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Effects of WLB Policies on the Work of Female Employees

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Abstract: On the basis of a survey performed at Japanese pharmaceutical companies, this paper analyze the processes and the influence that work-life balance policies exert on the promotion of women employees and corporate performance through women's activities. In particular, Structural Equation Modeling is used to clear complex causality between the promotion of women employees and personnel policies. The results of our analysis indicate that even if the complex relations between the variables are taken into account, productive improvements due to work-life balance policies are not observed. Although work-life balance policies do not have a direct effect on the promotion or the wages of women, they have an indirect effect on women's promotion and wage increase through the length of their tenure.

Keywords: structural equation modeling, work-life balance policy, career advancement of women, corporate performance

Introduction

This study examines how much the measures for work-life balance policies affect the promotion of female employees including the process and if those work-life balance initiatives and female promotions eventually effectively drive up corporate performance.

Japan is often said to be a less advanced country in providing equal opportunities to female workers among developed countries. The GEM (Gender Empowerment) index formulated by the United Nations Development Program (UNDP) indicates how much women are empowered in society. Our country just ranks in 44th place among 79 countries.

The government and private companies have been making efforts to develop women-friendly working conditions, such as the formulation of the Equal Employment Opportunity Law, the promotion of positive action, the prevention of sexual harassment and the implementation of work-life balance measures. As Figure 1 illustrates, we have to admit that signs of improvement have been emerging slightly over the past years. The percentage of women taking the managerial posts such as subsection chief, section chief and division chief have been gradually increasing and the percentages have more than doubled with all these positions when compared to the findings of 1988 with those of 2003.

However, this does not mean that the correlations between support measures and the growing percentage of female managerial personnel are widely recognized in society. As a matter of fact, there is not an adequate level of explanation about primary reasons for the noticeably low percentage of Japanese female managerial personnel relative to those in other countries. There is not a substantial accumulation of demonstrative analytical data to evaluate some hypotheses on this point. In view of this situation, this paper examines the effect of intra-corporate policies on the working conditions of female employees.

This study is comprised as follows: The second section reviews preceding studies to explain how this paper will contribute to future research on the conditions of female workers. The third section mentions that the clues in

which personnel policies will have effects on the percentage of female managerial personnel and ultimately on the business performance of companies. The fourth section examines analytical data and presents the results. The fifth section concludes the paper.

Preceding Studies

One of the research subjects on female employment in labor economics is wage differentials between male and female workers. With a focus on data by industrial sector, Tomita (1988) analyzed the relationship between gender gaps in the gradients of wage profiles and gender discriminations in employment management. As a result of this examination, he pointed out that there are smaller gender gaps in the gradients of wage profiles with industries in which gender discrimination is less likely with regard to recruitment and personnel relocation in the same company. Higuchi (1991) also analyzed how gender discrimination in employment management affects wage profiles by estimating with wage functions. He mentioned that there are smaller gaps in the gradients of wage-employment year's profiles between men and women in industries where equal treatment is more likely to be conducted regardless of gender differences in job education and training and the utilization of the female workforce. In addition, focusing on detailed data from many companies, Mitani (1995) analyzed how gender discrimination in employment management affects gender disparities in wage profiles and employment years between male and female workers. His results have shown that with regard to gender gaps in wage profiles, the effect of working years on salary standards is smaller with companies that conduct more gender-equal employment management; the gender gaps were quite small in the case of workers with the same employment years. He also discovered that there were smaller gaps between male and female workers in employment years with companies conducting more gender-equal employment management.

Japanese recent studies have been paying much attention to the positive utilization of the female workforce and work-life balance policies It has frequently been pointed out that many Japanese female workers interrupt their career for marriage and child care in their late twenties (Ōsawa, 1994). Their early departure means the undesirable suspension of career. More specifically, they break away from employment before a large amount of time and costs spent for their job training are recovered. This is considered to be one of the major factors that prevent aggressive use of the female workforce by companies. Therefore, to promote female employment, it is essential to create an environment where childbirth and child care do not obstruct women's continuation to work. That is, recent researchers have begun to recognize the necessity of balancing work with private life.

One of the measures that could be important in making a difference on this issue is the child care leave system. There have already been a considerable number of studies on the effect of this initiative. Shigeno and Okusa (1998) have demonstrated that the child-rearing leave system works to facilitate continuous female employment, if not affecting marriage. Morita and Kaneko (1998) have also pointed out that the system is effective for boosting continuous female employment.

In addition to the child-care leave system, much attention has been recently paid to the diverse and flexible personnel management of facilitating the balance of work and home. One of those innovative approaches is the work-life balance policies. Sakazume (2002) has postulated that work-life balance measures are effective for boosting worker morale, improving working conditions and reducing the percentage of women breaking away from employment.

Recent studies have been paying particularly keen attention to the effect of work-life balance measures on corporate performance. Many companies tended to consider that the utilization of female workers and work-life balance measures would put a heavier financial burden on their business and that the measures were unworthy of active implementation. However, comparative studies among countries have been promoted in recent years and they have demonstrated that there are no negative correlations between female employment and economic performance. For example, Greenwald (1996) argues that corporate managers often introduce work-life balance measures for the sake of better working conditions and that those special measures will definitely yield larger

profits for companies. Smith and Blum (2000) also postulate that work-life balance measures have a positive impact on organizations as a mechanism for competitive advantage. In addition, Shepard, Clifton and Kruse (1996) have pointed out that companies with a flexible employment structure like the flextime system can raise their productivity by 10% compared to those without such systems, which suggests that more flexible employment systems lead to productivity improvement.

This has caused some people to argue that the active use of female employees and work-life balance policies initiatives will have a positive impact on corporate performance in our country, as well as in other countries (Higuchi, Asami, Hirakawa, Ōzeki and Mori, 2006). Amid these trends, Surveys on the correlations between the two factors from the corporate perspective came to be conducted such as in the case of Takeishi (2006) and Wakisaka (2006).

As noted above, there is a large amount of study data on female employment, but there are still many tasks requiring study. The biggest challenge is how to specify the causality between personnel management and corporate performance. For example, it is conceivable that a company could gain remarkable achievements by introducing work-life balance measures. At the same time, however, there is a conceivable scenario in which a company could afford to take work-life balance measures because some other factors have caused it to achieve good performances. It is necessary to closely examine the causality between work-life balance measures and corporate performance to correctly understand the situation. Furthermore, there are several steps to be taken until intra-corporate measures can have a substantial effect on easing gender gaps in wages and promotions, but there is only a small amount of analytical data on this point.

The data used for the preceding studies leave room for improvement. Many of the preceding studies are based on survey data on individuals or companies. The survey data on individuals involve the possibility that individual employees may not have accurate information about personnel policies. It is necessary to collect information on personnel systems from companies for the sake of information accuracy. In the meantime, it is more appropriate to collect information about the attributes of workers directly from individual employees; it is particularly desirable to obtain information about wages and promotions and psychological aspects, including working motivations. Therefore, an analysis through the matching of these two patterns is more valid. With a focus on this critical point, this study is based on the matched data for both companies and individual workers.

Structural Equation Modeling

This paper uses the Structural Equation Modeling (SEM) method for data analysis. Figure 2 illustrates the path illustrations of covariance structure analyses of the relationship between work-life balance policies and female employment.

This method is called Covariance Structure Analysis or Structural Equation Modeling and is a form of statistical methodology for examining the causality within social and natural phenomena. The method handles latent variables that cannot be directly measured unlike observed variables that are measured as ordinary explained variables and stems from Confirmatory Factor Analysis, which was espoused by Joreskog and Lawley (1968) and Joreskog (1969). Subsequently, the significance of analyzing covariance structures was recognized and this recognition developed into the examination of the causality among constituent factors by integrating path analysis and confirmatory factor analysis. Then, Joreskog (1978) devised the Linear Structure Relations (LISREL) model. This method was originally used in educational and psychological realms and has also been utilized in business administration and economics. There are complicated relationships among other variables in addition to the path illustrations. There are conceivable correlations between career development by female job rotation and particular vocational training measures for women and the percentages of female employment and sales per employee, just comparative to work-life balance policies. There can be correlations between female promotion and morale and sales per employee. The validity of these correlations should be statistically examined. Applied studies on covariance structure analysis include the effect of predictive emotional reactions

on actions (Richard *et al.* 1996), the effect of evaluation criteria for public policies on individual behaviors (Maurer *et al.* 1996), one's psychological tendency to show sympathy or delight for others' misfortune (Brigham *et al.* 1997), decisive factors on consumers' garbage disposal (Taylor and Todd, 1997), changes in awareness among university students with part-time jobs as private tutors (Fresco, 1997) and physical exercises for health maintenance (Fuchs, 1996).

The necessity of using this method is caused by the complicated causality between work-life balance policies and other variables. Many of the preceding studies focus on the individual effects of work-life balance policies on the motivation and morale of female workers, their productivity, promotions and employment years. However, the causality between those factors is not always set in one specific direction. A number of multiple directions can be considered for the cause and effect and inverse direction could work out.

For example, in a working environment in which the effective implementation of family-friendly measures actually facilitates female employment, the percentage of female workers is likely to rise. Conversely, in a situation where there is a large pool of female business resources or many female employees continue to work without interrupting their career partway through their employment, it is necessary to launch family-friendly measures in an effort to fully utilize the female workforce and create better working conditions for women.

In addition, it is conceivable that there are multiple relationships between family-friendly initiatives and business productivity and corporate performance. Companies can secure a pool of more capable female workers by employing family-friendly measures, and female workers' in high level positions can contribute to increasing corporate performance. However, if an enterprise in a tight management condition finds embark on family-friendly actions a heavy burden; an enterprise would not launch such policies. Alternatively, some companies achieving good performance can afford to introduce family-friendly policies. There is conceivable interconnectedness between sales per employee and family-friendly measures or the percentage of female employment and family-friendly measures. Given this possibility, the relationships among variables can be considerably complicated as is illustrated in Figure 2. The figure is based on observed variables, not on latent variables. The arrow marks checked in both directions between variables indicate that the variables show correlation and covariation with one another and that relationships are too unclear to identify the causality. The analysis of their model was conducted by a X-square test, the most common statistical method. The hypothesis that the path coefficient is 0 is based on Wald statistics. Moreover, the path coefficient from erroneous variables is set as 1 for the sake of securing distinguishability. For the assessment of the whole covariance structure analysis model, indexes, such as GFI (Goodness of Fit Index), AIC (Akaike's Information Criteria) and RMSEA (Root Mean Square Error of Approximation), are often used. In this study, the validity of the model is secured by X^2 test.

Data and Analytical Results

This section examines the relationship between personnel management concerning women and other variables on the basis of the arguments in the previous section especially to see if family-friendly policies can lead to better corporate performance as Takeishi (2006) and Wakisaka (2006) pointed out.

This paper has referred to the matched data based on the *Fact-Finding Survey on Employment Management* focusing on companies listed in the *Report on the Employment Promotion Measures for the Pharmaceutical Industry* and the *Survey on The Employees' Awareness* conducted for employees working in the companies.

These surveys were conducted in 1995. The survey on employment management focused on 230 member companies of the Pharmaceutical Manufacturers' Association of Tokyo and 270 member companies of the Osaka Pharmaceutical Manufacturers Association. Survey forms were distributed to the enterprises by post and the completed forms were collected by the same method. Valid answers were collected from 310 companies and the percentage of collection was 62%. The forms of the survey on employees' awareness were internally

distributed to 5,000 full-time employees of 120 companies primarily running pharmaceutical operations among the 310 organizations that gave valid answers to the survey on employment management, and the completed forms were collected in the same way. There were answers from 3,462 workers of 102 companies and the percentage of collection was 69.2%.

In conducting analyses, we calculated the percentage of extraction for each company from the number and sample number of female employees and re-extracted allowing redundant data so as to restore the population. However, we excluded the case in which only a few samples of employees for one company were extracted. By the same line of reasoning, we excluded small and medium-sized enterprises with particularly small numbers of employees. We also excluded the case where the percentage of population restoration even exceeds 100% due to a noticeable number of employees despite an adequate level of samples.

Table 3 shows basic statistics focusing on the characteristics of analytical variables. Note that, however, corporate attributes represent statistical data based on original samples but that employees' attributes show statistics after the population restoration has been conducted.

The average number of employees was 1046.266, which suggests that the data include fairly large companies. The foreign-owned company percentage of 15.2% is also characterizing the data. The pharmaceutical preparation and manufacture industry constitutes as high as 61.3%. Companies with labor unions made up 45.8%, which means almost half of the companies have a labor union. The percentage of female employment was 31%; the employees of the survey included part-timers. Sales per employee (including male workers) were 42,521,210 yen; considerably high.

Next, this section takes a look at personnel measures for female workers. The category of family-friendliness means to what extent companies have the nursing care leave system," the child care leave system, workplace children's day care facilities and the home caregiver dispatching system, and each item is given one standard numerical point. The table shows the total of these items with its maximum being 4. The average was 1.077, not a high value. This suggests that companies implement on average just one measure of the four systems. With regard to career development through female job rotation, only 7.7% of the companies have that type of system. For particular job training methods for women, only 11.9% of the companies have such a system. This means that few companies implement substantial measures for the active utilization of female employees.

In addition, with respect to the attributes of individual female workers, the values are based on the survey of employee awareness with a focus on full-time employees. Employee average number of years for education was 14.228; the percentage of married women was 29.4% and the average service duration was 5.771 years. For the indexes of managerial positions, ordinary workers were set as 1, project manager and subsection chief-proper posts as 2 and section chief-proper post as 3. As a result of examinations, we discovered that of the samples, no women are in a position higher than the section chief-proper post. The average figure was 1.101, which suggests that most of the samples were ordinary workers. The average of their annual income was 4,075,450 yen. The questionnaire was based on eight categories: less than 3 million yen; 3 million to 4 million yen; 4 million to 5 million yen; 5 million to 6 million yen; 6 million to 7 million yen; 7 million to 8 million yen; 8 million to 10 million yen; and more than 10 million yen. For convenience of calculating average values for each category, the authors set 2 million yen for "less than 3 million yen" and 15 million yen for "more than 10 million yen" and focused on the medians with the other categories. With respect to the category of "job motivation," we set "not motivated at all" as 1, "not motivated so much" as 2, "moderately motivated" as 3 and "highly motivated" as 4. The average was 2.264, which is indicative of low motivation as a whole.

Furthermore, the data used for this study allow for job type identification, which facilitates the observation of the percentages of female promotion to managerial positions by gender and job type as shown in Table 4. The average percentage of female promotion to managerial positions—1.21%—is remarkably low compared with the male percentage of 24.84%. There are considerable differences by job type, however. The relatively high

percentages of female promotion to managerial positions were marked in the R&D and indirect sectors. The male average percentage with the R&D department was 28.6% and their percentage with the indirect sector was 43.86%. Comparison of the female percentage with the indirect sector with that of men in managerial positions suggests that female promotion in the indirect area is still inactive. In the meantime, the female promotion percentage with MR operations is exceedingly low. MR means sales operations and the characteristics of this category make it particularly difficult for female workers to take on the operations.

Now, we will consider factors for female promotion exclusively from the perspective of personnel management just like in the case of many preceding studies, before examining the model in the previous section to examine explanatory variables that affect promotion. We place a particular focus of attention on the R&D and indirect sectors in which adequate samples can be secured and the percentages of female promotion to managerial positions are higher. In conducting analyses, we use the job categories of female employees, establishing "ordinary workers" as a standard criterion, and apply the Ordered Probit model. The three items of job category are explained variables.

Table 5 shows the examination results of the R&D sector. As was expected, age was a factor of positive effect for female promotion. Marriage scored an approximately minus 10% level of significance in the critical region and turned out to be a negative factor. With regard to personnel measures, the award system for long service and the annual salary system work well for female promotion. In the case of foreign-owned companies, female employees were likely to be elevated to higher posts. In addition, the percentages of female workers in a managerial position were low with the head offices both in Tokyo and Osaka. Labor unions were a negative factor, but they were not statistically significant.

Furthermore, Table 6 presents crucial factors for female promotion in the indirect sector. The number of educational years proved to be a significant factor. Unexpectedly, however, the background of graduation from the pharmaceutical department was a negative factor for working in the indirect sector of pharmaceutical companies. This suggests that specialized knowledge about pharmacy is not so important for promotion in the indirect sector. Age was positively significant just like in the case of the R&D sector, but marriage had a positive effect in contrast to the R&D sector. Regarding personnel management, feedback on employee performance evaluation turned out to be a negative factor. The management by objective was a positive factor and feedback on performance evaluation was a negative factor; but both items were statistically insignificant. With respect to family-friendly measures, the nursing care leave system was a negative factor, whereas the child-care leave system and the short-hour service and fixed work day system proved to be positively significant with a minus 10% level in the critical region. Particular training systems for female workers were a positive factor for promotion.

As noted above, as far as the R&D and indirect sectors are concerned, there are no consistent causalities observed between personnel measures and female promotion patterns. In addition, with regard to family-friendly policies, which are a primary focal point of this study, no significant factors were detected with the R&D sector; in the case of the indirect sector, the nursing care leave system was a negative factor, while the child-care leave system proved to be a positive factor. Moreover, marriage showed contrary effects with the two sectors and consistent explanatory variables were observed only with the item of age.

It is impossible to clarify here whether these results are due to the absence of effective personnel systems for female promotion beyond the walls of job types or due to the general assumption that there are no interactive correlations specified between female promotion and personnel management models, as mentioned above. Therefore, it is necessary to use Structural Equation Modeling mentioned in the previous section.

Table 7 displays the examination results of structural equation model. A particularly notable point is the effect of personnel measures for female employees on other variables. With respect to the effect of family-friendly initiatives on the percentage of female workers, the path coefficient showed a minus value. This indicates that

female employees are likely to stay for a long period of time in companies that employ substantial family-friendly systems. In sum, there seems to be positive correlations between corporate family-friendly initiatives and the percentage of female workers. However, if companies find that it requires them enormous costs to implement family-friendly measures, they are likely to employ fewer women to avoid the financial burden. This tendency is shown in the examination results.

In addition, it became clear that companies with a high percentage of female employees are more likely to have effective family-friendly systems. That is, those companies introduce family-friendly measures to deal with a large number of female workers. Conceivably, analyses not based on interactive correlations find positive relationships between the two factors just because of the latter causality.

Furthermore, family-friendly measures have a considerably direct impact on reducing sales per employee. Employees who are utilizing the child-rearing and nursery care leave systems retain their positions as employees during the period. Though they virtually give no service to the company in the duration of their leaves, the total number of corporate employees does not change in statistics. However, in fact, the number of workers often increases by the employment of supplementary staff, but they may not have a particular effect on improving corporate performance. In contrast, it is observed that companies with high sales per employee are more likely to employ full-blown family-friendly policies. Those enterprises achieving good performance can afford to allocate business resources to conducting family-friendly initiatives. This suggests that the positive correlations between sales per employee and family-friendly measures may be based on good corporate performance.

Family-friendly policies do not have a direct effect on female promotion and a significantly negative coefficient was observed. However, those measures have an effect on rising female working years, which indirectly work better for female workers. This is because longer service years lead to promotion and promotion causes wage hikes. Some analyses on the positive effect of family-friendly policies on pay raises and promotions seem to reflect these indirect effects.

For the effects of other female-related special measures, "career development through female job rotation" turned out to have a negative effect on "rising through the ranks to higher posts," if not statistically significant. In addition, the effect of "particular job training systems for female employees" on "motivation" was positive but not significant, and it was not either effective for elevating female workers to higher positions.

Conclusion

This study examined the matched data based on the Fact-Finding Survey on Employment Management and the Survey on The Employees' Awareness focusing on companies listed in the Report on the Employment Promotion Measures for the Pharmaceutical Industry to analyze the effect of intra-corporate policies on female employment. These data enabled the authors to collect information about corporate measures from companies and information about the distinctive attributes and behaviors of individual workers from employees. There were two remarkable points observed: the correlations between family-friendly policies and productivity and the effect of those initiatives on female promotions and wage hikes.

We first examined the relationships among variables affecting female promotion in R&D and indirect sectors before getting into complicated specific model analyses. However, we could not discover any consistent causality about the effect of personnel measures, including family-friendly policies, on female promotion patterns.

Next, we examined the interconnectedness between female promotion and personnel management and the complicated relationships among variables. However, we found that there were no noticeable indicators hinting that family-friendly measures are effective for boosting productivity. In addition, with respect to the effect of family-friendly measures on female promotion and wage hikes, we demonstrated that those measures do not

have a direct impact on female promotion and payment levels but that they are effective for increasing female employment years. Longer employment years are likely to facilitate personnel promotion and wage hikes.

It is necessary to note that these examination results are centered just on the pharmaceutical industry and that they are based on data obtained in the early phase in which demands for competitive performance evaluation systems and family-friendly policies only began to rise. As future tasks, it is essential to analyze updated data and assess policy effects with a focus on a wider range of areas in a recent situation where family-friendly measures have become more common.

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Figure 1: Changes in the Percentage of Female Personnel
in Managerial Positions (Total of Private Enterprise)

Figure 2: Structural Equation Modeling of Family-Friendly Policies

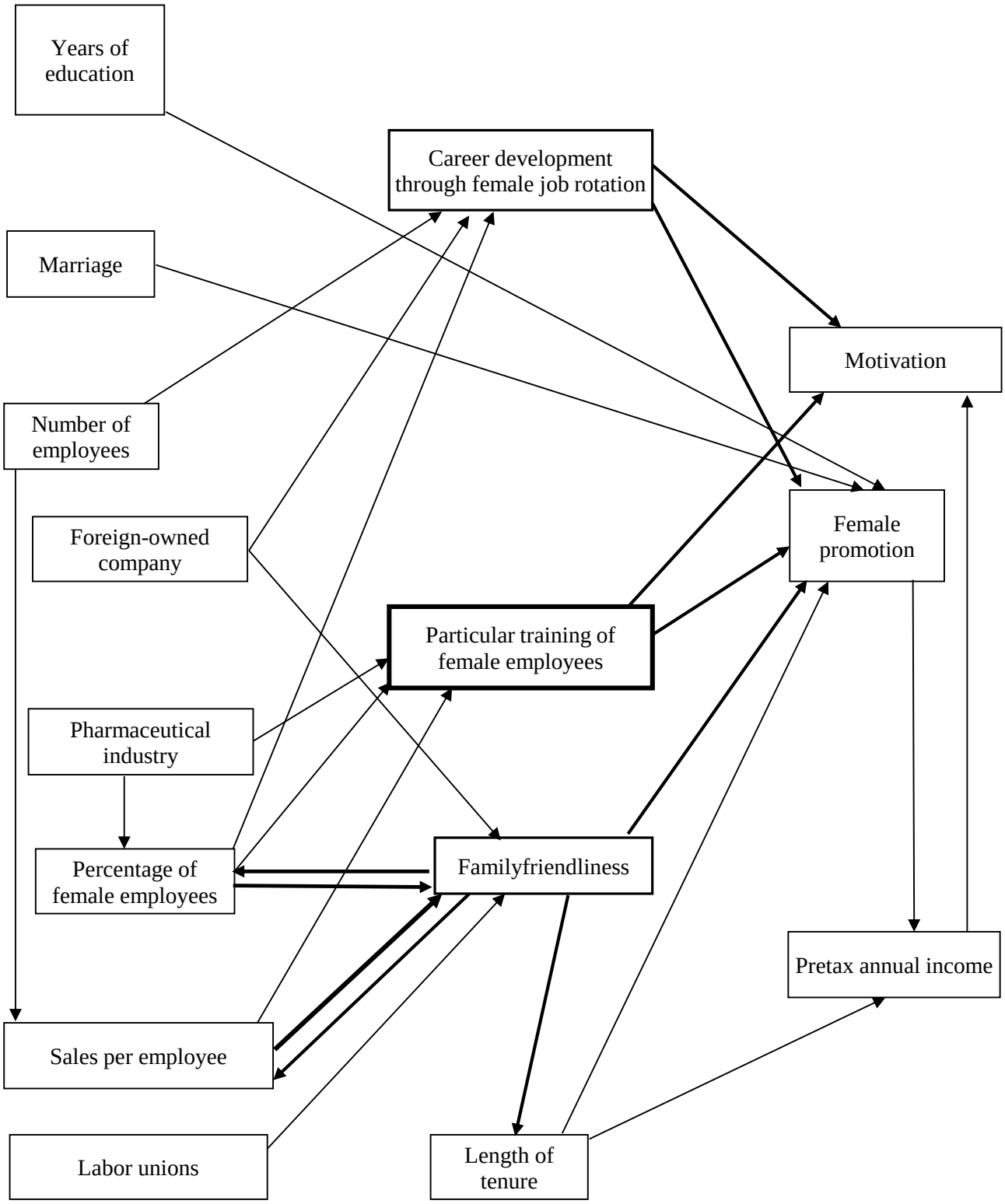

Table 3: Summary of Statistics (Mean)

	Variables	Means (the rate of 1 in the case of dummy variables)	Standard deviation (except dummy variables)
Corporate attributes	The number of employees	1046.266	2178.651
	Foreign-owned companies	0.152	
	Pharmaceutical companies	0.612	
	Labor unions	0.458	
	The percentage of female employees	0.31	0.154
	Sales per employee (males included) unit:	4252.121	8089.223
	The extent of family-friendliness	1.077	0.687
	Female career development through job	0.077	
	Particular training of female employees	0.119	
The attributes of female employees	Number of years of education	14.228	0.014
	Marriage	0.294	
	Service years	5.771	0.146
	Pretax annual income	407.545	149.424
	Managerial position	1.101	0.358
	Motivation level (four categories)	2.264	0.014

Table 4: The Percentage of Managerial Personnel by Gender and Job Type(%)

	The percentage of male managerial personnel	The percentage of female managerial personnel
R & D	28.60	2.49
MR	27.92	0.85
Production and distribution	11.86	0.30
The indirect sector	43.86	2.11
Total(%)	24.84	1.21

Table5: Decisive Factors for Female Promotion in the R&D Sector

	Marginal Effect	Standard Error	
Age	0.312	0.085	***
Married=1, others=0	-0.879	0.445	*
Award system for long service (yes=1, no=0)	2.278	0.524	***
Annual salary system (yes=1, no=0)	1.084	0.520	*
Reemployment system (yes=1, no=0)	1.017	0.723	
Fixed workplace system (yes=1, no=0)	0.887	0.567	
Head office in Tokyo	-2.467	0.640	***
Head office in Osaka	-1.184	0.360	**
Foreign-owned companies	3.778	0.923	***
Labor unions (yes=1, no=0)	-0.355	0.245	
Sample size	159		
Wald X^2 (10)	56.020		
P>X^2(10)	0.000		
Pseudo R^2	0.696		

Note: 1) Analytical method is the Ordered Probit Model. 2)***, **, and * indicate significance at the 1%, 5% and 10% levels respectively.

Table6: Decisive Factors for Female Promotion in the Indirect Sector

	Marginal Effect	Standard Error	
Number of years of education	0.302	0.140	*
Graduation from the pharmaceutical department	-0.883	0.385	**
Age	1.001	0.050	*
Married=1, others=0	0.181	0.052	***
Management by objective (yes=1, no=0)	0.609	0.320	
Promotion test system (yes=1, no=0)	-0.469	0.310	
Feedback on performance evaluation (yes=1, no=0)	-1.088	0.355	***
Nursery care leave system (yes=1, no=0)	-0.735	0.205	***
Child-care leave system (yes=1, no=0)	1.277	0.600	*
Short-time service and fixed workday system (yes=1, no=0)	0.583	0.254	*
Fixed workplace system (yes=1, no=0)	-0.343	0.246	
Particular training of female employees (yes=1, no=0)	1.399	0.215	***
Career development through job rotation (yes=1, no=0)	0.504	0.380	
Sample size	358		
Wald X^2 (13)	70.42		
P>X^2(13)	0.000		
Pseudo R^2	0.439		

Note: 1) Analytical method is the Ordered Probit Model. 2)***, **, and * indicate significance at the 1%, 5% and 10% levels respectively.

Table7: Structural Equation Modeling

Exogenous Variables		Endogenous Variables	Coef	P-Value
Number of years of education	--->	Managerial position	0.061	***
Married dummy	--->	Managerial position	-0.101	0.054
The number of employees	--->	Sales per employee	0.915	***
The number of employees	--->	Particular training of female	0.000	***
Foreign-owned dummy	--->	Female career development through job rotation	-0.089	0.108
Foreign-owned dummy	--->	Family-friendly measures	-0.549	***
Foreign-owned dummy	--->	Managerial position	0.012	0.061
Pharmaceutical manufacturer	--->	Percentage of female employees	-0.189	0.014
Pharmaceutical manufacturer	--->	Managerial position	-0.189	***
Percentage of female employees	--->	employees	0.706	***
Percentage of female employees	--->	Family-friendly measures	2.527	***
Percentage of female employees	--->	Managerial position	0.452	***
Sales per employee	--->	Particular training of female	0.000	***
Sales per employee	--->	Family-friendly measures	0.000	***
Dummy with labor unions	--->	Family-friendly measures	0.875	***
Female career development through job rotation	--->	Managerial position	-0.046	0.315
Particular training of female employees	--->	Motivation	0.159	0.277
Particular training of female employees	--->	Managerial position	-0.034	0.740
Family-friendly measures	--->	Percentage of female employees	-0.046	***
Family-friendly measures	--->	Sales per employee	-2282.351	***
Family-friendly measures	--->	Employment years	1.693	0.015
Family-friendly measures	--->	Managerial position	-0.032	***
Service years	--->	Managerial position	0.025	***
Service years	--->	yen)	9.812	***
higher	--->	Motivation	0.020	0.140
higher	--->	yen)	128.640	***
yen)	--->	Motivation	0.001	***