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GENDER DIFFERENCES IN EXIT RATES FROM UNEMPLOYMENT: EVIDENCE FROM A LOCAL FINNISH LABOUR MARKET*

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Exit rates from unemployment are analysed by distinguishing two destinations: employment and non-participation. Unlike most of the earlier empirical Finnish studies of transitions from unemployment, we allow for different behaviour of males and females. A database constructed from three register data files of the Employment Service of Vasa in 1996 is used. Results of the estimated duration models suggest that gender differences are foremost due to the closer attachment of men to the labour market, the family responsibilities affecting women, and the traditional gender structure of the Finnish labour market. Our results show that drawing conclusions when gender differences are not considered can lead to misperceptions. (JEL: J64, J70, C41)

1. Introduction

It is a well-known fact that men and women behave differently in the labour market (cf. Rubery *et al*., 1996; Wadsworth, 1991). Traditionally men have a higher labour market attachment than women and, although gender differences in labour force participation have narrowed substantially during the last decades, women still have a higher household responsibility than men. This influences labour supply, career possibilities, wage rates, etc (cf. Fagan and Rubery, 1996).

Many of the empirical papers that study the exit rates from unemployment (that is, the unemployment duration) in Finland (Eriksson, 1985; Holm and Tuomala, 1998; Kettunen, 1989; 1990; 1993; Lilja, 1993; Pääkkönen, 1992; Sääski, 1981) somewhat disregard the issue of gender behaviour in the labour market. Most of these studies do not consider that the effect of the different determinants may depend

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upon gender. They assume that gender only shifts the dependent variable and, consequently, do not estimate separate equations for each sex. In general, the results of these papers seem to be in favour of a higher exit rate from unemployment, or shorter unemployment duration, for women than for men (Holm and Tuomala, 1998; Lilja, 1993; Kettunen; 1989; 1990).

The effect of other explanatory variables, however, may also be dependent on gender. In such a case controlling gender by a shift variable leads to misleading conclusions about the determinants of the exit rates. In order to tackle this problem this paper focuses on a deeper study of the differences in the exit rates by gender.

Some of the empirical studies (cf. Sääski, 1981; Pääkkönen, 1992) analyse the flow from unemployment without distinguishing different destination states, and consequently make conclusions implicitly assuming that all transitions are from unemployment into employment. Negligence of this fact exaggerates the unemployed person's success in finding jobs (Eriksson, 1985, p. 106). Since determinants of the exit rate and their effects depend on the destination state (cf. Holm and Tuomala, 1998), we distinguish between two possible destinations from unemployment: employment and non-participation (i.e. out of the labour market).

Moreover, the reduced-form models that are frequently used to evaluate the microeconomic theoretical viewpoints of unemployment often disregard the demand side of the labour market. Constraints on the individual labour supply may affect the exit rate both into employment (Lilja, 1986; Sacklén, 1996) as well as into non-participation. Hence, the labour market environment must be taken into account in order to explain the observed behaviour of the unemployed individuals. In this paper the population under study consists of unemployed individuals with labour experience facing the similar local labour market conditions – those of Vasa. The advantage of this setting is that one may assume the sample individuals to be subject to a homogeneous labour demand. In order to capture the demand for specific types of labour in this local labour market, we have included some characteristics of the individuals' most recent job.

The paper is organised as follows. In the second section, the econometric model is specified given the characteristics of the database used. In section three, results from the estimation of the econometric model are shown and discussed. Finally, in the fourth section concluding remarks are provided.

2. *Data and method*

The database used is constructed from three register data files of the Employment Service (ES) of Vasa in 1996. It includes all citizens of Vasa who were registered as unemployed at the ES between the first of January and the eighteenth of September. This information includes some personal characteristics, the date of entry into unemployment, whether or not each individual left unemployment during the observation period, and, if he did so, when this happened. Hence, the time spent in unemployment is known and is measured in days. The sample is representative for the whole labour market district in the sense that, at the end of the observation period, the unemployment rate derived from the sample was 14.8%, while it was 14.4% in the whole labour market district. The sample (with 6,613 observations) consists of unemployed citizens of Vasa with reported labour market experience. They are less than 61 years old and are not studying. Individuals over the age of 60 have been excluded since the approaching retirement may affect their behaviour in the labour market.

The data allow us to distinguish between two destinations from the unemployment state: employment and non-participation (i.e. out of the labour market). Since individuals' decisions (those of the unemployed and those of the employers) generate the complete set of observed transitions, useful evidence can be obtained from a reduced-form model. Therefore, the probability of exiting unemployment after a certain length of time (called the hazard rate) is estimated. A competing-risks model is assumed since there are two possible destinations. Consequently, the hazard rate of exiting unemployment is given by the sum of the two transition

probabilities, one for each destination. A transition probability is defined as the probability of going to a specific destination (employment or non-participation) when having been unemployed for a certain period of time.

With the data at hand it is not possible to distinguish between a dependent-risks model and a model with independent risks (Kalbfleisch and Prentice, 1980, p. 174). Furthermore, theory does not suggest a specific parametric form for the model. The transition probabilities are therefore assumed to be independent, conditional on the explanatory variables, as is customary in the literature (cf. Gonzalo, 1998; Lilja, 1993). This implies that the transition probabilities for each destination can be considered as a hazard rate for each destination and be estimated as a single risk by treating spells that finish into other destinations as right censored (Narendranathan and Stewart, 1989). These spells will be censored not in the last day but in the next-to-last day in order to ensure that the individual does not exit into the destination that is being studied (Gonzalo, 1998).

To study the determinants of both transition probabilities a Weibull model[1] is estimated assuming that there is no unobservable heterogeneity. Hence, the transition probability of leaving unemployment to go into destination *k* (either employment or non-participation) after a period of time *t* is defined as:

$$(1) \quad \lambda_k(t;X) = \gamma_k e^{\alpha_k}\ t^{e^{\alpha_k}-1}$$

where γ_k is a positive parameter. The transition probability is increasing in duration if α_k is positive, decreasing if it is negative, and constant if it is null (Kiefer, 1988; Ondrich, 1985). The survival function, which is the probability that the duration of the unemployment spell is at least *t*, is defined as:

$$(2) \quad S_k(t;X) = e^{-\gamma_k t^{e^{\alpha_k}}}.$$

The parameter γ_k is specified as $\gamma_k = e^{\beta_k X}$ where β_k is a vector of parameters and X is a vector of time-invariant variables.

[1] *Kettunen (1989; 1990) and Pääkkönen (1992) also use Weibull models.*

As the transition probabilities are assumed to be independent, conditional on the explanatory variables, the log-likelihood function takes the form:

$$(3) \quad \ln L = \ln L_1 + \ln L_2$$

with

$$(4) \quad L_k = \prod_{h=1}^{H} [\lambda_k(t_h;X) S_k(t_h;X)]^{d_h} [S_k(t_h;X)]^{1-d_h}$$

where H is the number of unemployment spells in the sample; t_h is the maximum observed duration of the unemployment spell; and d_h is a binary indicator equal to one if the spell is finished and zero otherwise.

Nevertheless, since the individual is observed only during a specific interval of time, spells (finished or not) may have started before the observational time period. Therefore, the probability that a spell is sampled is proportional to its length, which is usually called *length-biased sampling*. Hence, to consistently estimate the transition probability, stationarity is assumed and each spell contribution to the likelihood must be weighted with the inverse of the survival function valued at the elapsed time as unemployed before the observed time interval (Lancaster, 1990, pp. 183–184).

Let t_{0h} be the elapsed time as unemployed before the observed time interval (t_{0h} will be zero if a spell begins at the first day of the observed time interval or later). The likelihood function for estimating the transition probability into destination *k* would then be:

$$(5) \quad L_k = \prod_{h=1}^{H} \frac{[\lambda_k(t_h;X) S_k(t_h;X)]^{d_h} [S_k(t_h;X)]^{1-d_h}}{S_k(t_{0h};X)},$$

which in log-terms can be written, taking into account expressions [1] and [2], as:

$$(6) \quad \ln L_k = \sum_{h=1}^{H} \{ d_h (\beta_k X + \alpha_k + (e^{\alpha_k} - 1) \ln t_h + e^{\beta_k X} (t_{0h}^{e^{\alpha_k}} - t_h^{e^{\alpha_k}}) \}.$$

Table 1. Distribution of unemployment spells by destination and gender (%).

Gender	Destination			
	Censored	Employment	Non-particip.	Total
Male	64.38	19.34	16.28	100
Female	64.60	18.01	17.38	100

Variables included in X are socio-economic characteristics of the individual such as gender, age, number of children and some characteristics of his/her most recent job. These job characteristics are: sector (public or private), enterprise size (whether the firm had less than 50 employees), and type of industries, such as, *Primary industries* (Agricultural occupation, according to standards of the Ministry of Labour), *Secondary industries* (Construction, Textiles and Graphical), and *Tertiary industries* (Professional, Health Care, Administrative, Sales, Transport and Services). When the occupation is not classifiable, we refer to it as *Undefined*.

Table 1 shows that unemployment spells ended due to employment are 19.3% for men and 18.0% for women, whereas unemployment spells ended because of non-participation are 16.3% for men and 17.3% for women. For the sample of men, the mean of unemployment duration is 241 days for the spells that ended due to employment, whereas it is 283 days for those that ended because of non-participation. For the sample of women, the corresponding figures are 227 and 290 days. Tables A.1 and A.2 in the appendix show the distribution of unemployment according to gender and other characteristics of the individual.

3. Results

Results of the estimation[2] of the exit rates from unemployment into employment and into non-participation for both men and women are presented in Table 2[3]. As can be seen, the effects of the determinants of both exit rates differ between males and females.

All the considered explanatory variables, except number of children and enterprise size for men, are significant for both sexes in the determination of the exit rate into employment (Table 2). When considering the exit rate into non-participation, we see that age and industries are significant for men, whereas age and number of children are significant for women.

Since the monotonic baseline hazard imposed by the Weibull model is fairly restrictive, we have to be very careful with drawing any far-reaching conclusions regarding the duration dependence. A duration dependent effect in a Weibull model may represent an "average" trend (Korpi, 1995). This is the case if there, for example, is negative duration dependence within a certain interval of the unemployment spell, while it is non-negative within some other.

Moreover, it has to be pointed out that estimated falling hazard functions may represent, at least in part, merely the effect of uncontrolled heterogeneity. When controlling unobserved heterogeneity by introducing additional explanatory variables, the hazard function could increase (Nickell, 1979; Lancaster, 1979). Since we use quite few explanatory variables, we must be very careful with the interpretations regarding the duration dependence.

Our Weibull estimates show that the exit rate into employment exhibits negative duration dependence, i.e. a decreasing rate of transition into employment as the duration of an unemployment spell increases, for both men and women (Table 2). This is in accordance with results from different countries (Korpi, 1995). Consequently, when bearing in mind the interpretation problems, increasing unemployment duration seems to decrease the job offer probability (due to an observed decrease of the worker's human capital or a signaling effect), or to increase the possibility of discouragement (if the search effort decreases with the time spent in unemployment). Table 2 also reports a high-

[2] *The software used is STATA (version 4.0).*

[3] *The duration of unemployment is measured in days. Hence, when studying the transition from unemployment into one state and the unemployment spell ends in the other, the spell is considered as censored in the next-to-last day, as it is explained in the second section of the paper. Therefore, if the individual was unemployed for only one day, the respective censored spell should have zero days of length, and the observation consequently drops out from the sample.*

Table 2. Hazard model estimates [a]

Variable	Exit into employment		Exit into non-participation	
	Male	Female	Male	Female
Age (years)				
Age	0.1073**	0.2628**	–0.2471**	–0.0128
	(0.0287)	(0.0314)	(0.0287)	(0.0297)
Age^2	–0.0022**	–0.0043**	0.0022**	–0.0010**
	(0.0004)	(0.0004)	(0.0004)	(0.0004)
Number of Children	–0.0065	–0.1627**	0.0551	–0.1141**
	(0.0459)	(0.0446)	(0.0589)	(0.0510)
Public Sector	–1.0995**	0.2421**	–0.7450**	–0.0869
	(0.1218)	(0.0932)	(0.1253)	(0.0980)
Industries[b]				
Primary	–0.4769*	–0.0289	0.4172*	0.3085
	(0.2879)	(0.3616)	(0.2179)	(0.2617)
Tertiary	–0.1385	0.2969*	0.2404**	0.1708
	(0.0885)	(0.1714)	(0.0950)	(0.1584)
Undefined	1.2127**	1.2872**	0.8042**	0.4884**
	(0.1220)	(0.2114)	(0.1634)	(0.2364)
Enterprise size <50 empl.	–0.1289	0.3322**	–0.0117	0.1414
	(0.0956)	(0.0929)	(0.1049)	(0.0961)
Constant	–6.4668**	–10.2470**	–1.7989**	–6.5990**
	(0.5011)	(0.5758)	(0.4866)	(0.5351)
Unemployment Duration [α]	–0.1991**	–0.1033**	0.0116	0.1794**
	(0.0317)	(0.0312)	(0.0328)	(0.0287)
Ln L	–4959.3274	–4572.0042	–4248.9819	–4407.2689
Ln L(0)	–5256.5034	–4858.1769	–4550.9149	–4753.9314
Number of observations	3299	3313	3295	3310

The reference individual has been employed in the secondary industries, in the private sector, in an enterprise with at least 50 employees.

[a] Standard errors are in parentheses.

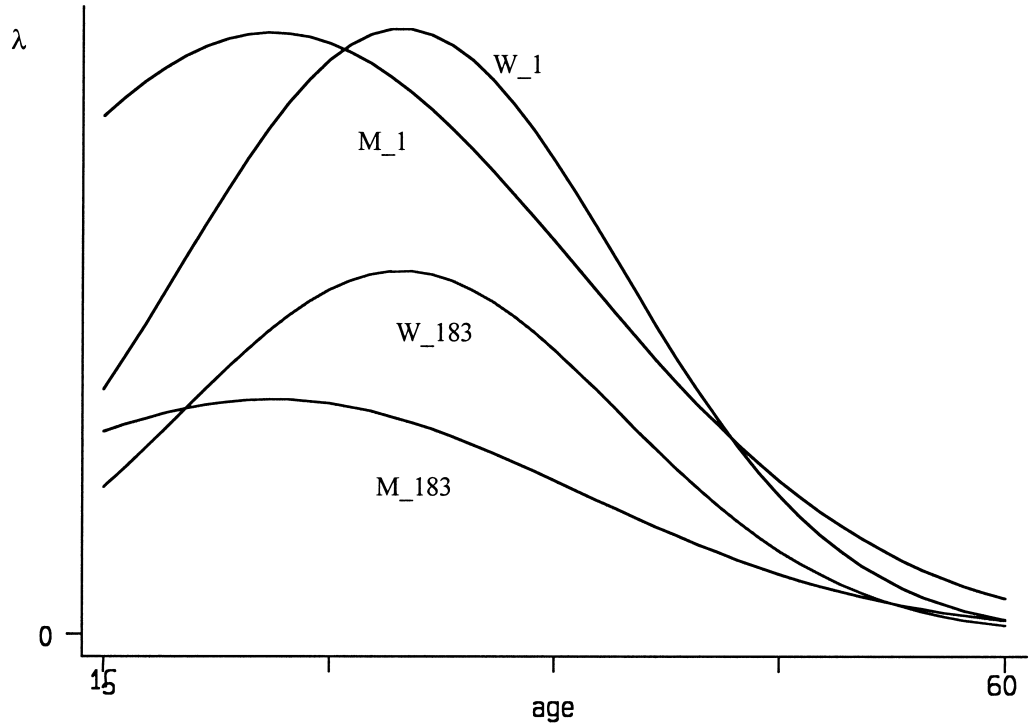
[b] We refer to Agriculture (according to standards of the Ministry of Labour) as *Primary industries*; to Construction, Textiles and Graphical as *Secondary industries*; and to Professional, Health Care, Administrative, Sales, Transport and Services as *Tertiary industries*. When the occupation is not classifiable, we refer to it as *Undefined*.

* Significant (10% level); ** Significant (5% level)

er negative effect, "on average", of unemployment duration on the exit rate into employment for men than for women. This suggests that, when the unemployment spell lengthens, employers penalise men more than women when they offer a job, since they implicitly assume that women have a lower attachment to the labour market than men.

The effect of unemployment duration on the "average" exit rate into non-participation is positive for women, while it is not statistically significant for men (Table 2). This corresponds with the findings of Lilja (1993). She points out that unemployed women have a higher probability of leaving the labour force voluntarily than similar unemployed men. Our result may reflect the lower commitment of women to the labour market, and a higher female payoff from household duties or education. The higher participation rate of men seems to induce them to remain unemployed for a longer time than women.

In Figure 1 and Figure 2 we have outlined the impact of age for each sex on the exit rate at two different spells of unemployment; one day and half a year. We can see that the impact of unemployment duration becomes less important as the individual becomes older. Moreover, the effect of age on the exit rate into employment exhibits a bell-shaped relationship for both sexes. Young workers, 25–30 years of age, are those who have the highest exit rate into employment, probably because these individuals in general are the most well educated (Education Statistics, 1996) and consequently have the highest job offer probability. Moreover, em-



M_1: Men with 1 day in unemployment; W_1: Women with 1 day in unemployment;
M_183: Men with 183 days in unemployment; W_183: Women with 183 days in unemployment.

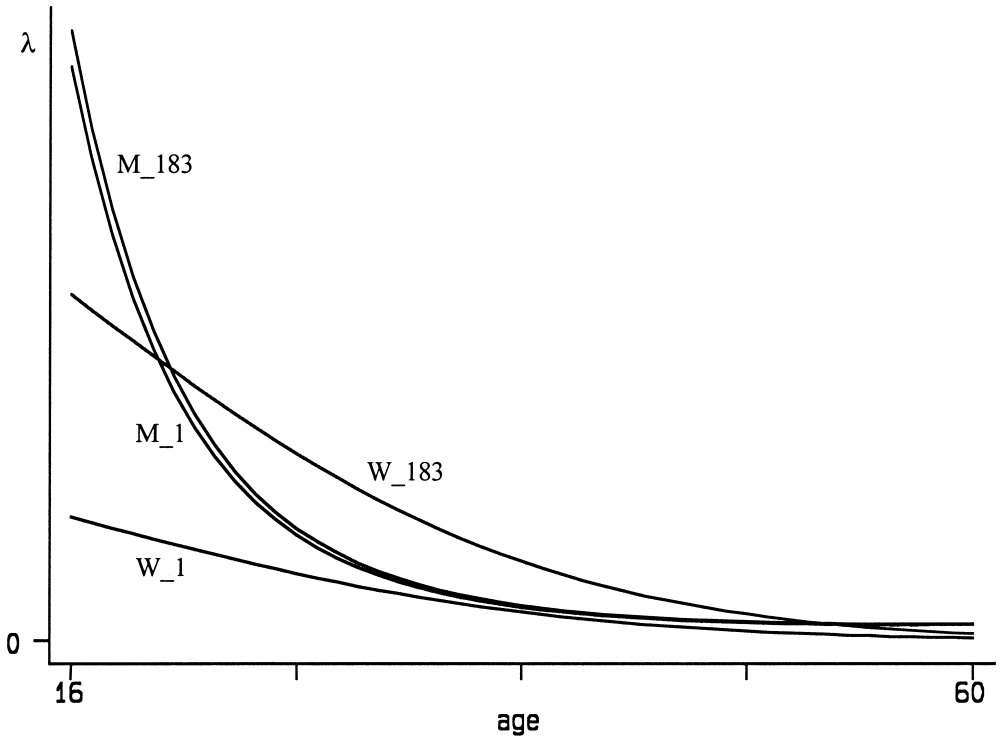
Figure 1. Transition probability from unemployment into employment by age and gender.

ployers' expected return of investment in young workers' on-the-job-training is also higher than that of older workers.

Unemployed males are most likely to exit into employment at the age of 25, while females are at their peak when they are five years older. Nevertheless, the difference decreases after the age of 30, which may be explained by the fact that gender differences in labour force participation are very small after this age (Finnish Labour Review, 1996, p. 24). Consequently, the employment probability seems to be more equalised between males and females when women have passed their most fertile age. Thus, the results reflect the "stylised facts" regarding the U-shaped relationship between age and unemployment, and are in accordance with the earlier Finnish studies. Nevertheless, the results also show that there are gender differences concerning the peaks of the distribution.

In Figure 2 we see that the exit rate into non-participation decreases with age. This is certainly because the payoff from education (i.e. from moving outside the labour market) is higher for younger workers. The exit rate is higher for young men than for young women, especially among recently unemployed individuals. Women over 20 years of age, who have been unemployed for half a year, on the other hand, exhibit a higher exit rate than men with similar characteristics. This is again due to the higher payoff for women from, especially, household duties. However, the gender difference tends to disappear as age increases.

The earlier Finnish studies show that the presence of children, independently of gender,



M_1: Men with 1 day in unemployment; W_1: Women with 1 day in unemployment;
M_183: Men with 183 days in unemployment; W_183: Women with 183 days in unemployment.

Figure 2. Transition probability from unemployment into non-participation by age and gender.

decreases the exit probability or, alternatively, increases unemployment duration. Our estimations (Table 2), however, point out that the number of children does not have any effect on the exit rate for males whereas it is significant for females. Females with children who have decided to search for a job seem to have a lower probability of being discouraged than females with lower family responsibilities, since children have a clear negative effect on the exit rate into non-participation. However, children have a negative effect also on the exit rate into employment for females. Consequently, women with children are less likely to decide to leave the labour market, despite the fact that they seem to have a lower job offer probability than those without children. Hence, family responsibilities induce females to uphold their search for a job, but employers seem to consider these women to be less productive since they by tradition are the ones who take care of the major part of the household duties, including the nursing of children. Thus, despite the increasing female participation rates during the past thirty years, which are mainly due to the growth of the participation of women aged 25–54 (Jepsen and Meulders, 1998, pp. 43–45), there are indications of gender discrimination.

Table 2 also shows that the exit rate into employment for men is lower if the previous job was in the primary industries than if it was in the secondary or tertiary ones. Further, it indicates that the highest exit rate is found among those whose previous job cannot be related to any of these categories (i.e. undefined). When studying the women we see that the exit rate

into employment is lowest when the previous job has been in the primary or secondary industries, while it is higher when having worked in the tertiary industries, and the highest when belonging to the undefined category.

These results must be seen in the light of the structure of the labour market. Consider that men constitute the main part of the workers in the primary industries, whereas women constitute a very large part of the employees in the secondary and tertiary industries (Employment statistics, 1998, pp. 303–326). Consider also that, during the past fifty years, one of the most apparent changes of the Finnish industrial structure is the substantial decline of the workforce that belongs to the primary industries (cf. Kukkonen and Laaksonen, 1989, p. 58). The negative effect of having worked in primary industries on the male exit rate into employment is therefore due to the low job offer probability for individuals who belong to this category. We can also see that this is not specifically the case for women (the effect is statistically not significant), since the share of women in the primary industries is low.

The effect of industries on the exit rate into non-participation is quite expected. A category that induces a low exit rate into employment has in general the opposite effect on the exit rate into non-participation, and vice-versa. However, an undefined previous job induces the highest exit rate both into employment as well as into non-participation for both sexes. On the one hand, the total number of jobs in the undefined category has not decreased as much as in the other categories during the era of high unemployment (Employment statistics, 1998, p. 298). The demand for these workers has therefore increased relatively. On the other hand their human capital is not occupationally specialised and their payoff from further education is therefore high. This explains why these workers also have a higher probability of leaving the labour force than the other ones.

There are also gender differences when it comes to the effect of previous sector of employment. Males who have worked in the public sector have a lower exit rate, both into employment as well as into non-participation, than those who have worked in the private sector. The opposite is the case regarding the exit rate into employment for women, while no significant effect is found when considering non-participation. These results are explained by the fact that the typical female job is most likely to be found in the public sector, while the opposite is the case for men (Ibid., 1998, p. 298). However, private sector experience also seems to have a discouraging effect on males, since the exit rate into non-participation is lower for those who have public sector experience.

In addition, the effect of previous enterprise size is different by gender. For women a small enterprise is associated with a higher exit rate into employment than a large one (i.e. more than 50 employees). The opposite is the case for men, but the effect is not statistically significant. The signs of the parameters for the exit rates into non-participation are the same as for those into employment, but the effects are not statistically significant. These results are also in accordance with the structure of the labour market. Women have in general an experience from a small enterprise (Ibid., pp. 288–291), and this makes them desirable for small firm employers.

Since we have estimated separate equations for each sex, and the parameter effects turn out to be different between the sexes, our results are not directly comparable, nor in accordance, with the previously mentioned earlier Finnish studies. The substantial gender differences found in the effects of practically all of the explanatory variables suggest that one must be very careful when drawing conclusions based on models which do not consider differences in male and female labour market behaviour.

4. Conclusions

There are reasons to believe that the labour market behaviour of men and women differs remarkably. Therefore, unlike most of the earlier studies in Finland, we focused our empirical study on gender differences in the exit rate from unemployment into two specific destinations: employment and non-participation.

The database that was used has been constructed from three register data files of the Employment Service of Vasa in 1996. It in-

cludes individuals who face the same local labour market conditions over a fixed period of time. Duration analysis with a Weibull model has been performed in order to study the determinants of the transition probability both into employment as well as into non-participation.

The empirical results suggest that the effects of the explanatory variables differ substantially between men and women. The differences found can be attributed to the closer labour market attachment of men and the family-related constraints affecting women, and are, consequently, in contrast with the commonly assumed implications of the increasing female participation rates during the past thirty years.

Men seem to be subject to a stronger negative duration dependence, regarding the exit rate into employment, than women. The exit rate into non-participation for women, on the other hand, exhibits positive duration dependence, while the effect for men is redundant. Since we use quite a few explanatory variables and the monotonic hazard imposed by the Weibull model is very restrictive, we, however, must be very careful with drawing conclusions regarding the duration dependence. Employers seem to penalise more longer term unemployed men than similar women when offering a job, probably because women are implicitly assumed to have a lower attachment to the labour market. The lower attachment of women, however, also seem to make them more likely to be discouraged, since the exit rate into non-participation is increasing in time spent in unemployment.

We also find substantial gender differences in the exit rates for individuals under the age of 30. Since women at this age are in their most fertile period, it negatively affects their exit rate into employment. On the other hand, young men are also more likely than young women to exit into non-participation, since their payoff from education at this stage is higher. These differences, however, decrease with age.

The most notable result is the effect of children on the exit rates from unemployment. There is no statistically significant effect on the exit rates for men, but women are more persistent in searching for a job as the number of children increases, maybe because of the increasing family responsibilities. Paradoxically, these women have a lower exit rate into employment than their male counterparts. This situation may arise if employers are more reluctant to offer a job to women with children, if they assume that these women are less productive due to their family responsibilities.

The gender differences in the effects of the variables related to labour experience are due to the demand for certain gender specific human capital. These results are in accordance with the traditional gender structure of the Finnish labour market.

Our study points out the importance of separately studying male and female labour market behaviour in reduced-form models for hazard estimations. Otherwise, there is a risk for mixed effects due to gender differences and, consequently, misleading conclusions about the determinants of the transition probabilities.

The gender differences in our estimations arise foremost due to the closer labour market attachment of males, the family responsibilities affecting females and the traditional gender structure of the labour market. A more flexible legislation towards maternity leaves, domestic childcare, education and employers' recruiting of workers could be a first attempt to equalise the effects of these gender differences.

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Appendix

Table A.1. Distribution of unemployment by gender, and characteristics of the individual and the previous job (%).

Variable	Gender		Variable	Gender	
	Male	Female		Male	Female
Age			*Sector*		
15–20	8.78	7.49	Private	65.47	55.40
21–30	33.52	33.56	Public	34.53	44.60
31–40	21.36	22.86	*Industries*		
41–50	17.59	19.58	Primary	4.73	2.29
51–60	18.74	16.52	Secondary	44.07	9.26
Children			Tertiary	46.04	84.67
'0	60.53	67.29	Undefined	5.15	3.77
1 to 2	31.11	26.83	*Enterprise size*		
3 or more	8.36	5.88	Large	43.13	48.40
			Small	56.87	51.60

Table A.2. Distribution of unemployment spells by gender, destination, and characteristics of the individual and the previous job (frequencies).

Variable	MALE				FEMALE			
	Destination				*Destination*			
	Censored	Employment	Non-particip.	Total	Censored	Employment	Non-particip.	Total
Age								
15–20	95	29	123	247	162	34	95	291
21–30	614	290	203	1107	567	266	278	1111
31–40	493	166	95	754	439	165	104	708
41–50	454	117	75	646	424	103	56	583
51–60	468	36	41	545	549	29	43	621
Children								
'0	1393	426	401	2220	1262	353	391	2006
1 to 2	602	164	119	885	685	195	151	1031
3 or more	129	48	17	194	194	49	34	277
Sector								
Private	1220	524	416	2160	1189	307	340	1836
Public	904	114	121	1139	952	290	236	1478
Industries								
Primary	118	13	25	156	1841	489	476	2806
Secondary	952	297	205	1454	42	10	24	76
Tertiary	1026	234	259	1519	224	38	45	307
Undefined	28	94	48	170	34	60	31	125
Enterpr. size								
large	1000	224	199	1423	1099	256	249	1604
small	1124	414	338	1876	1042	341	327	1710
Total	2124	638	537	3299	2141	597	576	3314
	(64.38%)	(19.34%)	(16.28%)	(100%)	(64.60%)	(18.01%)	(17.38%)	(100%)