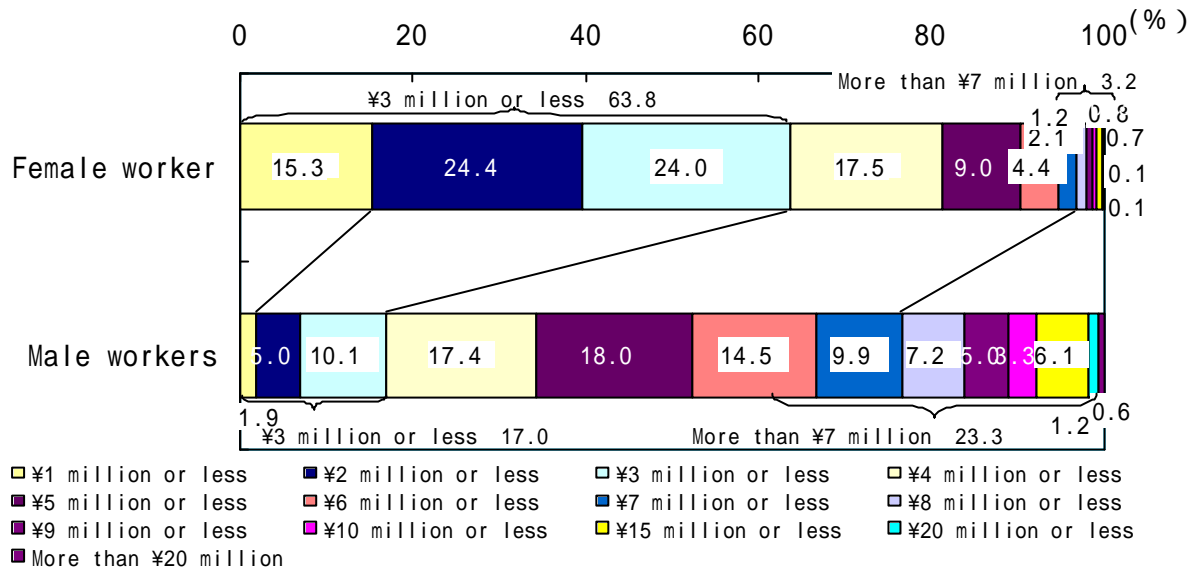


(Note) The data were collected from the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, "Basic Survey on Wage Structure."

**Large gender disparities in income )**

There is a significant income gap between male and female workers. Among female salaried workers who work for a whole year, 63.8% earn ¥3 million or less a year (male workers: 17.0%); and 15.3% make ¥1 million or less a year (male workers: 1.9%). Only 3.2% of them make more than ¥7 million a year (male workers: 23.3%). (See Chart 32.)

Chart 32. Composition of salaried workers by income - bracket



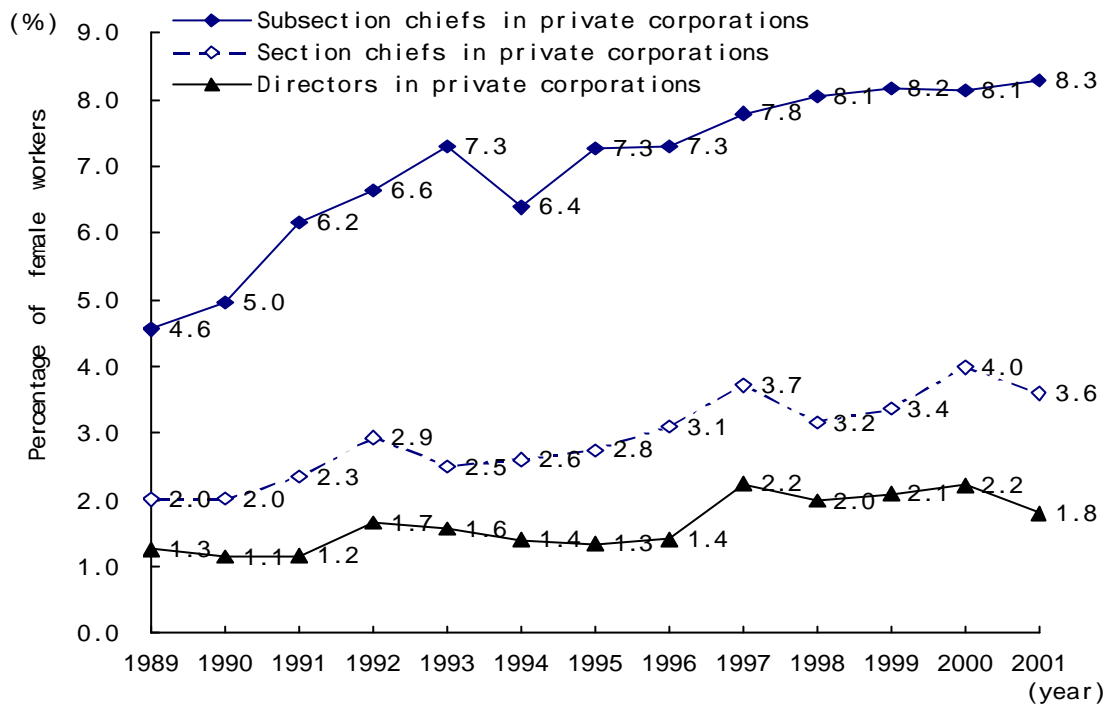
(Note) The data were collected from the National Tax Agency, "Statistic Survey on Salary in the Private Sector" (2001 edition).

**(Female managerial-level workers account for a larger percentage.)**

Generally, the percentage of female managerial-level workers has been increasing.

The percentage of female subsection chiefs has been rising since 1976. Women accounted for 8.3% of subsection chiefs in 2001. However, the percentage of female managerial-level workers is still low in the higher positions. Women account for 3.6% of section chiefs and 1.8% of directors (Chart 33).

Chart 33. Percentage of female managerial-level workers by job title

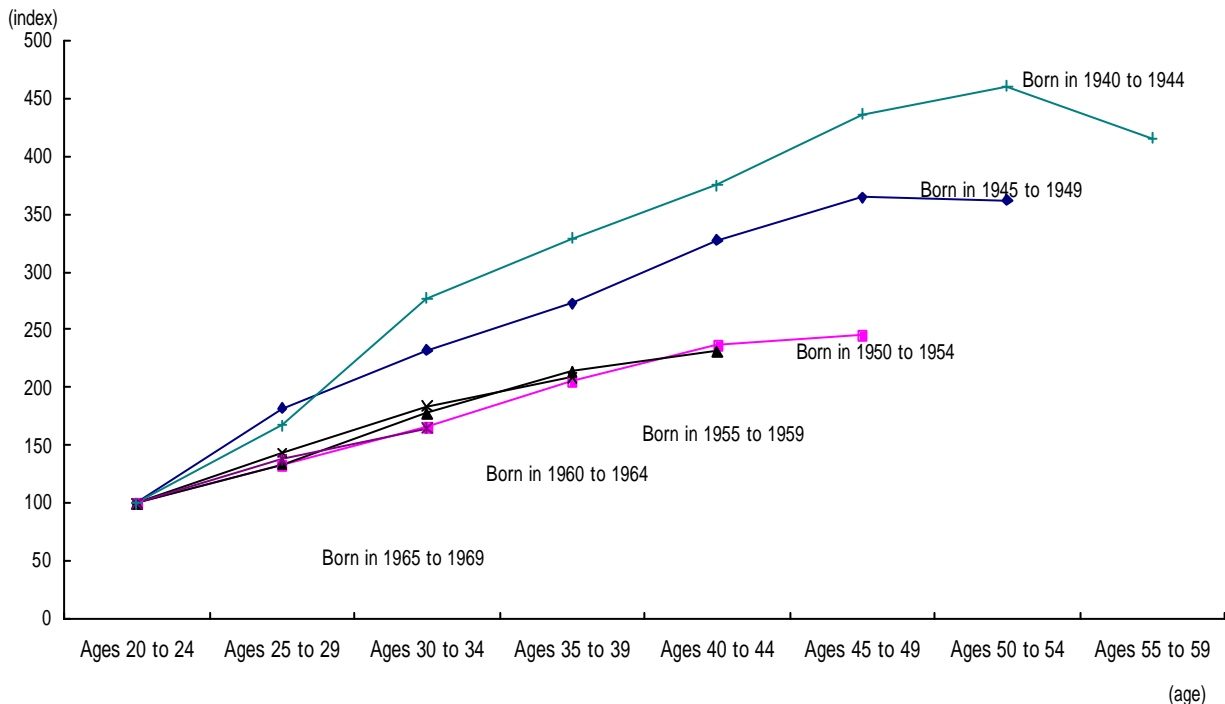


(Note) The data were collected from the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, "Basic Survey on Wage Structure."

**(Wage structure for male workers is becoming less seniority-oriented.)**

Younger male workers see a smaller wage hike based on their seniority. There is a significant gap between male workers in their mid 30s (born between 1965 and 1969) and those in their late 50s and 60s (born between 1940 and 1944). (See Chart 34.)

Chart 34. Male worker's wage curve (by cohort) in all educational backgrounds and all industry sizes



(Notes) 1. The data were collected from the Ministry of Health, Labor and Welfare, "Basic Survey on Wage Structure" (annual report) and the Ministry of Public Management, Home Affairs, Posts and Telecommunications, "Consumer Price Index"  
 2. Figures represent real wages as percentage to cash salary and bonus benefit paid for workers of ages 20 to 24.

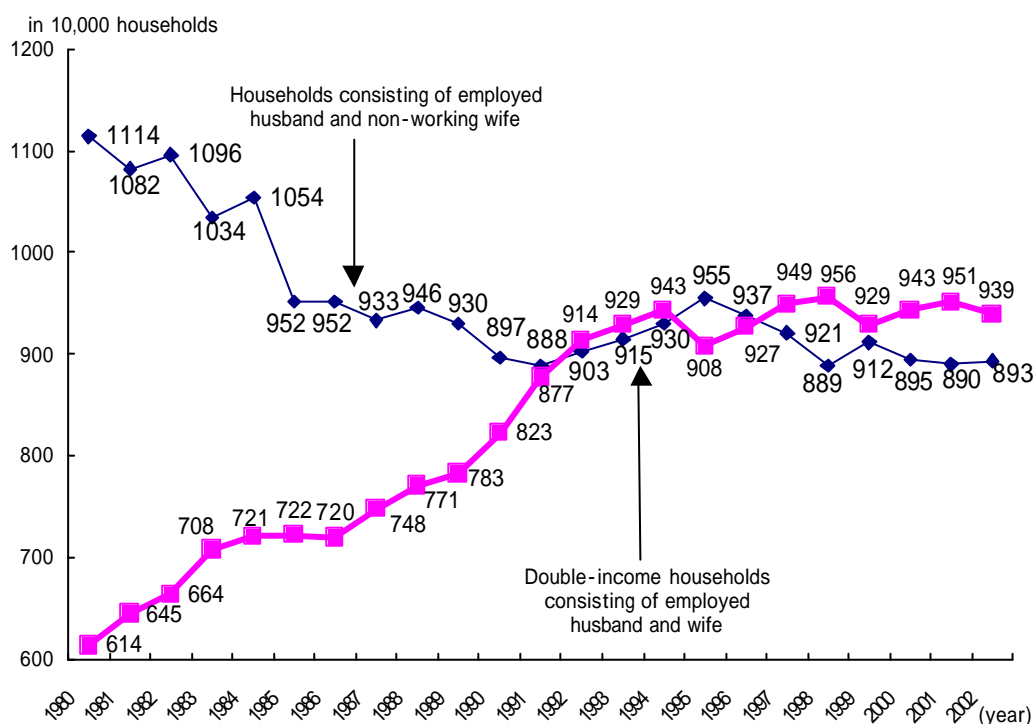
**(The number of double-income households is increasing.)**

The number of double-income households has been increasing since 1980 due to the collapse of lifetime employment practice and sluggish income hike. Since 1997, the number of double-income households has exceeded that of single-income households that consist of an income-earning husband and a non-working wife (Chart 35).

According to an "Opinion Survey on Gender Equality" (July 2002), married women have jobs mainly because they have to "supplement the family budget" (42.7%) and "maintain the standard of living" (39.7%).

Increasingly Japanese people are maintaining their standard of living by having double income-earning households.

Chart 35. The number of double-income households



- (Notes)
1. The data were collected from the Ministry of Public Management, Home Affairs, Posts and Telecommunications, "Labour Force Special Survey" and "Labour Force Survey."
  2. A "Household consisting of employed husband and non-working wife" has a working husband and a non-working wife (i.e., a non-working or jobless wife).
  3. A "Double-income household" has a husband and wife who are both employed.
  4. Workers in the agro-forestry industry and family member workers are excluded from the chart.

### ***Chapter 3. Balancing career and childcare***

#### **(About 70% of female workers leave their jobs due to childbirth.)**

According to the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, the "First Profile Survey on New-Born Children in the 21st Century" (2001-2002 edition), 67.4% of workingwomen (i.e., women who had a job one year before childbirth) leave their jobs and stay at home after giving birth to their first baby. A total of 59.5% of female full-time workers leave their jobs after giving birth to their first child. This suggests that many female workers quit their jobs due to childbirth in Japan.

#### **(Japanese corporations and fathers are uninterested in taking childcare leave.)**

The same survey revealed that 80.2% of working mothers took or would take the childcare leave, while a mere 0.7% of male workers took or would take the childcare leave. A total of 37.0% of male workers answered "there is a system of childcare leave in my office, but will not take it" because "their workplace atmosphere or duty assignments prevents me from taking childcare leave." A total of 29.7% of male workers "don't know whether or not their employers provide childcare leave." A total of 31.1% of male workers say, "there is not a system of childcare leave." Legally speaking, because the Child Care and Family Care Leave Law is applicable to all companies in Japan, workers are able to apply for childcare leave. The working environment in Japanese companies prevents male workers from taking childcare leave. In addition, Japanese fathers are hesitant to take childcare leave to fulfill their responsibilities as fathers. They are uninterested in legal frameworks or internal corporate schemes for childcare leave.

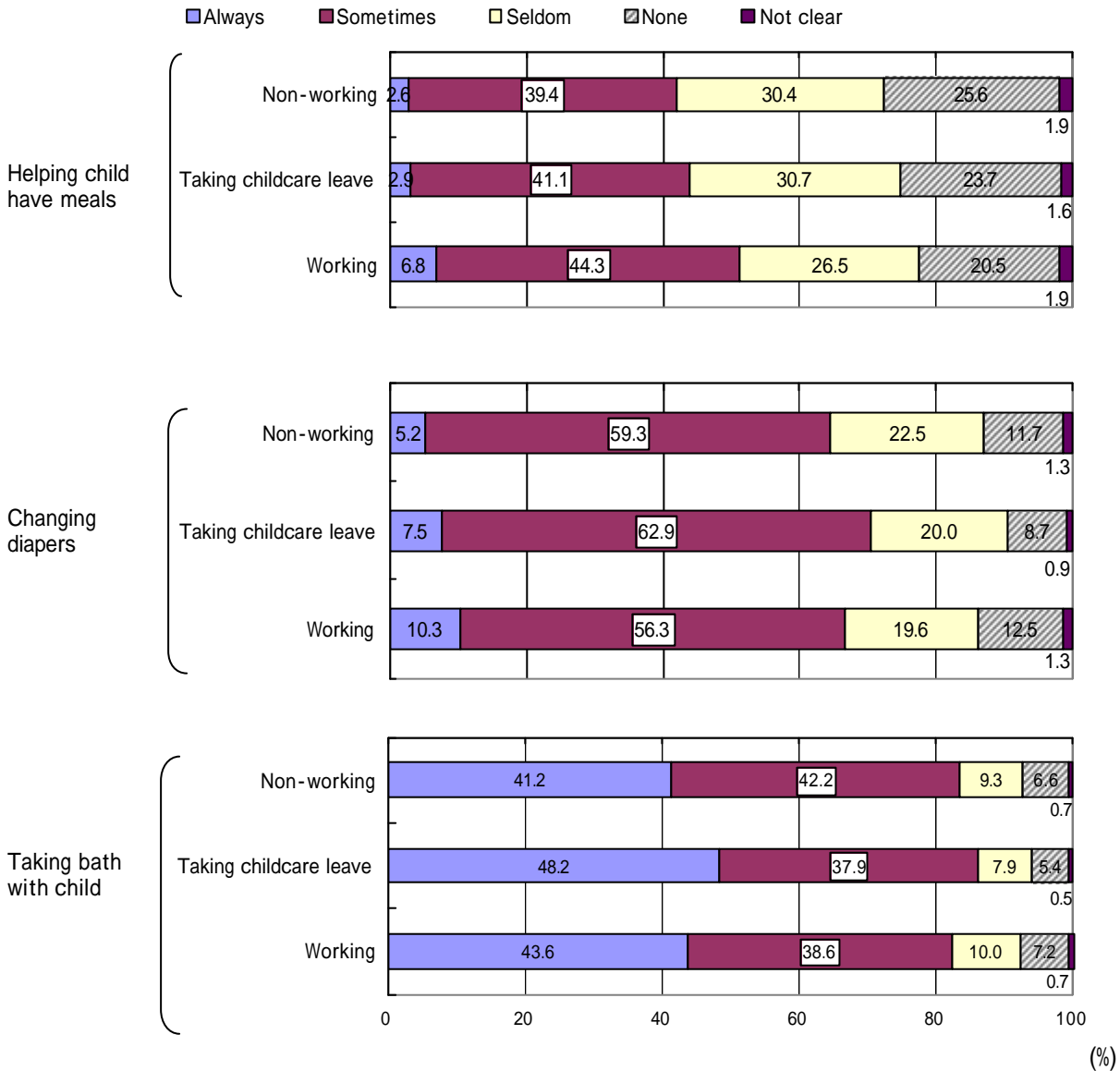
#### **(Difficulty in continuing to work due to heavy childcare duties)**

The survey also revealed the typical Japanese father's roles in childcare duties. Fathers who "take a bath with their child" account for the largest percentage. If the mother also has a job, fathers who "always" take a bath with their child account for a slightly higher percentage. (See Chart 36.)

Generally, Japanese fathers are not cooperative in childcare duties, irrespective of their wives' job situation.

Chart 36. Japanese father's childcare duties by wife's job category

(Father's childcare duty) (Wife's job category)

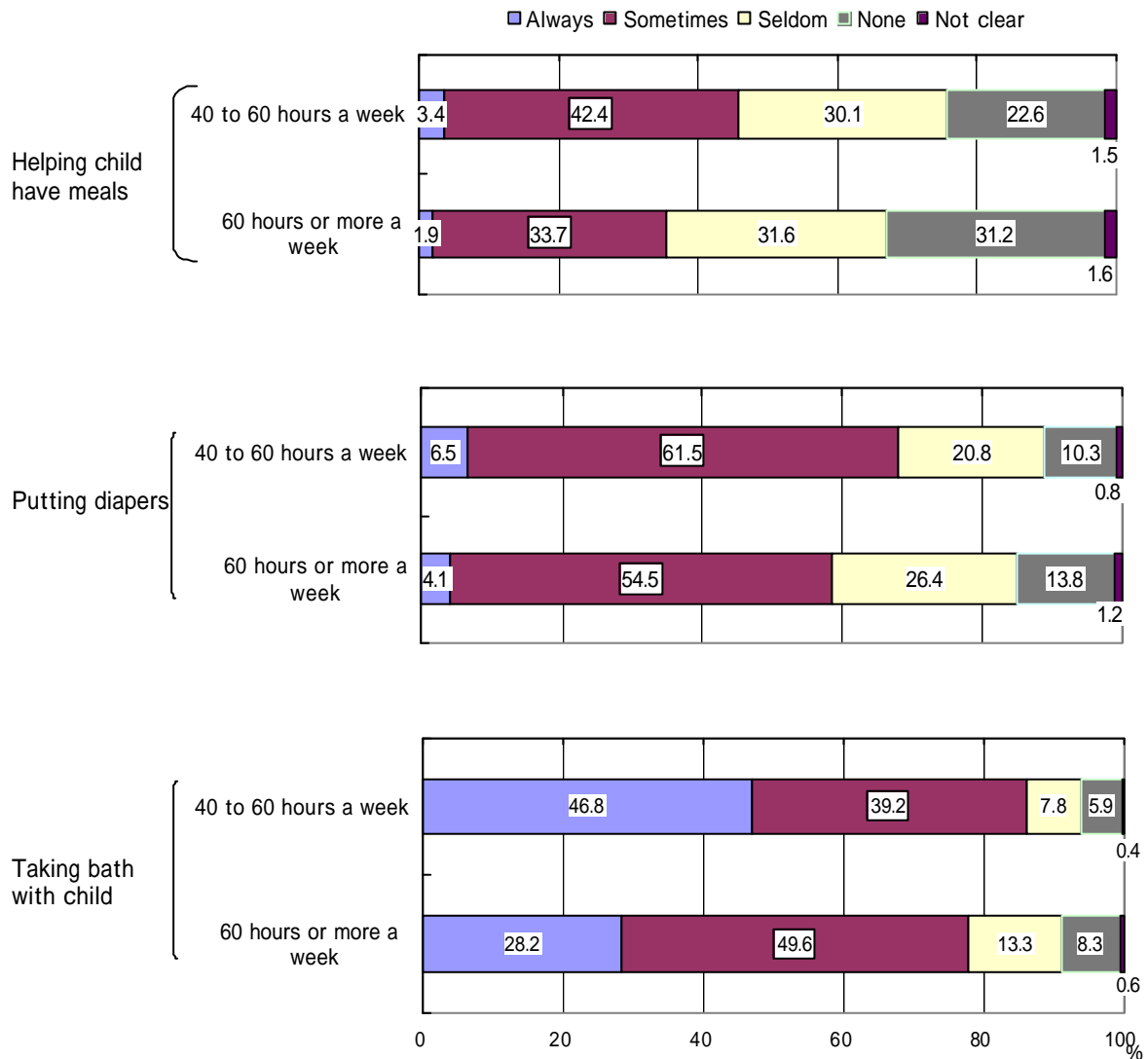


- (Notes)
1. The data were collected from the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, "First Profile Survey on New-Born Children in the 21st Century."
  2. Fathers, mothers and children are assumed to live together as of the survey being conducted.
  3. A "working" wife means an employed wife, self-employed wife, wife with a side job and other working wives but excludes female workers taking childcare leave.

**(Fathers are not very involved in childcare duties if they work 60 hours or longer a week.)**

Many fewer Japanese fathers are “always” involved in childcare duties if they work for 60 hours or more a week. Long working hours prevent male workers from participating in childcare duties (Chart 37).

Chart 37. Father's involvement in childcare duties by weekly working hours

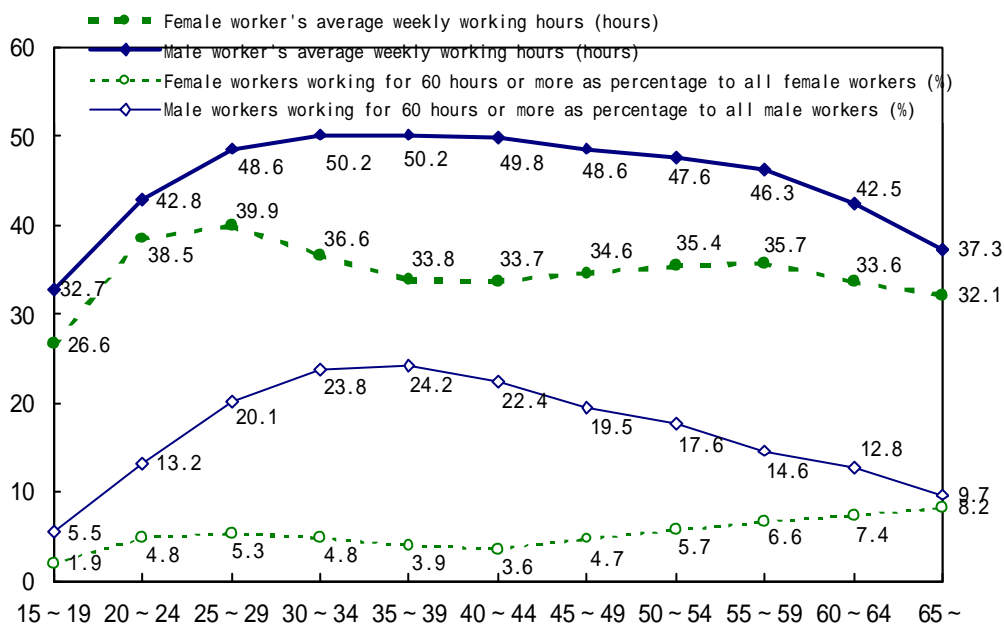


- (Notes)
1. The data were collected from the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, "First Profile Survey on New-Born Children in the 21st Century."
  2. Fathers and children are assumed to live together as of the survey being conducted.
  3. Working hours represent how many hours the father had worked for the week immediately before the survey.
  4. The numbers of respondents were 45,915 (total: 100%), 3,107 (6.8%) for "less than 20 hours," 3,672 (8.0%) for 20 to 40 hours, 25,732 (56.0%) for "40 to 60 hours," and 11,656 (25.4%) for "60 hours or more."

**(Long working hours for male workers with small children)**

According to the Ministry of Public Management, Home Affairs, Posts and Telecommunications, "Labour Force Survey," the male workers' average working hours represent a gradual reverse U-shape curve that peaks in age group 30 to 39. Average working hours also yield a similar curve among male workers working for 60 hours or more a week. This means that male workers with small children tend to have longer working hours than those in other age brackets. Although long working hours prevent participation in childcare duties, male workers with small children face the longest working hours even among male workers working for 60 hours or more a week. On the other hand, female workers' average working hours represent a gradual M-shape curve that peaks in age group 50 to 59 and troughs in age group 35 to 39. There is a clear gap in working lifestyle between men and women in Japan (Chart 38).

Chart 38. Average weekly working hours for male and female workers by age bracket (except for agro forestry industry)



(Note) The data were collected from the Ministry of Public Management, Home Affairs, Posts and Telecommunications, "Labour Force Survey" (2002 preliminary report edition).



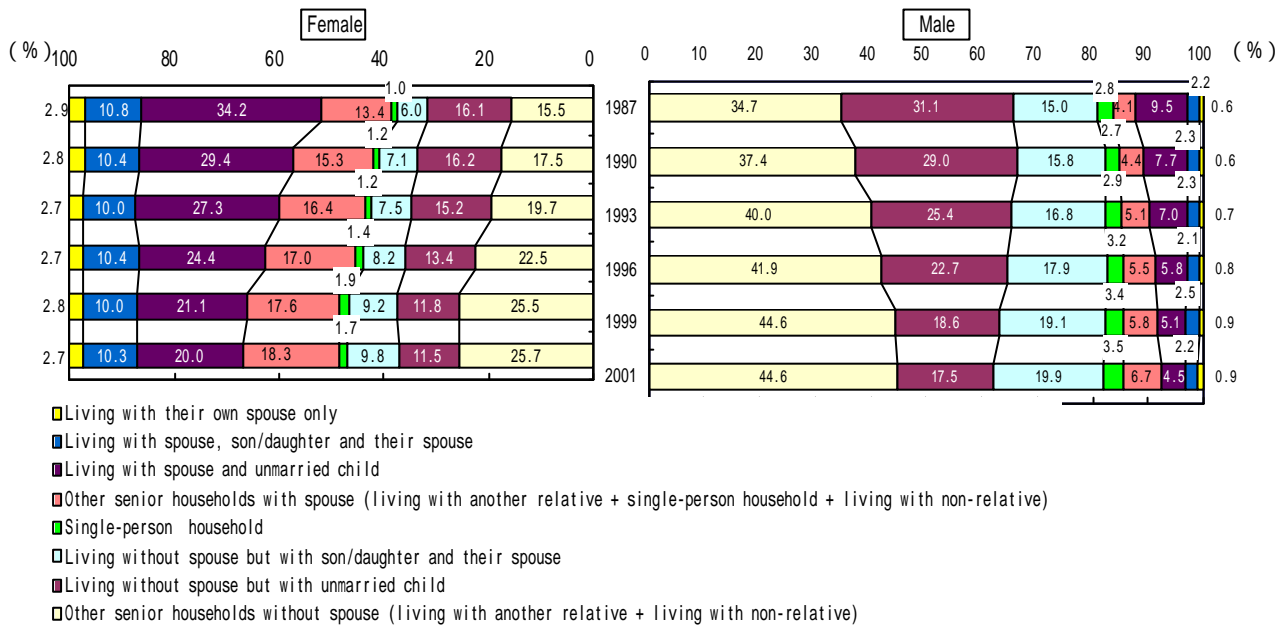
**Chapter 4. Living as senior citizens**

**(Fewer elderly people live with their children)**

Generally, the rate of elderly people who are "living alone," "living with their own spouse only" and "living with an unmarried child" has been increasing. On the other hand, 31.5% of female elderly people and 22.0% of male elderly people were "living with their son/daughter and their spouse" in 2001, which rates have reduced by half since 1987. (See Chart 39.)

According to the Cabinet Office, "Opinion Survey on People's Lives" (2002 edition), 50% of male and female senior citizens (over 70 years old) want to live with their son/daughter and their spouse, but there is a significant gap between the reality and their desires.

Chart 39. Rates of male and female senior people (age 65 or older) by age bracket



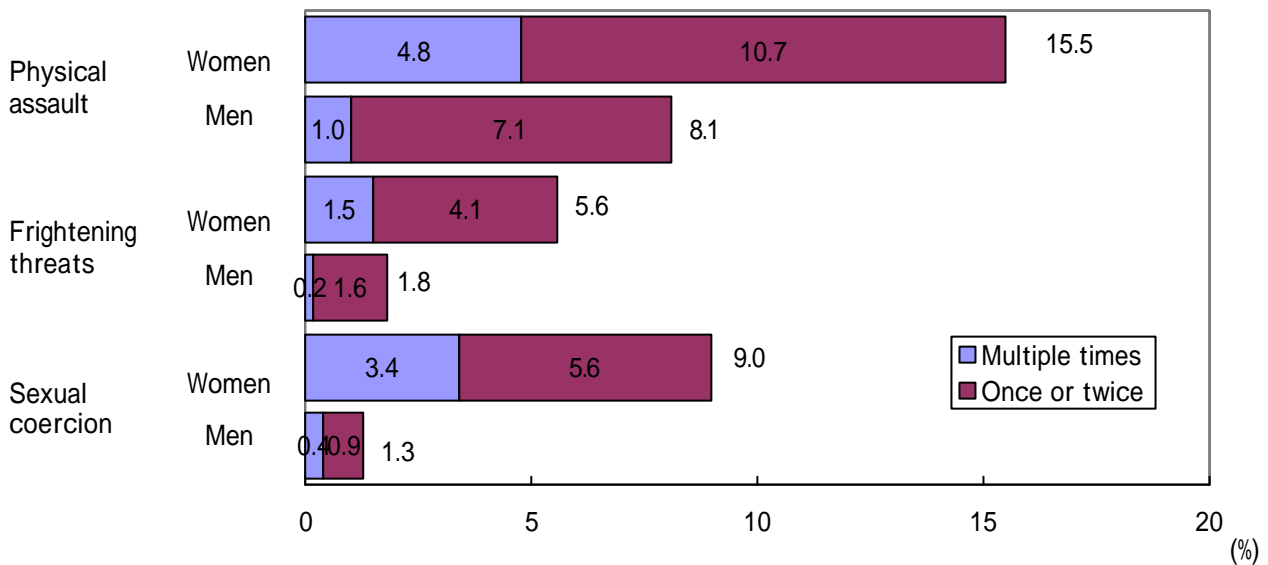
(Note) The data were collected from the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, "Basic Survey on " National Livelihood Survey."

**Chapter 5. Violence against women**

**(One out of five women have experienced domestic violence.)**

According to the Cabinet Office, "Survey on Domestic Violence" (2002), 15.5% of women have suffered physical assault from their spouse or boyfriend; 5.6% have suffered frightening threats from their spouse or boyfriend; and 9.0% have suffered sexual coercion from their spouse or boyfriend in their lifetime. Almost one of five (19.1%) women have experienced physical assault, frightening threats and/or sexual coercion. (See Chart 40.)

Chart 40. Experience of domestic violence (Mark-all-that-apply type questionnaire)

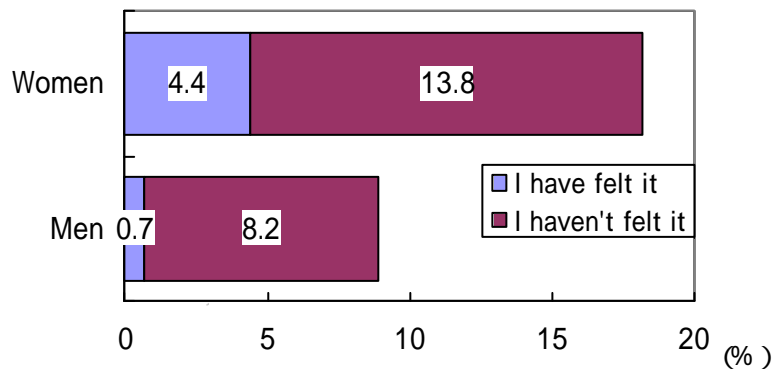


(Note) The data were collected from the Cabinet Office, "Survey on Domestic Violence" (2002).

**(Some women that their lives are in danger due to domestic violence.)**

According to the survey, 4.4% of female respondents "felt that their lives were in danger" due to violence from their spouse or boyfriend. This means one of every twenty women suffer severe domestic violence. (See Chart 41.)

Chart 41. Life threatening violence



(Note) The data were collected from the Cabinet Office, "Survey on Domestic Violence" (2002).

**(Physical injury and medical treatment because of domestic violence)**

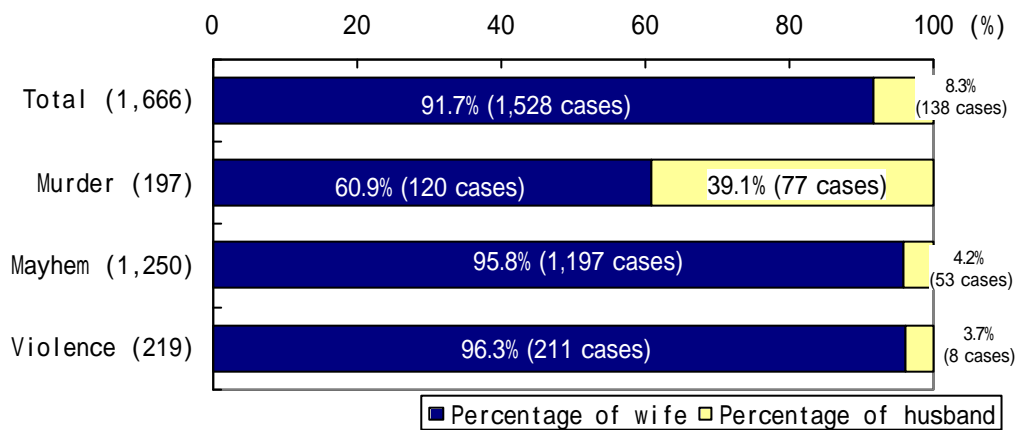
The survey also revealed 2.0% of female respondents "received medical treatment for physical injury" resulting from domestic violence. The percentage of these female respondents is four times as high as male respondents.

**(Women are much more vulnerable to domestic violence than men.)**

According to National Police Agency statistics, Japanese women are victims in 1,528 cases (91.7%) out of a total 1,666 murder, mayhem and violence cases between spouses (including common-law marriages).

Women are victims in 60.9% of murder cases, which represents a slightly smaller percentage. However, they are victims in 1,197 mayhem cases (95.8%) out of a total 1,250 and in 211 violence cases (96.3%) of a total 219 cases between spouses (including common-law marriages). This means spousal violence victims are in most cases women(Chart 42).

Chart 42. Victims in criminal offenses (murder, mayhem and violence) between spouses (including common-law marriages) (percentage of arrested cases) (2002)

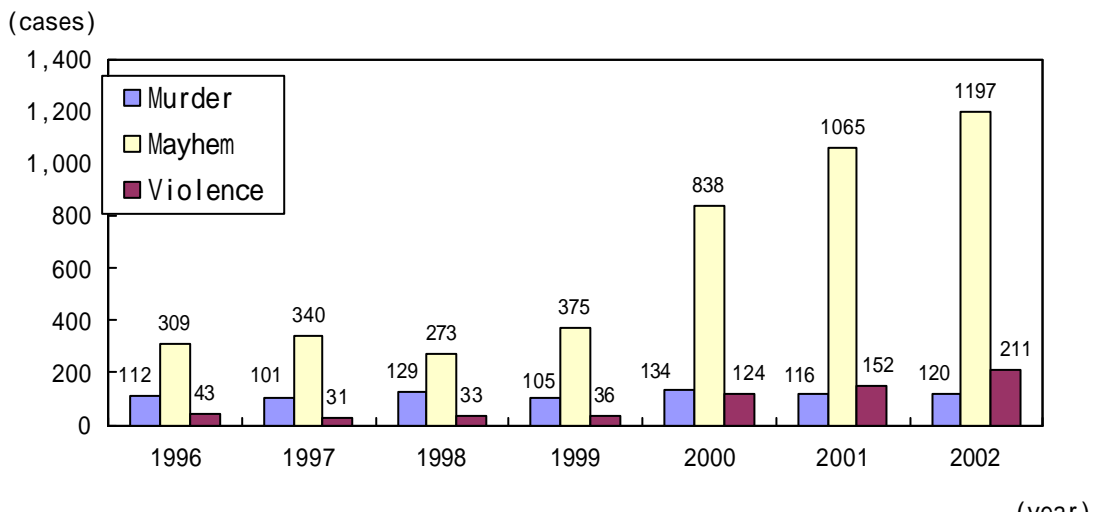


(Note) The data were collected from National Police Agency documents.

**(More and more husbands are arrested due to violence against their wives.)**

Women have been increasingly more vulnerable to their husband's violence and mayhem since 2002. Cases of violence increased by 59 (38.8%) to 211 in 2002. Cases of mayhem rose by 132 (12.4%) to 1,197 in 2002. (See Chart 43.)

Chart 43. Husband's criminal offense to wife



(Note) The data were collected from National Police Agency documents.

**(Counseling at Spousal Violence Counseling and Support Centers, etc)**

In April 2002, prefectural governments started to provide spousal violence counseling services at women’s counseling offices and other facilities. Currently, 103 facilities are providing counseling services, temporarily protecting spousal violence victims and providing related information. A total of 35,943 people asked spousal violence counseling and support centers for help for a year from April 2002 to the end of March 2003. Japan’s police authority also provided counseling services to 17,748 people by December 2002 after the law became effective.

**Chapter 6. Health Support for Women Throughout Their Lives**

**(Indexes for maternal and child health are generally improving .)**

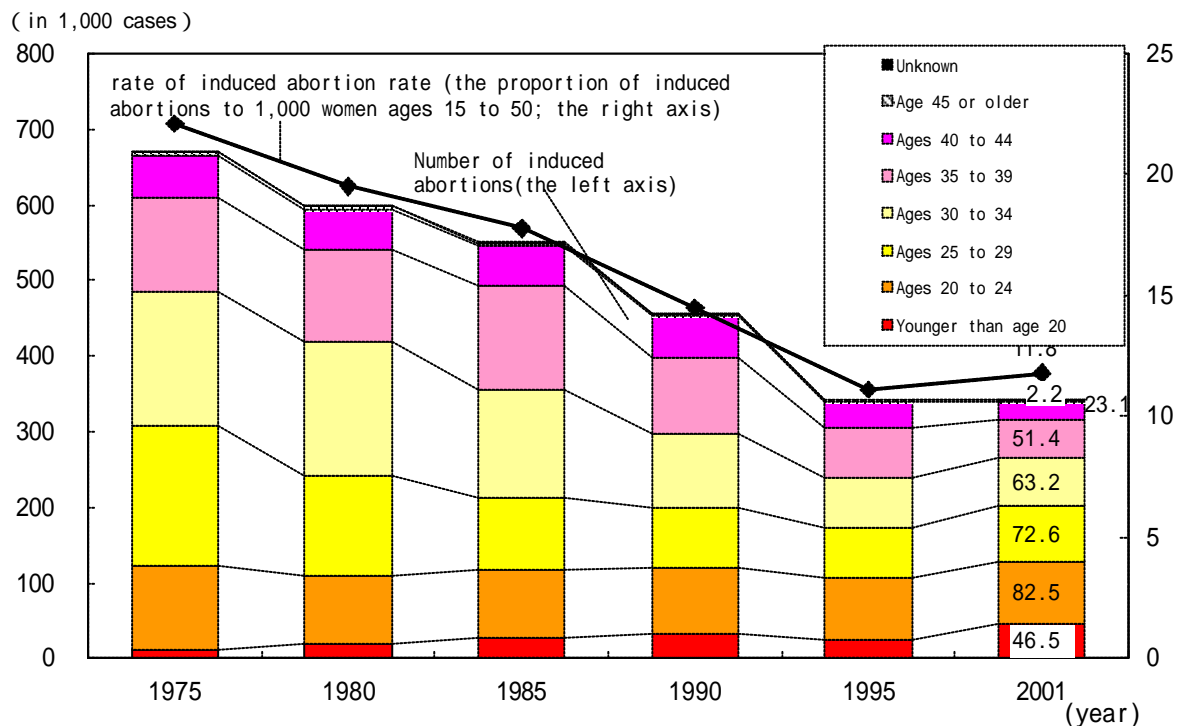
Because women can become pregnant and give birth, they have different health problems from men in their lives.

Major indexes for maternal and child health have generally been improving since 1975, which suggests improvement in maternal and child health.

**(The number of induced abortions is decreasing generally but increasing among younger people .)**

In general the number and rate of induced abortions (the proportion of induced abortions to 1,000 women aged 15 to 50) has decreased since 1975, but the rate of induced abortion has been taking an upturn in recent years. In particular, the induced rate of induced abortions is increasing among women younger than 20.(Chart 44.)

Chart 44. Induced abortions by age bracket



(Note) The data were collected from the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, "Report of Artificial Abortions and Sterilization Operation Statistics."

**(Smoking rate is increasing among women aged 20 to 29.)**

The number of male smokers has been decreasing in all ages as well as in age group 20 to 29. The number of female smokers is also decreasing in all ages, but the smoking rate among female smokers in their 20s significantly increased from 12.7% in 1975 to 24.3% in 2002.

Children exposed to environmental tobacco smoke are vulnerable to pneumonia, bronchial infection and other breathing problems and also might face physical development problems. A total of 17.4% of mothers and 63.2% of fathers are smokers among married couples with a 6-month-old child, according to the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare, "First Profile Survey on New-Born Children in the 21st Century." The smoking rate is much higher among young parents, particularly parents aged 19 or younger (mother: 44.1%, father: 83.4%) and aged 20 to 24 (mother: 34.7%, father: 83.8%).

It is necessary to provide more information on environmental tobacco smoke and other negative impacts on embryos and infants.

## Chapter 7. Women's rights in the media

### (Access time to mass media)

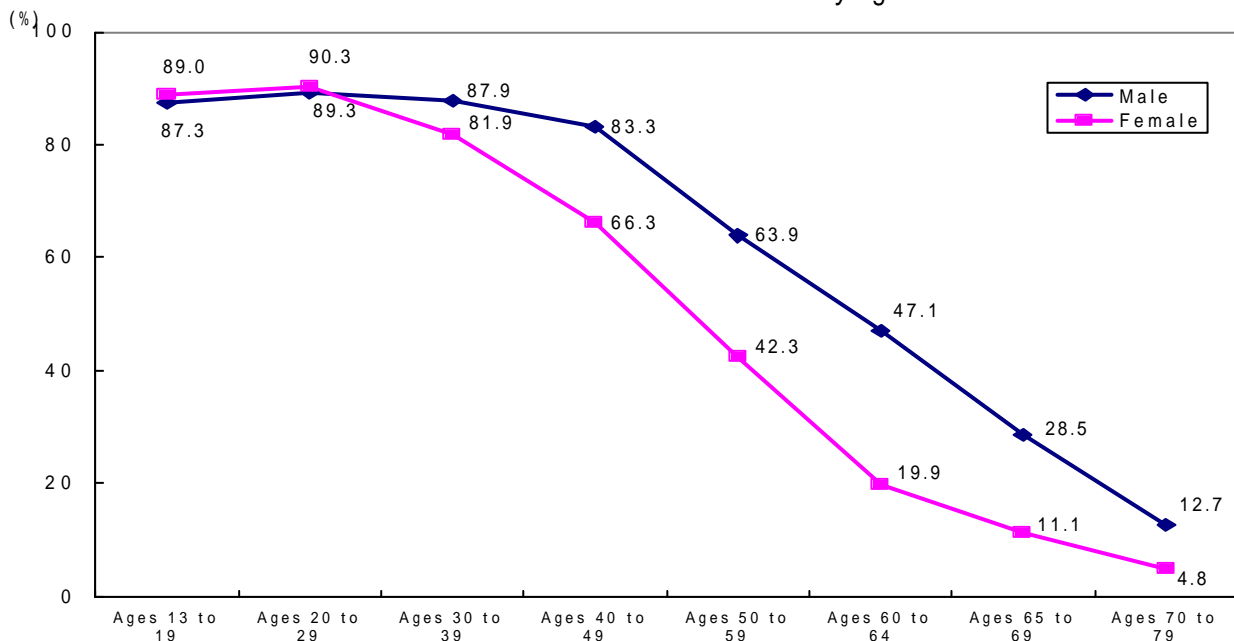
An average Japanese citizen watches TV, listens to the radio and reads magazines/newspapers for 2 hours 22 minutes on weekdays, 2 hours 44 minutes on Saturdays, and 3 hours 10 minutes on Sundays. Male and female Japanese citizens aged 30 to 39 accesses these mass media for fewer hours due to longer working hours and heavier childcare duties. In general, the older generation accesses mass media for more hours. Men have longer access time to mass media than women in all age brackets.

### (Digital divide between men and women)

With the astonishing growth of IT technologies, almost every household now has IT tools. According to "Telecommunication Trend Survey," by the Ministry of Public Management, Home Affairs, Posts and Telecommunications, 71.7% of Japanese households have a PC, while 81.4% of households have an Internet connection as of the end of 2002, 20.9% up from 2001. There are 69,420,000 Internet users, accounting for 54.5% of Japan's population. The main telecommunication tools are PCs (57.22 million users) as well as cellular phones, PHS and mobile terminals (27.94 million users).

Among Japanese citizens aged 30 or younger, female Internet users account for a larger rate than male users. However, male Internet users account for a larger rate than female users aged 30 or older. There is a significant gap in the Internet user's rates percentage between men and women (Chart 45).

Chart 45. Male and female Internet users by age bracket



(Note) The data were collected from the Ministry of Public Management, Home Affairs, Posts and Telecommunications, Telecommunication Trend Survey (2002).

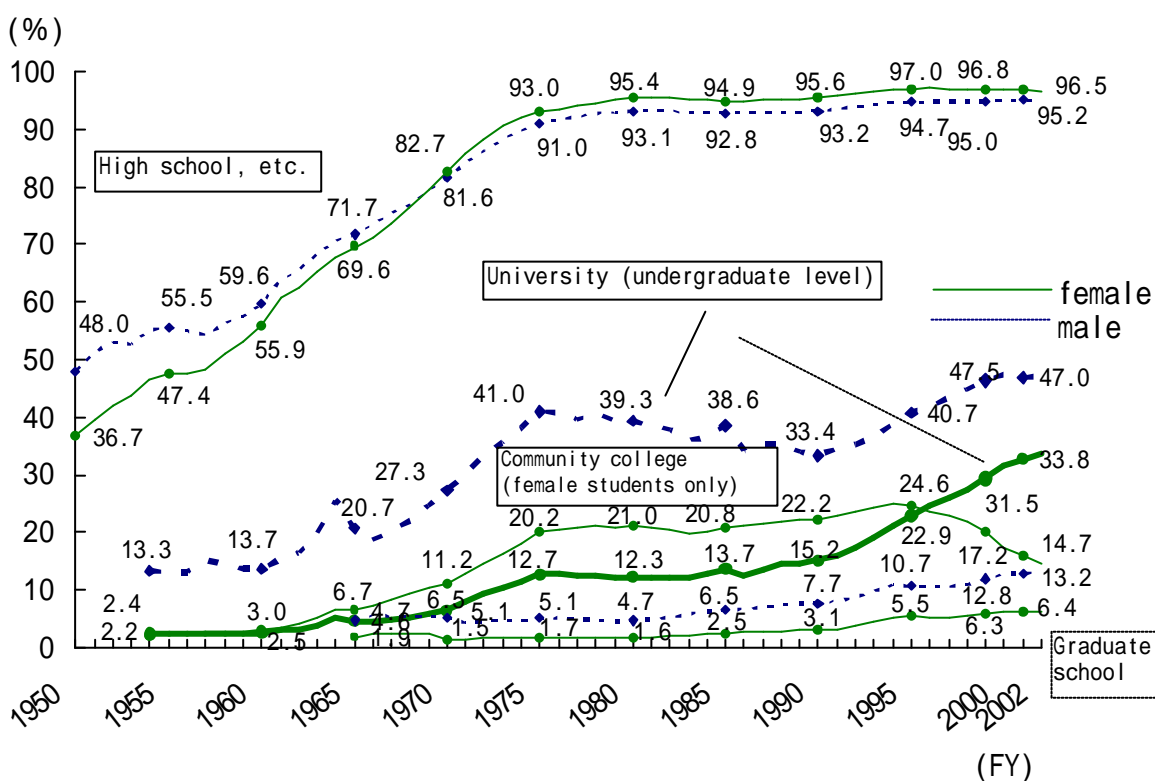
## Chapter 8. Education/learning process for encouraging gender equality

### (More Japanese women are entering university and college.)

In FY2002, the high school (except for correspondence courses) enrollment rate is 96.5% for women and 95.2% for men, which suggests more female students enter high school than male students. There is a gap in the university (undergraduate level) enrollment rate between women (33.8%) and men (47.0%). However, women's total enrollment rate for higher education (i.e., university and community college) is 48.5%. While the women's university enrollment rate has been rising recently, the enrollment rate for community college is sharply falling after a peak (24.9%) in 1994.

The graduate school enrollment rate is also rising for both genders (male: 13.2%; and female: 6.4%). (See Chart 46.)

Chart 46. Enrollment rate for each school category



- (Notes)
1. The data were collected from the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology, "School Basic Survey."
  2. "High school, etc." represents the percentage of junior high school graduates who enter high school or technical college (except for high school level correspondence courses). However, it excludes junior high school graduates who failed high school entrance exam but successfully enter the high school of their choice in the following year.
  3. "University (undergraduate level)" and "community college" represent the total university or community college enrollments (including students who failed to be accepted at a university of their choice and were seeking another chance) divided by junior high school graduates of three years before.
  4. "Graduate school" represents new students who enter graduate school immediately after completing an undergraduate course as a percentage of all students completing undergraduate courses. (It also includes new Ph.D. course enrollments in the case of medical and dental school.)

### (The gap in major areas has been shrinking.)

Generally, female students tend to major in human science. The percentage of female students majoring in human science has been decreasing since 1975, while female students majoring in social science and engineering account for a larger percentage. In this sense, the gap in major areas is shrinking between male and female students.

Part 2: Policies to be Implemented in FY2002 to Promote the Formation of a Gender Equal Society

***Chapter 1. Comprehensively encouraging policies for a gender-equal society***

After the "Law for the Prevention of Spousal Violence and the Protection of Victims" (Law # 31 in 2001) became fully effective, the Council for Gender Equality prepared "opinion paper #2 for smooth implementation of 'Law for the Prevention of Spousal Violence and the Protection of Victims'" in April 2002 and offered its opinions to competent ministers. In July 2002, the council monitored actual government measures during FY2001 based on its reports: "Interim report and proposals on current and future government measures to encourage gender equality," 'Promote of the appointment of women to national advisory councils and committees," "Enlargement of the recruitment and promotion of female maternal public officers" and "Policies on support measures for the balancing of work and child raising' (cabinet decision of July 6, 2001)." The council also submitted an opinion paper to the Prime Minister and other competent ministers and prepared the "FY2002 action plans for monitoring measures to achieve gender equality." In October 2002, the council also prepared an "Comment on Enhancing and Strengthening Systems Concerned with the Handling of Complaints Relating to Measures Concerning the plan for Gender Equality and Relief of Victims Whose Human Rights Have Been Infringed."

In July 2002, the Cabinet Office published the informational magazine, "Gender Equality 21," to provide more information on related activities carried out by the Headquarters for the Promotion of Gender Equality, local governments and women associations.

The government started to provide local government officials who are engaged in administration close to the citizens with "basic training" and "policy training" sessions on gender equality to promote deeper understanding of related national government policies.

***Chapter 2. Expanding women's participation in policy decision-making processes***

In November 2002, the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology established a "Roundtable session for supporting women's diversified lifestyles." In March 2003, the ministry prepared the first report on "diversified careers will change society" that described supportive measures for female researchers to recommend a proper academic environment for female researchers.

***Chapter 3. Reviewing social systems and practices and reforming awareness from a gender-equal perspective***

According to a "Report on Lifestyle Selection and Taxation, Social Security and Employment Systems" released by Special Committee on Gender Impact Assessment and Evaluation of Council for Gender Equality in December 2002, Japanese society has certain systems/practices that are incompatible with the prevailing lifestyles, prevent women's labor participation and restrict men's selection of lifestyles. Hence, The report pointed out the necessity of securing neutrality in lifestyle selection as far as possible. Also, it carefully examined the situation at each phase of people's lifecycle and revealed that there were many problems such as the gender wage gap, the reentry problem into the labor market after completing childcare, and larger percentage of part-timers among middle-aged women.

The number of double-income households now exceeds that of single-income households. It is pointed

out that the current taxation system adversely affects women's working patterns. Keeping this in mind, regarding the special deduction for spouses, the part applied in addition to the deduction for spouses was abolished by FY2003 tax reform.

#### ***Chapter 4. Providing equal employment opportunities and treatment for both genders***

In November 2002, the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare published a report after analyzing factors in the gender wage gap in Japanese companies, estimating the possible impact of corporate wage systems and examining proper measures to narrow the gap. The ministry plans to address these gaps based on the report.

The Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare provides employers, entrepreneur associations and labor unions with more information on a "Employment management study group report on working part-time" (April 2000) and a "Working part-time study group report" (July 2002) so that they will understand proper labor management scheme to strike a balance between part-time workers and full-time workers. In March 2003, the ministry released a report on proper part-time work policies based on discussion at the ministry's Labor Policy Council regarding fair treatment for part-time workers in relation with full-time workers since September 2002. The ministry plans to address part-time work measures based on this report.

#### ***Chapter 5. Achieving gender equality in agricultural, forestry and fishing villages***

The Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries established public facilities (Women's Agri-support Centers) that comprehensively support female farmers in both childcare and participation in agricultural management.

#### ***Chapter 6. Supporting women's and men's efforts to balance career, family life and community activity***

In September 2002, The Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare prepared a "Plus one – A proposal for additional measures to deal with the decline of fertility rate" that incorporated new measures, such as "conversion of working patterns, including those of men" and "reconstruction of local support system for raising children". Based on this "Plus one", the Ministerial Meeting for Combating Birthrate Decline decided on "Immediate Action Plan to Support the Development of the Next-generation" in March 2003. The Japanese government also submitted to the 156th Diet session a bill to intensively and systematically support future generations as well as an amendment bill to the Child Welfare Law to strengthen childcare support measures in local communities.

To address the ever-changing situation of families without fathers, the Japanese government submitted to the 154th Diet Session an amendment bill to the "Fatherless Families and Widows Welfare Law" to provide comprehensive support programs to families without fathers. The bill was passed at the Japanese Diet (the 155th Diet Session) on November 22, 2002 and made public on November 29.

#### ***Chapter 7. Providing better living conditions for elderly people***



Pension Taskforce of Social Insurance, comprehensively examined the current pension systems to establish sustainable and credible pension schemes via the FY2004 pension reform. In December 2002, the Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare released "Orientation and points concerning the framework" as a tentative proposal for discussions on the framework of the next reform of the pension system.

### ***Chapter 8. Eliminating all forms of violence against women***

To properly address violence from husband and partner, the Japanese government implemented a "Law for the Prevention of Spousal Violence and the Protection of Victims" (Law # 31 in 2001) and other existing legal frameworks.

The Cabinet Office has been collecting information on laws, schemes and facilities that would support victims of spousal violence, and it has also been providing related information on its website since April 2002.

The Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare has increased the number of Women Counseling Center staff/counselors to accept more inquiries from female victims. The ministry strengthened its counseling capacity to accept inquiries 24 hours a day, 7 days a week.

In February 2003, the Cabinet Office provided a counseling training session to 70 managerial counseling service staff of Women's Centers all over Japan.

Japan has already signed the "Protocol to the Convention on the Rights of the Child on the sale of children, child prostitution and child pornography" on May 10, 2002 and "Protocol to Prevent, Suppress and Punish Trafficking in Persons, Especially Women and Children, supplementing the United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime" on December 9, 2002. The Japanese government is examining these legal documents to conclude them. On September 3, 2002, the Minister of Justice asked the Legislative Council for advice on necessary for the "United Nations Convention against Transnational Organized Crime." The Japanese government hosts regional policy dialogues to transnational organized crimes in line with the UN convention.

### ***Chapter 9. Supporting lifelong health for women***

The Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare has promised "National Health Promotion, in the 21st Century" (Health Japan 21) as the third program to promote people's health conditions in the medium and long term.

### ***Chapter 10. Respecting women's rights in the media***

In order to instill in society varied images of men and women that are free from fixed ideas of gender-based roles, the Cabinet Office prepared "Handbook on Public Publicity with a Gender-Equal Perspective" in March 2003 so that administrative organizations adopts the point of view of gender equality to their publications and publicities independently.

### ***Chapter 11. Providing more education/learning opportunities to encourage gender equality and diverse lifestyle choices***

In FY2002, the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology started to support local learning activities in cooperation with NPOs, administration and other private-sector organizations so that local communities can address low educational standards in local communities and households and to achieve gender equality.

## ***Chapter 12. Contributing to "equality, development and peace" in the global community***

Under the initiative of the Chief Cabinet Secretary, the Cabinet Office has been holding a "Roundtable conference for supporting women in Afghanistan" since February 2002. In May 2002, this roundtable conference prepared "Supportive measures for women in Afghanistan," which incorporated the Japanese government's basic concepts in supportive measures for women. The roundtable conference submitted it to the Chief Cabinet Secretary.

In September 2002, the Japanese government submitted to the UN Secretary General its fifth periodic report on the legislative, judicial, administrative or other measures that Japan has adopted to give effect to the provisions of the "Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women" and on the progress made in this respect.

In November 2002, Japan first held a consultation with EU on gender equality to exchange more information and discuss possible future measures.

## **Policies to be Implemented in FY2003 to Promote the Formation of a Gender Equal Society**

### ***Chapter 1. Comprehensively encouraging policies for gender-equal society***

The Council for Gender Equality will continue to discuss necessary revision of the Spousal Violence Prevention Law, make use of its expert committees and make efforts to reflect discussion outcomes of survey results.

### ***Chapter 2. Expanding women's participation in policy decision-making processes***

In terms of increasing the number of female members on government advisory boards, the Japanese government will endeavor to achieve the target as soon as possible (i.e., increase in the number of female advisory board members to "30% by the end of FY2005"), as determined by the Gender Equality Promotion Headquarters in August 2000.

### ***Chapter 3. Reforming social systems, practices and awareness from a gender-equal perspective***

The government will conduct a survey to identify the possible impact of government policies on gender equality.

The government will also modify current social systems and practices as necessary so that they will not interfere with people's lifestyle choices.

### ***Chapter 4. Providing equal employment opportunities and treatment for both genders***

The Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare will make necessary amendments to worker dispatching undertakings system in order to utilize private sector vitality for quicker and smoother demand-supply adjustments in the labor market.

#### ***Chapter 5. Achieving gender equality in agricultural, forestry and fishing villages***

In order to effectively promote gender equality, the Ministry of Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries will encourage female leaders to express recommendations for policies and to play a more active role in training sessions or conferences.

#### ***Chapter 6. Supporting women's and men's efforts to balance career, family life and community activity***

The Ministry of Health, Labour and Welfare will provide flexible childcare services targeted at children aged 3 or younger to address the ever-changing demand for childcare services because of parents' diversified working patterns (such as increases in the number of part-time workers).

In FY2003, the Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology will launch a survey on joint classes for kindergarten and elementary school children and joint training sessions for kindergarten and elementary school staff as well as partnership between kindergarten elementary and school children's parents. This survey aims to address diversified needs for educational and childcare services.

#### ***Chapter 7. Providing better living conditions for elderly people***

Based on "Orientation and points concerning the framework of pension reform" published in December 2002, the government will stimulate nationwide discussions for FY2004 pension reform to establish sustainable and credible public pension systems in the future. In addition, Pension Taskforce of Social Insurance will discuss specific proposals for pension reform.

#### ***Chapter 8. Eliminating all forms of violence against women***

The Cabinet Office will conduct a survey on supporter and counseling capacity regarding spousal violence as well as a survey on rehabilitation of abusive spouses.

#### ***Chapter 9. Supporting lifelong health for women***

In FY2003, the National Center for Child Health and Development will launch an outpatient treatment service exclusively for women to provide medical services suitable for women's physical and psychological conditions.

#### ***Chapter 10. Respecting women's rights in the media***

The Cabinet Office will provide more information on "Handbook on Public Publicity with a Gender-Equal Perspective" published in FY2002. The Cabinet Office will also encourage national/local

government to provide publications and publicities that reflect diversified images of men and women in accordance with the handbook.

***Chapter 11. Providing more education/learning opportunities to encourage gender equality and diverse lifestyle choices***

The Ministry of Education, Culture, Sports, Science and Technology will continue to hold a "Conference to support diversification of women's career patterns" and examines proper supportive measures for lifelong learning opportunities and a proper working environment so that women can flexibly study or work to achieve their own purposes and adopt to situation.

***Chapter 12. Contributing to "equality, development and peace" in the global community***

The government will fully endeavor to domestically implement the "Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women" and other international treaties for gender equality as well as international standards or guidelines for improving status of women.