

**2011 Modularization of Korea's Development Experience:
Operational Experience on Women's
Vocational Education and Training
Support System and Project**

2012

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2011 Modularization of Korea's Development Experience
Operational Experience on Women's Vocational
Education and Training Support System and Project

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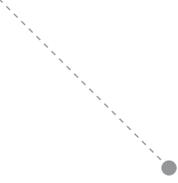


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Preface

The study of Korea's economic and social transformation offers a unique opportunity to better understand the factors that drive development. Within one generation, Korea had transformed itself from a poor agrarian society to a modern industrial nation, a feat never seen before. What makes Korea's experience so unique is that its rapid economic development was relatively broad-based, meaning that the fruits of Korea's rapid growth were shared by many. The challenge of course is unlocking the secrets behind Korea's rapid and broad-based development, which can offer invaluable insights and lessons and knowledge that can be shared with the rest of the international community.

Recognizing this, the Korean Ministry of Strategy and Finance (MOSF) and the Korea Development Institute (KDI) launched the Knowledge Sharing Program (KSP) in 2004 to share Korea's development experience and to assist its developing country partners. The body of work presented in this volume is part of a greater initiative launched in 2007 to systematically research and document Korea's development experience and to deliver standardized content as case studies. The goal of this undertaking is to offer a deeper and wider understanding of Korea's development experience with the hope that Korea's past can offer lessons for developing countries in search of sustainable and broad-based development. This is a continuation of a multi-year undertaking to study and document Korea's development experience, and it builds on the 20 case studies completed in 2010. Here, we present 40 new studies that explore various development-oriented themes such as industrialization, energy, human capital development, government administration, Information and Communication Technology (ICT), agricultural development, land development and environment.

In presenting these new studies, I would like to take this opportunity to express my gratitude to all those involved in this great undertaking. It was through their hard work and commitment that made this possible. Foremost, I would like to thank the Ministry of Strategy and Finance for their encouragement and full support of this project. I especially would like to thank the KSP Executive Committee, composed of related ministries/departments, and the various Korean research institutes, for their involvement and the invaluable role they played in bringing this project together. I would also like to thank all the former public officials and senior practitioners for lending their time and keen insights and expertise in preparation of the case studies.

Indeed, the successful completion of the case studies was made possible by the dedication of the researchers from the public sector and academia involved in conducting the studies, which I believe will go a long way in advancing knowledge on not only Korea's own development but also development in general. Lastly, I would like to express my gratitude to Professor Joon-Kyung Kim for his stewardship of this enterprise, and to his team including Professor Jin Park at the KDI School of Public Policy and Management, for their hard work and dedication in successfully managing and completing this project.

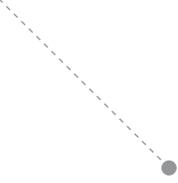
As always, the views and opinions expressed by the authors in the body of work presented here do not necessary represent those of KDI School of Public Policy and Management.

May 2012

Oh-Seok Hyun

President

KDI School of Public Policy and Management



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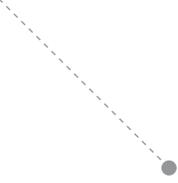
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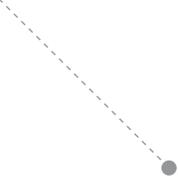
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Chapter 1

Introduction

Introduction

A major factor in Korea's remarkable economic development is its outstanding human resources development and vocational training policies, both of which have played a critical role in industrial development. In particular, a continuing increase in women's participation in higher education since the 1970s has played a pivotal role in Korea's economic development. With expansion of secondary education in the 1960s and 1970s, the number of women who enter the labor market has dramatically increased. In the 1980s and 1990s, the number of women receiving higher education grew, which led to a change in employment patterns for women. While most female workers had found jobs in the manufacturing industry in the past, women with higher education were likely to find white-collar, sales, and service jobs. Also, during this period, not only single women but also married women increased their participation in the labor market.

Korea's industrialization policy, which was the driving force of the 5-year Economic Development Plan beginning in 1960, stimulated many people to relocate from rural areas to cities. Young women under the age of 20 moved from farm villages to industrial complexes in cities and served as the core labor force of light industry development. At the time, the government required industrial corporations with over 1,000 regular employees to establish affiliated schools so that young women who worked in the companies could continue their studies. By recognizing schools within the industrial firm as a legitimate part of the regular academic system, the secondary education of women was carried out to a full extent from the 1960s to 1980s.

Starting in 1960, when Confucian culture was still deeply rooted in Korean society, women's job skills development projects were being carried out in cities and provinces. An agency formerly known as the Women's Center directed these projects. At the time, Women's Centers provided vocational training to married women in fields such as sewing, beauty treatment, dressmaking, and cooking, while at the same time providing literacy and

health education. They played a key role in the development of women in Korea. Since those initiatives, the educational attainment of women has improved, with vocational training and literacy education for married women taking place in a full swing, and women's economic participation has continuously increased throughout the 1980s.

However, with the advent of the Asian Financial Crisis, the labor market was polarized and job insecurity intensified. With rapid economic development, Korea joined the ranks of OECD member countries. Compared to OECD member countries with comparable economic scales, Korea ranked at the lowest level in statistics on women's employment and job security. Its causes are often traced back to the lack of measures and policies that enable work and family reconciliation of married women. Amid such internal and external conditions, Korea's regulations and policies on human resources development and utilization continuously improved. The Framework Act on Women's Development was enacted in 1995, and active measures to reduce discrimination against women were introduced, such as the Act on Gender Equality in Employment to promote women's economic activity. Going beyond resolving gender discrimination in the labor market, policies began to be introduced to train women, such as the women's employability development support measures, which were introduced before 2000 to women in lower income brackets. Part of a training program for the unemployed, job training for women breadwinners was implemented to improve women's abilities and help them secure employment. Policies on promoting the development of female human resources and employing women were institutionalized in the Women's Policy Master Plan by the Ministry of Gender Equality&Family in 2005. In accordance with the plan, women's employability development training was adopted in a full swing with the opening of the women's resources development center. With vocational training institutions for women, women who were unable to receive job training gained greater access to education. However, a majority of women left the labor market for reasons such as marriage, childbirth and childrearing and job training for women did not lead to long-term enhancement of women's participation in the labor market.

With continued career interruptions for women due to marriage, childbirth, and child care as well as external and internal environmental factors which make it difficult to reflect the effects of women's education to the performance of labor market, the Ministry of Gender Equality&Family in 2007 enacted the Act on Promotion of Economic Activities of Career-Interrupted Women to enable working women create a balance between work and family and help women enter the labor market. Amid internal and external environmental changes surrounding women's resources development, the Korean government has consistently worked to enhance women's economic participation and their quality of employment. Such efforts are embodied in the new occupation for women project which is jointly administered by the Ministry of Gender Equality&Family and the Ministry of Employment and Labor.

Looking at the laws, regulations and projects which the Korean government has worked through to improve the quality of employment for women and promote women's economic participation for the past half century, this report aims to review the social changes that

have led to the enactment of laws and regulations for women as well as providing examples to help developing and underdeveloped countries in their efforts to promote women's participation in the labor market and enhance quality of jobs for women.

2011 Modularization of Korea's Development Experience
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Chapter 2

Background for Introduction of Women's Vocational Competency Development Support System

1. Improvement of Women's Educational Attainments
2. Expansion and Limit of Women's Economic Activities
3. Women's Economic Activities and Development
of a Childcare System

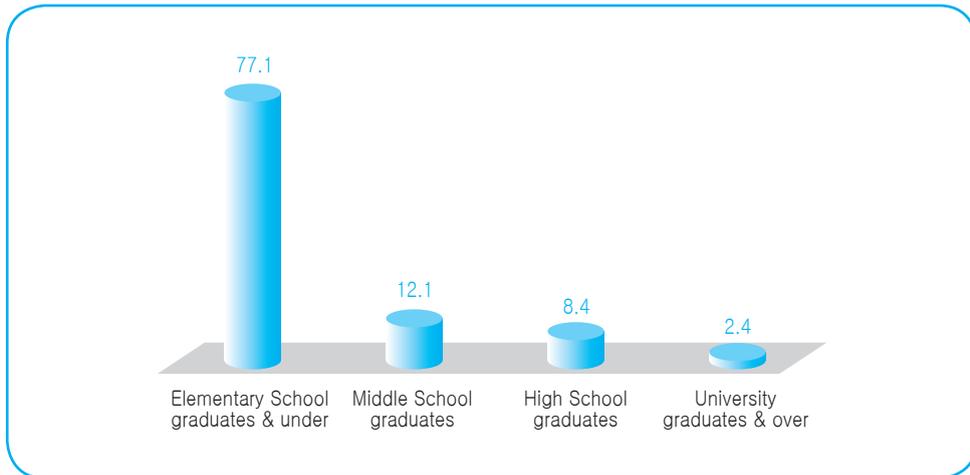
Background for Introduction of Women's Vocational Competency Development Support System

The advancement of a women's employability development system in Korea reflects the contribution of women to Korea's economic development and expectations about their contribution to the Korean economy in the future. This chapter reviews improvements in women's educational attainments as modern education system developed after Korea's independence from Japanese colonialism in 1945, the increased participation of women in economic activity, barriers that hinder women from participating in economic activity and regulatory efforts to overcome those barriers as parts of an analysis of the contributions of women in modern Korea's past and in anticipation of their future contributions.

1. Improvement of Women's Educational Attainments

Dramatic changes in the participation of Korean women in economic activity resulted from the rapid industrialization of the Korean economy under the "Economy First" state project of the 1960s. In the 60s illiteracy rate for Korean women recorded 12.9%, reflecting their low level of education attainment prior to that year. In 1975, women with elementary school graduates or less amounted to 77.1%, middle school graduates made up 12.1%, high school graduates 8.4%, and those higher than college education attainment were at a mere 2.4%.

Figure 2-1 | Korean Women's Educational Attainments (1975)

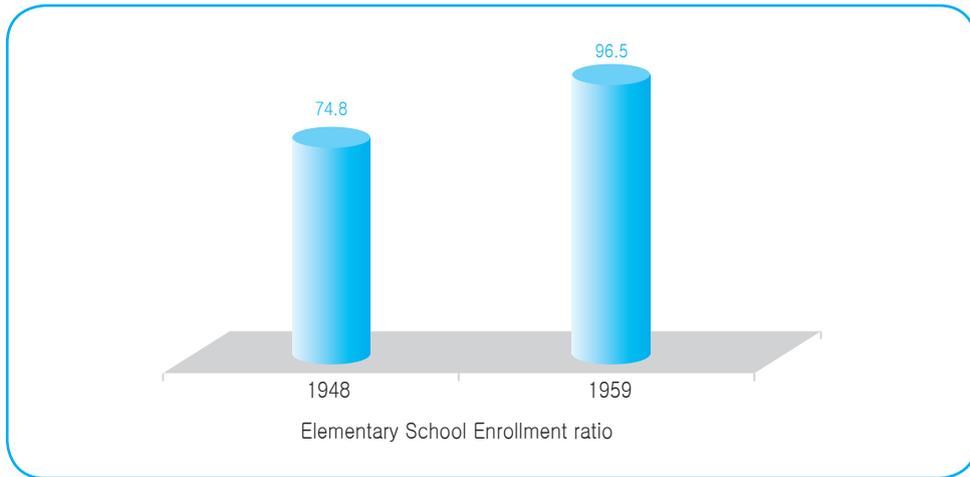


Source: The Korean Economy: Six Decades of Growth and Development

However, women's education levels improved remarkably from the late 1970s when industrialization took off in full swing until 1995 just before "the IMF," as Koreans refer to the economic crisis that hit Asia, and especially Korea in the late 1990s. With the increase in the population of women with high education attainment in the 1980s, the gender gap in university attendance started to decrease dramatically and in the 1990s, the gap further narrowed to an insignificant difference. In recent years, the enrollment rate of women in university is reported to be higher than that of men.

The above-mentioned change was made possible by investment in education which started with the requirement that all children attend elementary school mandatorily after Korea's independence in 1945. Looking into the changes in women's education after independence, the Constitution (Article 16), established in 1948, stipulates that all citizens have an equal right to receive education regardless of gender and that elementary school shall be mandatory and free of charge. Despite delays in improvements due to the Korean war, the rate of elementary school enrollment increased to 96.5% in 1959 from a mere 74.8% in 1948.

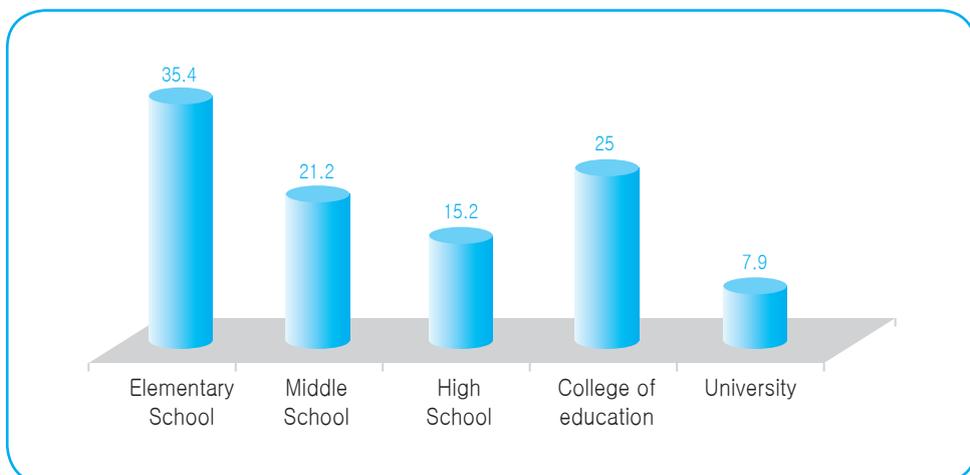
Figure 2-2 | Elementary School Enrollment Ratio (1948-1959)



Source: The Korean Economy: Six Decades of Growth and Development

As can be seen in below figure on the ratio of female graduates for each school level in 1952, the ratio of women stood at 35.4% among elementary school graduates, 21.2% among middle school graduates, 15.2% among high school graduates, 25% among college of education graduates and 7.9% among all college graduate.

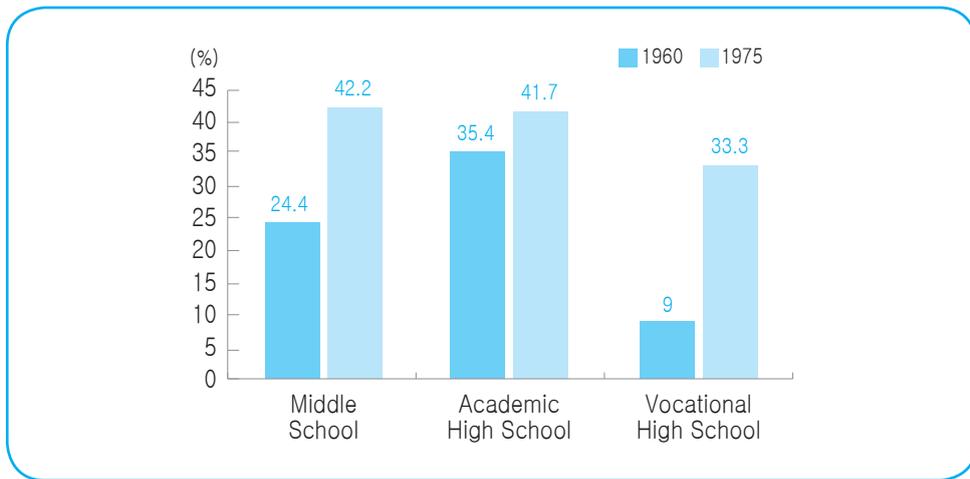
Figure 2-3 | Female Graduates' Rate by Educational Attainments (1952)



Source: The Korean Economy: Six Decades of Growth and Development

Women's education developed in full swing beginning in the 1960s. The disparity in elementary school education between genders was insignificant, with female students accounting for 45.4% of the total attending in 1960 and 48.7% in 1975. However, the ratio of female students soared from 24.4% in 1960 to 42.2% in 1975 for middle schools, from 35.4% in 1960 to 41.7% in 1975 for regular high schools, and from 9% in 1960 to 33.3% in 1975 for vocational high schools. During this period, the government endeavored to expand opportunities to attend vocational high schools to produce more skilled workers. Consequently, the ration and number of female students increased faster in vocational high schools than in regular high schools (The Committee on the Sixty-year History of the Korean Economy, 2010).

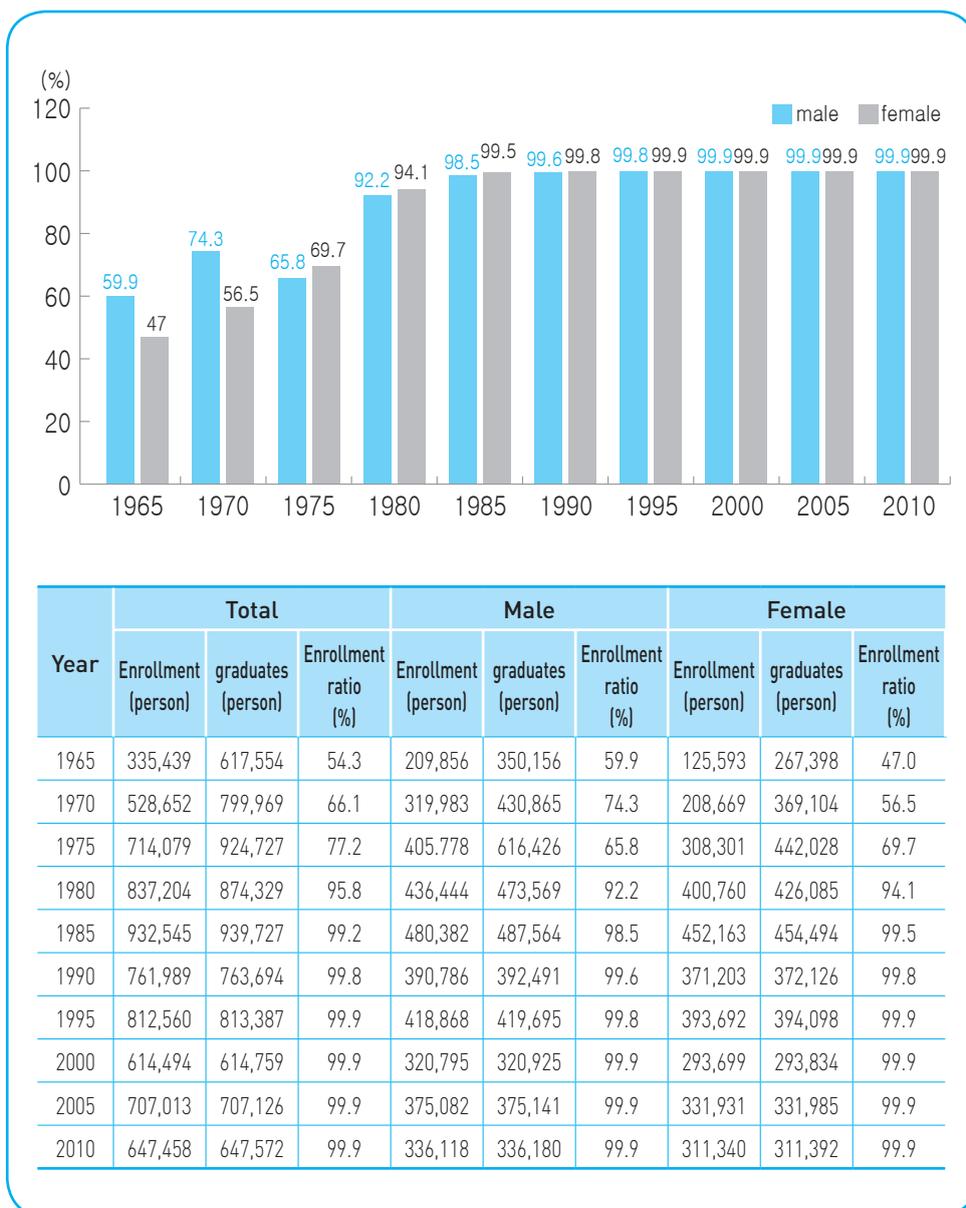
Figure 2-4 | Expansion of Women's Educational Opportunities (1960-1975)



Source: The Korean Economy: Six Decades of Growth and Development

After 1971, entrance examinations for middle school were abolished nationwide, and the high school equalization policy was introduced in 1974, opening up the era of secondary education for all Koreans. In 1985, 99.5% of female elementary school graduates enrolled in middle school, a figure which increased to 99.9% in 1995. That figure remains at 99.9% as of 2010.

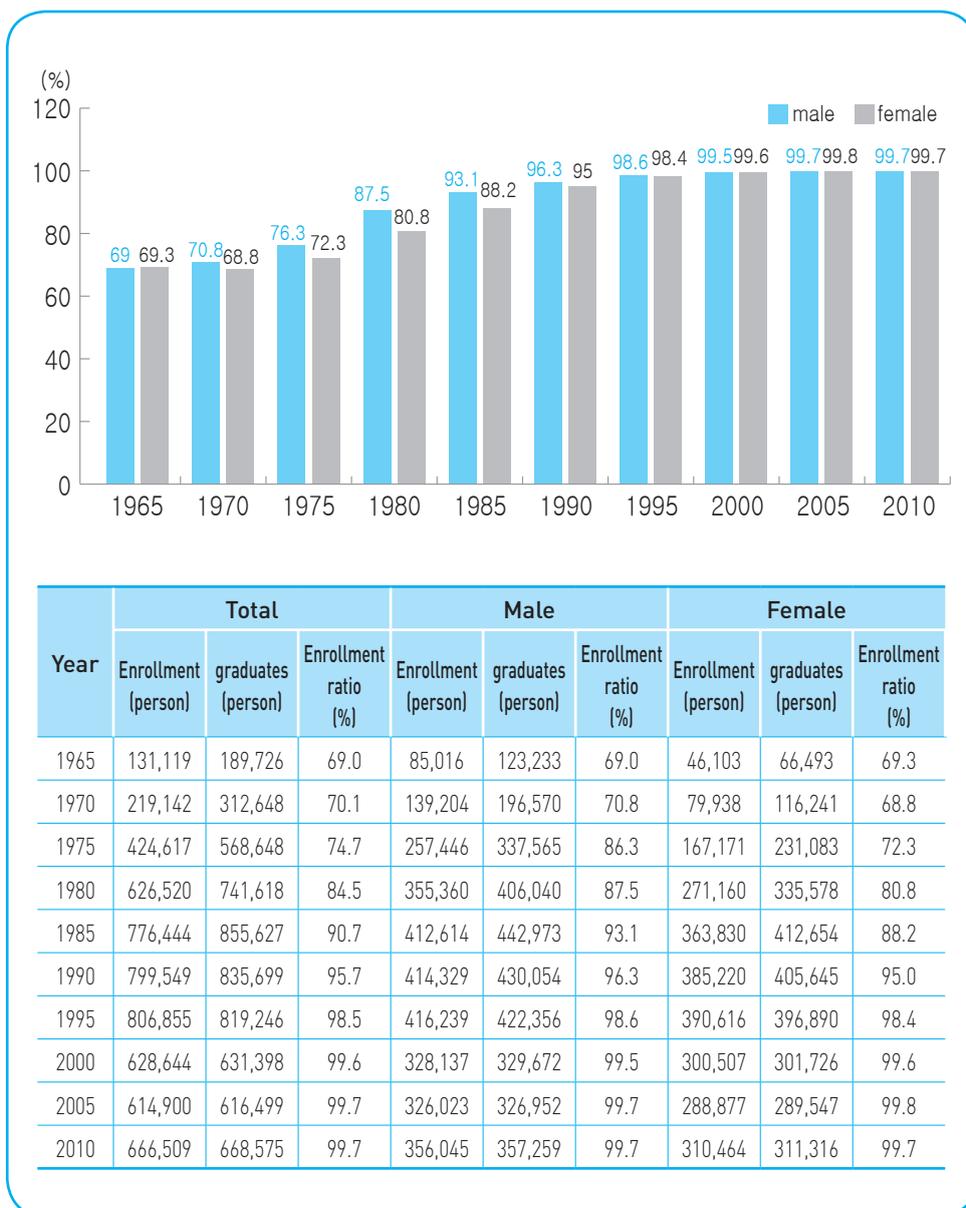
Figure 2-5 | Middle School Enrollment Ratio by Gender (1965-2010)



Sources: Statistical yearbook of education (1965~1990), Statistical yearbook of education (1995~2010).

The total proportion of female students enrolling in high school was at 88.2% in 1985, 98.4% in 1995, and 99.7% in 2010.

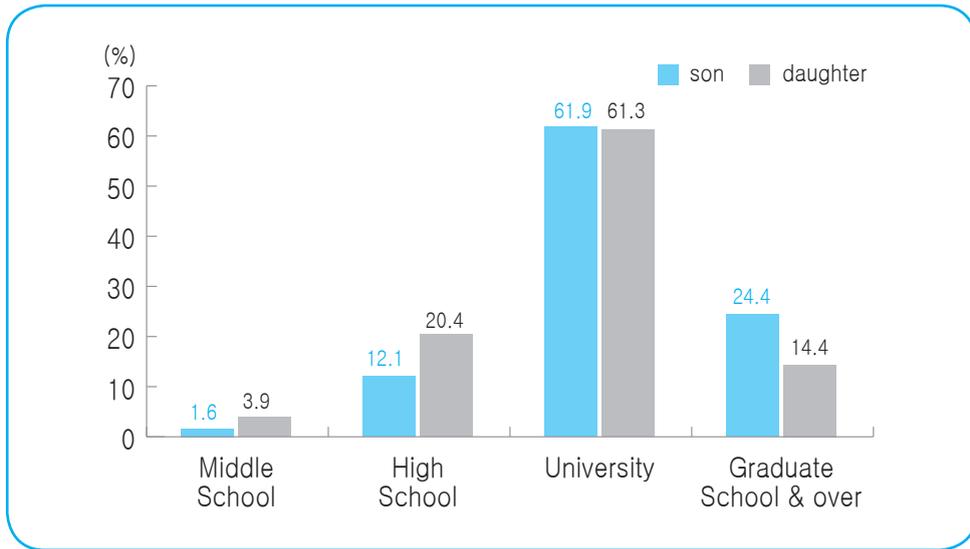
Figure 2-6 | High School Enrollment Ratio by Gender (1965-2010)



Sources: Statistical yearbook of education (1965~1990), Statistical yearbook of education (1995~2010).

Secondary education was popularized for both sexes, but the number of male students continued to stay ahead of female students in higher education opportunities. Social indicator statistics from the 1990s indicate that parents expected boys to attain higher education levels than girls. However, after the 1990s, women’s enrollment in universities rapidly increased, and the gender disparity in higher education became almost non-existent.

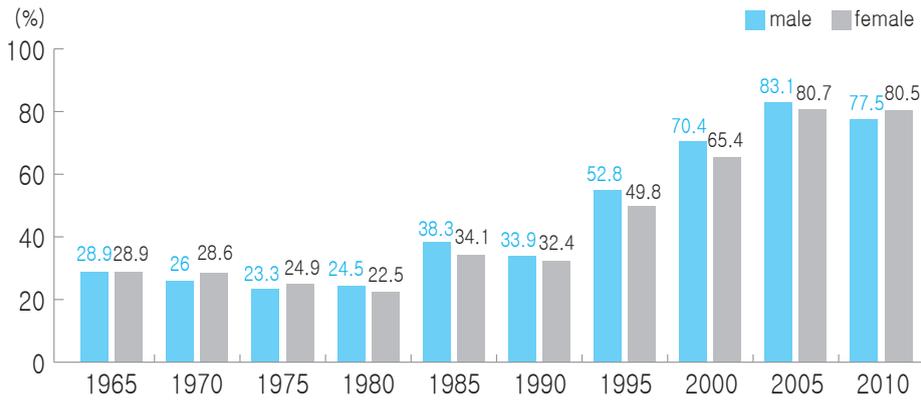
Figure 2-7 | Expected Level of Education by Gender (1990)



Source: Statistics Korea. Social Indicator of Korea.

The university entrance rate for women was at 28.9% of all high school graduates in 1965, similar to that of boys for the corresponding period, 34.1% in 1985, and 49.8% in 1995. As of 2010, the figure stands at 80.5%.

Figure 2-8 | University Enrollment Ratio by Gender (1965-2010)

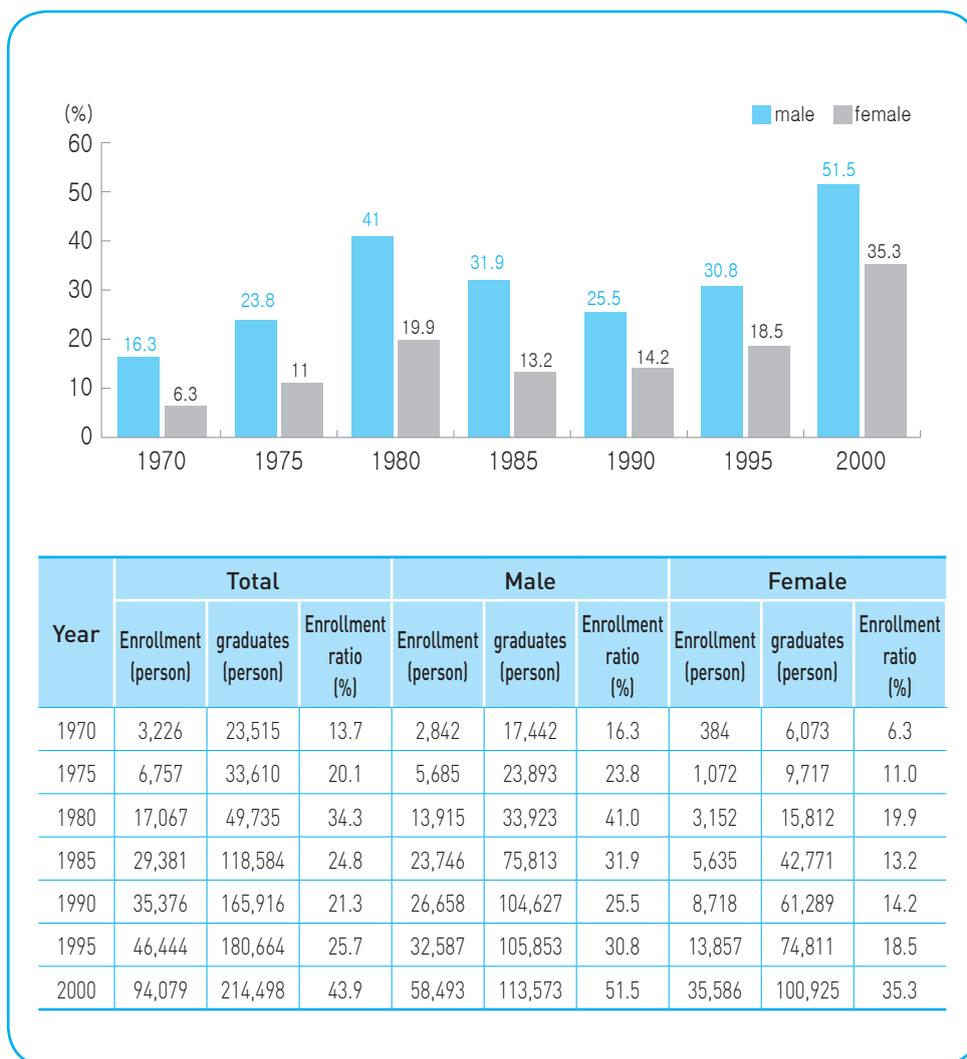


Year	Total			Male			Female		
	Enrollment (person)	graduates (person)	Enrollment ratio (%)	Enrollment (person)	graduates (person)	Enrollment ratio (%)	Enrollment (person)	graduates (person)	Enrollment ratio (%)
1965	37,378	129,301	28.9	24,852	85,924	28.9	12,526	43,377	28.9
1970	39,073	145,062	26.9	24,325	73,477	26.0	14,748	51,585	28.6
1975	63,055	263,369	23.9	37,659	161,311	23.3	25,396	102,058	24.9
1980	110,817	467,388	23.7	67,312	274,311	24.5	43,505	193,077	22.5
1985	233,737	642,354	36.4	135,043	352,982	38.3	98,694	289,382	34.1
1990	252,831	761,922	33.2	137,992	407,086	33.9	114,839	354,836	32.4
1995	333,950	649,653	51.4	178,678	338,115	52.8	155,272	311,538	49.8
2000	519,811	764,712	68.0	277,654	394,636	70.4	242,157	370,076	65.4
2005	468,141	571,213	81.9	248,274	298,770	83.1	219,867	272,443	80.7
2010	500,282	633,539	78.9	257,695	332,265	77.5	242,587	301,274	80.5

Sources: Statistical yearbook of education (1965~1990), Statistical yearbook of education (1995~2010).

However, gender disparity can still be seen in postgraduate education. Graduate school enrollment by males was at 16.3% of all college graduates in 1970 and 6.3% for females, a gap of 10%. In 2000, more female students enrolled in graduate schools, bringing the ratio to 35.3% in 2000.

Figure 2-9 | Graduates School Enrollment Ratio by Gender (1965-2010)



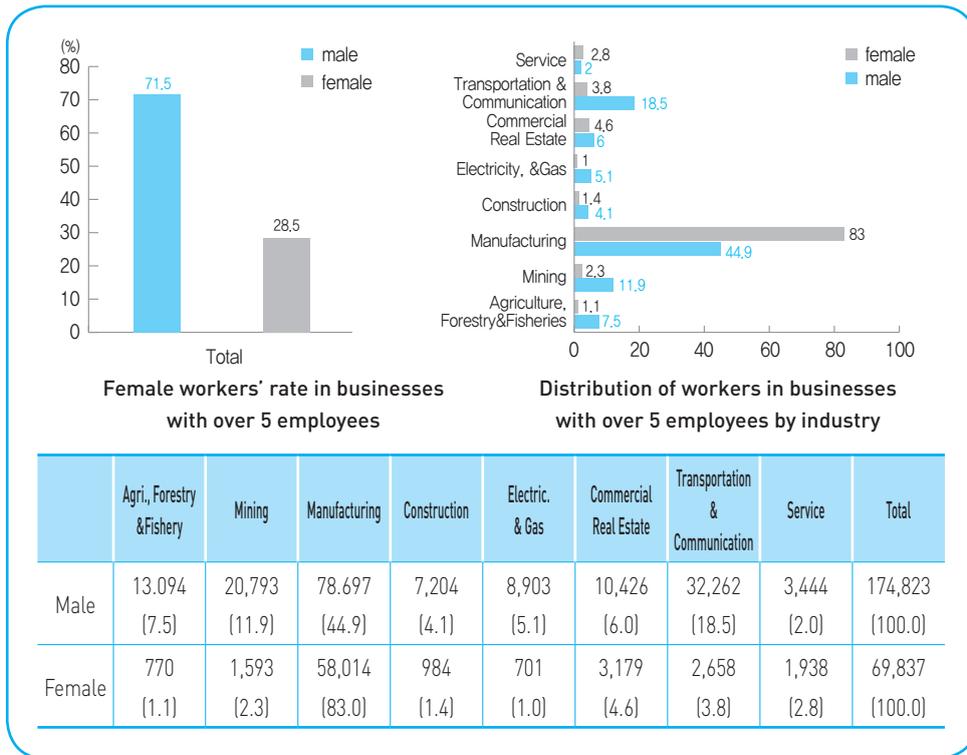
Year	Total			Male			Female		
	Enrollment (person)	graduates (person)	Enrollment ratio (%)	Enrollment (person)	graduates (person)	Enrollment ratio (%)	Enrollment (person)	graduates (person)	Enrollment ratio (%)
1970	3,226	23,515	13.7	2,842	17,442	16.3	384	6,073	6.3
1975	6,757	33,610	20.1	5,685	23,893	23.8	1,072	9,717	11.0
1980	17,067	49,735	34.3	13,915	33,923	41.0	3,152	15,812	19.9
1985	29,381	118,584	24.8	23,746	75,813	31.9	5,635	42,771	13.2
1990	35,376	165,916	21.3	26,658	104,627	25.5	8,718	61,289	14.2
1995	46,444	180,664	25.7	32,587	105,853	30.8	13,857	74,811	18.5
2000	94,079	214,498	43.9	58,493	113,573	51.5	35,586	100,925	35.3

Sources: Statistical yearbook of education (1965~1990), Statistical yearbook of education (1995~2010).

2. Expansion and Limit of Women’s Economic Activities

In the turbulent era of turbulence after Korea’s independence in 1945 through establishment of the Korean government until the Korean War (1950), most female workers engaged in agriculture and there were only small numbers of paid workers. Nevertheless, according to 1957 statistics, the number of female employees reached 69,837 in businesses with over 5 employees, accounting for 28.5% of total workers. Of those female workers, 83% were engaged in manufacturing industry and a mere 1~5% for other industries. These figures indicate that the majority of paid female employees were confined to manufacturing industry.

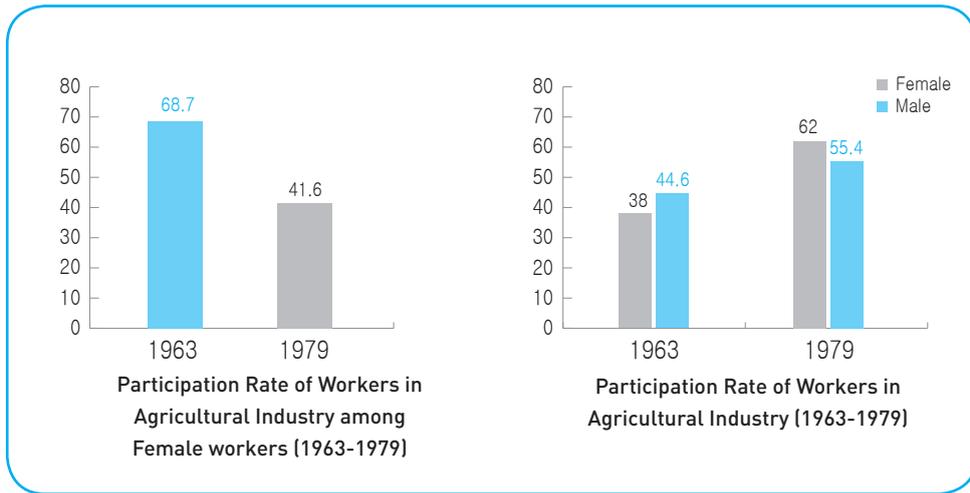
Figure 2-10 | Distribution of Workers in Businesses with Over 5 Employees by Industry (1957)



Sources: The Korean Economy: Six Decades of Growth and Development

Meanwhile, through the 1960s and 1970s, the number of female workers in agriculture, fishery and forestry industries dramatically fell. According to 1963 statistical data, that year 63% of all female workers were engaged in agriculture, but in 1979 the rate fell by 25% to 41.6% of the female workforce. However, a comparison between male and female workers in the agriculture industry showed an increased ratio for women, going from 38% to 44.6%.

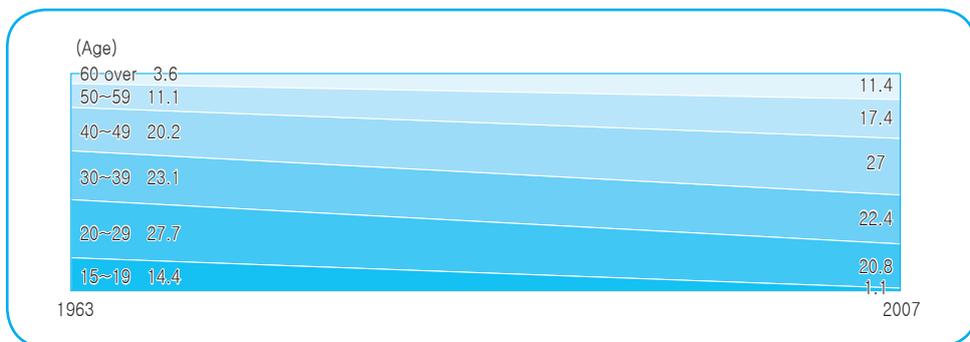
Figure 2-11 | Participation Rate of Workers in Agricultural Industry (1963-1979)



Source: The Korean Economy: Six Decades of Growth and Development

During this period, the economic sector in which the number of female workers increased the most was the manufacturing industry. Among female workers of this period, young workers ages from 15 to 19 accounted for 14.4% of the total. This young female workers' rate surpassed 17% in the early 1970s.

Figure 2-12 | Age Distribution of Female Workers (1963-2007)



Source: The Korean Economy: Six Decades of Growth and Development

An increase in women's economic activities was triggered by an economic development plan that was implemented by after the May 1961 Coup d'État. Women's participation in economic activities faced a new phase after the 1960s. The economy started to grow, supported by labor intensive enterprises in the textile, clothing and leather industries as well as the government's continuing development policies which proved to be successful. Successful economic development was made possible largely thanks to the sacrifices of young single women who moved from rural areas to the cities in search of jobs and worked for 12 hours a day, living in poor circumstances. Most of these women were reported to have left agricultural villages and found work in industrial complexes located in free export zones. In the 1960s, light industry including labor intensive textile, food and electronic assembly enterprises were at the forefront of industrialization, which led to the establishment of large-scale factories and industrial facilities in the cities where young women continued to move in search of work. These women who left agricultural villages and moved to cities mostly found work at unskilled labor-intensive occupations and worked long hours for low wages. Their hard work and sacrifice formed the foundation of industrialization of Korea. Because of these social and environmental trends, Korea's female workforce was recorded at 2.835 million in 1963 or 37% of the total working population and that figure nearly doubled in 1979 to 5.349 million or 43.3% of the total workforce. The female manufacturing workforce increased six-fold from 180,000 in 1963 to 1.23 million in 1979. This trend mirrored overall labor statistics which showed the number of workers in manufacturing industries soaring from 6.9% to 23.5%. The female labor force increased by an average annual 3.9% in the 1960s and 5.0% in the 1970s, despite temporary setbacks due to oil price shocks in the 1970s.

The early stage of industrialization was led by a growth ideology of "growth first, distribution later," which on one hand stimulated economic participation by women, while on the other hand serving as a factor that caused the female workforce to toil mostly at difficult and low-wage occupational categories. The majority of unskilled women workers were in poor working environments with lower wages than what men received. After the mid-1970s, heavy and chemical industry with a largely male workforce led the way in economic development. The labor market was divided by gender at this time, with the male workforce mostly filling jobs in the heavy and chemical industries and the female workforce engaged in light industry such as textile and rubber manufacturing. The shift from light industry to heavy and chemical industry was largely affected by the government's economic development strategy. In the early stages of development, the economy started off with light industry such as textiles, garment and wig manufacturing because of low labor costs. However, the comparative advantage from cheap labor weakened with economic development and the need to strengthen Korea's capital intensive industries was raised. Consequently, the government concentrated on developing the heavy and chemical industry sectors represented by petrochemical, chemical and automobile industries beginning in the mid 1970s. Economic development policies centering on heavy and chemical industry led to a decrease in female employment and the ratio of female production workers fell to 22.4%

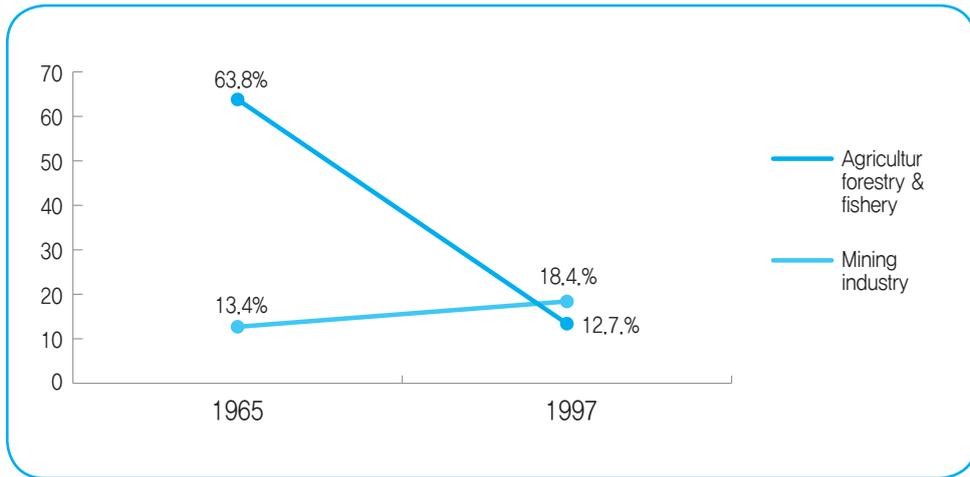
after the 1970s. However, more women found work in white collar, service and sales jobs, bringing changes to the occupations and industries where women were most employed.

After the 1980s, more women received higher education and office and service jobs rapidly grew. Due to this change in the labor market, more women found work in tertiary (service) industries than in secondary (manufacturing) industries. Young women in their early 20s who had received secondary and vocational education landed jobs in service industries and offices.

Until the 1970s, the nation's human resource policy was centered on vocational training of a young workforce with low levels of education to develop a competent skilled workforce. Most workers were production employees in industrial complexes living in dormitories near their work location. They worked at factories during the day and pursued education with night schools and in-company training programs after work.

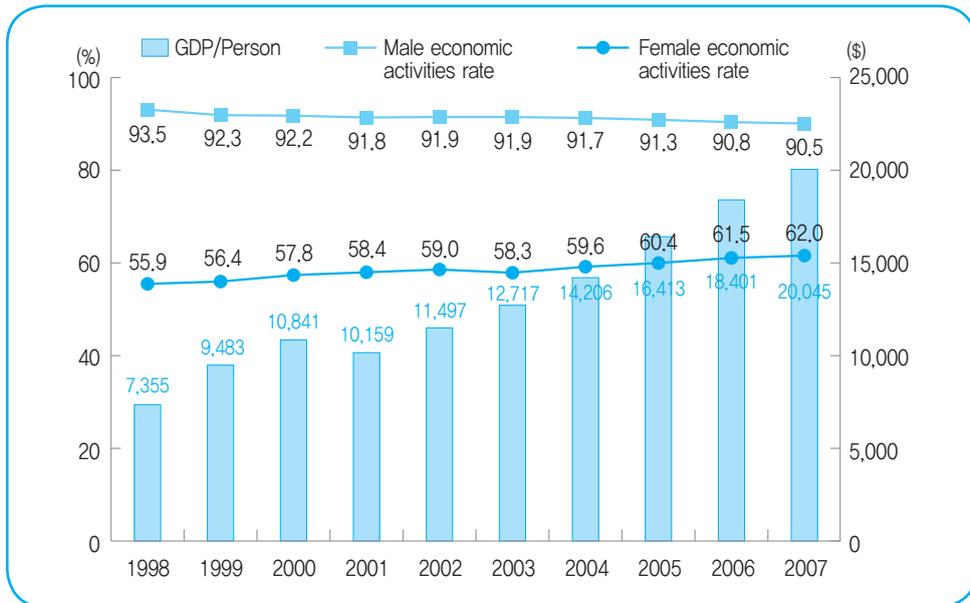
The 5-year economic development plans which were pursued since the 1960s terminated in the 1980s and the government's industrialization policy changed from a state-centered approach to one that was more market-centered. During this period, Korea's Gross Domestic Product (GDP) recorded a remarkable increase along with the boom of global economy and changes in its industrial labor structure were inevitable. With the rise in GDP, the service industry expanded and more women worked in service and sales jobs than in the manufacturing industry. Overall, the economic participation of women in Korea increased. Along with more women receiving higher education, workforce participation by married women has increased since the 1990s. Looking into employment structure, increases in the manufacturing sector slowed down, affecting women more strongly than men in the manufacturing industry in the late 1980s as wages increased and more workers tended to avoid "3D jobs" (dirty, dangerous and demanding). With industrialization, for a 30-year period from the 1960s to the 1990s, the industrial structure changed from the one being centered on primary industry to tertiary industry and the employment structure for women has also changed rapidly. Comparing the female workforce by industry in 1965 and 1997, the ratio of women workers fell drastically from 63.8% to 12.7% in primary industries such as agriculture, forestry and fishery, while the rate increased from 13.4% to 18.4% in secondary industries such as mining and manufacturing. This indicates that a majority of today's female workforce is engaged in tertiary industry.

Figure 2-13 | Ratio of Female Workforce by Industry (1965, 1997)



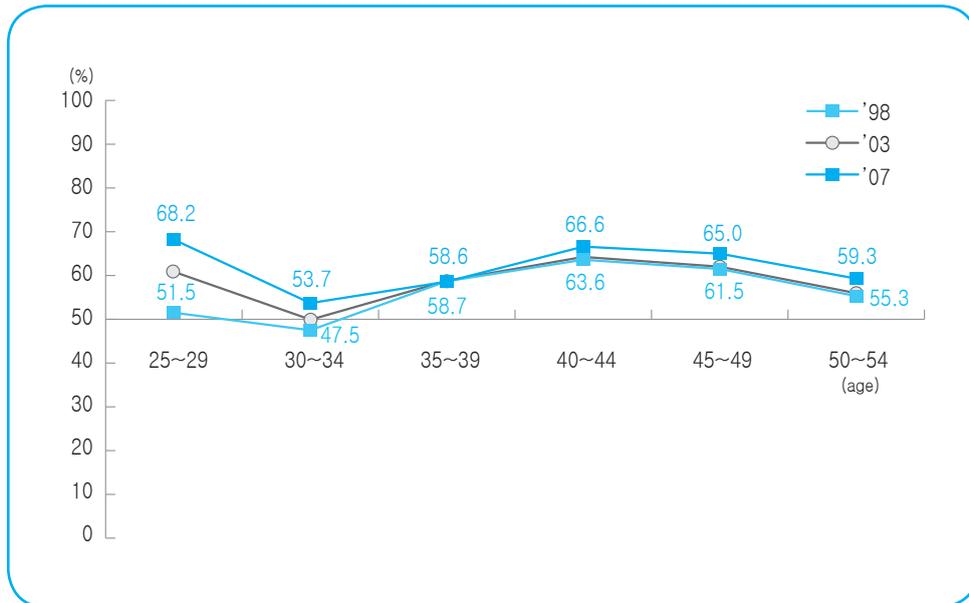
Source: Statistics Korea. Economically Active Population Survey.

Figure 2-14 | Economic Activities Rate Relative to GDP by Gender



A major change in the Korean female working population since 1990 is the increased labor market participation by married and older women. Up until the 1980s, labor market participation by single women reached 50.8%, much higher than a 40% figure for married women. However, in the 1990s, the rates stood at 46.5% and 47.2%, respectively. This indicates similar employment rates for younger and older women (over 40).

Figure 2-15 | Women's Economic Activities Rate by Age (1998-2007)



However, from the late 1990s to 2000 to the present, the employment rate of younger women has risen to 70% while that of older women remained at 50% range. As such, the employment of Korean women by age statistically forms an “M” shape. This indicates that while employment for young women has increased, most of these women leave the labor force when they get married. Since the 1990s, more women have been receiving higher education. Yet, a low workforce participation rate by married women has been perceived to be a result from a lack of government measures to lessen married women’s burden in terms of housework and child care. The inclusion of female resources development for the first time in the 7th Five-Year Plan for Economic and Social Development is meaningful since it can be interpreted as recognition of the strategic importance of utilizing women’s resources. However, the plan’s perspective on the female workforce was still confined to utilizing them for simple labor.

The notable change in the employment trends of women over the past 40 years is the age-related change in the female workforce. In the 1960s early stages of industrialization, participation by women in the labor market was the highest among young women in their late teens and early twenties. At that time, women left the labor market in their late twenties when they married. In the 1990s, however, the pattern of women’s participation in labor market is an “M” shape in which the rate is low in the teens when girls go to school and at its peak in the early twenties before decreasing in the late twenties/early thirties when women are tied up with child rearing before rising again in the late thirties. This “M” shape model has been seen as a major factor of sluggish participation by women in labor markets since the Asian financial crisis of 1997 until 2011. This phenomenon can be interpreted to be based in the unstable childcare system, a chronic problem for Korean society.

3. Women's Economic Activities and Development of a Childcare System

As mentioned earlier, although female workers have continuously participated in the labor market for the past 40 years as a crucial factor in Korea's economic development, not much attention has been paid to creating a social system that can help strike a balance between work, family and childcare. The absence of these kinds of policies is undoubtedly a reason why Korean women's economic participation has remained at the lowest level among OECD member countries during the past 10 years. Early childcare policies started out as a part of labor and family policy confined to protecting the children of working women and have evolved to more universal policies. Under the Child Welfare Act of 1961 a childcare center project was implemented and in 1982, the Early Childhood Education Promotion Act was enacted under which childcare centers and kindergartens were integrated into Saemaeul kindergartens. Despite these efforts, substantial impacts were not achieved, and in 1990, the Childcare Act was enacted, bringing about an introduction of the concept of childcare that integrates protection and education. From this point, the childcare project was pursued in full swing.

In the 1990s, the concept of childcare evolved from supporting women in their economic activities to securing the right of children and making an early investment in future human resources. After 2000, childcare policy was driven by the need to support women in creating a balance between work and family to help reverse a sharp decline in the nation's birthrate.

After 2000, the government's strong childcare policies were largely impacted by the desires of women to participate in economic activity and to provide early education to children. Along with changes in society, the need to utilize females in the workforce and an increase desire of married women to work, early education for children was also a need being raised. Reflecting these needs and changes, fostering youth in a healthy manner by providing an adequate environment and professional childcare services as well as promoting family welfare by providing support to parents and guardians with their economic and social activities were all emphasized. In particular, childcare support policies were strengthened to raise the country's low birthrate.

Despite a growing desire by women to participate in economic activity and contribute to family finances, the burden of child care hindered their ability to do so. As women received higher education, traditional stereotypes about gender roles weakened and the number of women wanting to participate in economic activities continued to increase. However, the rate of women participating in economic activity stalled in the 50% range from the 1990s until 2000. In particular, the "M" curve, in which the female employment rate decreased from late twenties to middle thirties indicated that economic activity by women was affected by pregnancy and child care. Because an established child support system was not in place, it was not cost-efficient for women to continue in their economic activities if they could not afford expensive childcare facilities and there were no grandparents to look after children.

Since enactment of The Childcare Act in 1991, childcare institutions have made substantial progress in expanding coverage. In an effort to provide support to facilities to operate childcare centers, the government started to subsidize labor costs for workers at public and foundation-sponsored childcare and education centers beginning in 1990 and expanded day care centers. Between 1994 and 1997, the government increased the number of childcare centers and the rate of children going to day care centers soared from 30% in 1994 to 95% in 1997. However, the increase of childcare centers during this period was mostly centered around private day care and educational facilities rather than public childcare facilities. Although public childcare centers expanded in quantity, their quality was reduced. In addition, although the number of childcare facilities increased, financial support for childcare was provided in full to low-income families and partially to lower- to middle-income families. Therefore, it could be said that in practical terms, no financial support for childcare centers was provided to those in the middle class. During this period, daycare facilities at workplaces increased by only 1.4%, insufficient to increase women's economic activity (The Committee on the Sixty-year History of the Korean Economy, 2010).

2011 Modularization of Korea's Development Experience
Operational Experience on Women's Vocational Education
and Training Support System and Project

Chapter 3

Development of Women's Job Skills Improvement Project

1. Early Stages of Policy on Vocational Education
for Young Females: 1960s-1970s
2. Development of Women's Vocational Program: 1980s-1990s
3. Women's Job Training Project by Target: After 2000

Development of Women's Job Skills Improvement Project

The Women's Employability Development Support Policy, also known as the reemployment support center for women, was introduced in 2008. The major reason for implementing the policy was because although Korea's per capita gross national income (GNI) and gross domestic product (GDP) continued to increase, with GNI surpassing \$20,000 and expected to reach \$30,000 in the near future, female labor force participation rate has remained at the 49%-52% level over the past ten years. The Korean government has analyzed possible reasons for the low participation rate of women in the workforce and reached the conclusion that career interruption of women in their 30s and 40s was a major factor resulting in women's low workforce participation. Therefore, the Women's Employability Development Support Policy targeted women whose careers are interrupted in their 30s and 40s. However, even before this policy came into effect, there were other local employability development systems and projects for women that helped contribute to economic participation by women.

This chapter reviews the basis and legal systems of regional institutions that carried out employability development projects for women and assesses the contents and results of the projects.

1. Early Stages of Policy on Vocational Education for Young Females: 1960s-1970s

The Korean government carried out two major policies to develop vocational capabilities of young women in the 1960s and 1970s. The first measure was centered on developing vocational high schools as job education organizations and encouraging female students to attend vocational high schools. Female students mostly enrolled in commercial high

schools, from which graduates found work in businesses soon after graduation and their efforts made a substantial contribution toward economic development.

The other policy was focused on affiliating schools with large-scale textile factories and other businesses to encourage the businesses to help educate and train female youths. In these cases, dormitories were established within the factories, providing food and accommodation, which helped enable young female workers who moved from rural areas to pursue both their education and career.

1.1 Policy and Scope of Vocational Education for Women

1.1.1 Changes in Vocational Education Policies in the 1960s-1970s

Korea's vocational education is in line with the industrialization process from the national economic development plan. Vocational education policy began to be fully implemented in Korea in the 1960s. Under the motto, "Education that Contributes to Economic Development," and in accordance with the 1st and 2nd 5-Year Economic Development Plans, vocational high schools were fostered largely to cater to increased needs for skilled workers. Technical colleges to help train skilled workers for medium-sized companies became official parts of the educational system in accordance with revisions to the education law in 1963. Applicants who had at least been educated through middle school education or the equivalent were qualified for admission to these colleges, and graduates were allowed to transfer to four-year universities.

As a result of continuous measures to improve and increase vocational high schools in the 1960s, their number reached a total of 23 in 1969 and the ratio of regular high schools to vocational high school stood at 48.1 : 56.1. The comparative proportion of students in the respective schools was recorded at 55.5 : 44.5.

In the 1970s, the major task of education policy was supplying the workforce required by Korea's heavy and chemical industry. The industry leading national economic growth shifted from light industry to the heavy and chemical industry sectors, which led to a need for more skilled workers in these sectors. Therefore, the government carried out measures to strengthen education of personnel for the heavy and chemical industry sectors in 1973. These measures continued to cultivate technical personnel required for the nation's heavy and chemical industries until 1981 as well as working toward improving technical education in general. As part of this policy, the specialization policy for technical high schools was begun in 1974. The specialization policy classified technical high schools in four categories: mechanical technical high schools to foster high precision workers required by certain industrial sectors over a short time period; pilot technical high schools to foster workers to enter overseas markets; specialized technical high schools to foster technical workers required in special industrial fields; and general technical high schools. All three of the specialized school types received concentrated support and assistance, though the general technical high schools did not.

Pursuant to the National Technical Qualifications Act, enacted in 1973, the National Technical Qualification System was implemented from 1975. National Technical Qualification System was expected to boost morale of students learning industrial technology at vocational schools and contribute to improvement of technology. As such, policies to promote technical education to foster technical workers were at the core of vocation education policies in the 1970s.

Table 3-1 | Major Vocational Education Policies

	Social and Economic Needs	Major Vocational Education Policy
1960s	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Fostering of industrial workers with the 1st and 2nd 5-Year Economic Development Plan 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Enactment of Industrial Education Promotion Act (1963, number 1403) ○ Enactment of Curriculum for vocational schools (1963) ○ Establishment of vocational high schools (1963) ○ Special accounting for securing of vocation education Facilities (1967) ○ Establishment of special bonus for practical course teachers (1968) ○ 5-Year Plan for Science and Technology Promotion (1967-1971)
1970s	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Fostering of technical workers required to pursue 3rd and 4th 5-Year Economic Development Plan centered on heavy and chemical industry 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ○ Education program for an electronic computer (1970) ○ Revision of Curriculum for vocational schools (1971) ○ Policy to foster pilot agriculture high school (1972) ○ Established measures to reinforce technical education (1973) ○ Industrial Education Promotion Act revision: systemize industry- academic collaboration (1973) ○ Revision of National Technical Qualifications Act (1973) ○ Specialization of technical education (1974-1978) ○ Revision of Education Act (1976): establishment of middle and high schools affiliated to industrial corporation and special classes

Sources: Lee Moo-keun (1993), Principles of vocational education, Seoul: History of Education and Science, Kim Jong-chul (1990), Study on Korea's education policies, Seoul: History of Education and Science, Ministry of Education (1983), White paper on Korean education reform-education administration in the 1980s

1.1.2 Trends in Female Human Resource Development in Vocational High Schools

Vocational high schools were job training organizations that provided basic professional education at the high school level in the 1960s and 1970s. By industry, high schools were divided into agricultural, commercial, technical, fisheries, and maritime high schools. The purpose of vocational high school was to foster skilled technical workers and enhance the work capabilities of individuals. Vocational high school contributed substantially to development of both individuals and the nation through the era (Ministry of Education 1998, 50-Year History of Education). Most of the students at commercial high schools were female. After graduation, rather than enrolling in universities, they usually found office jobs in firms in the manufacturing or social service sectors and are considered to have contributed greatly to economic development.

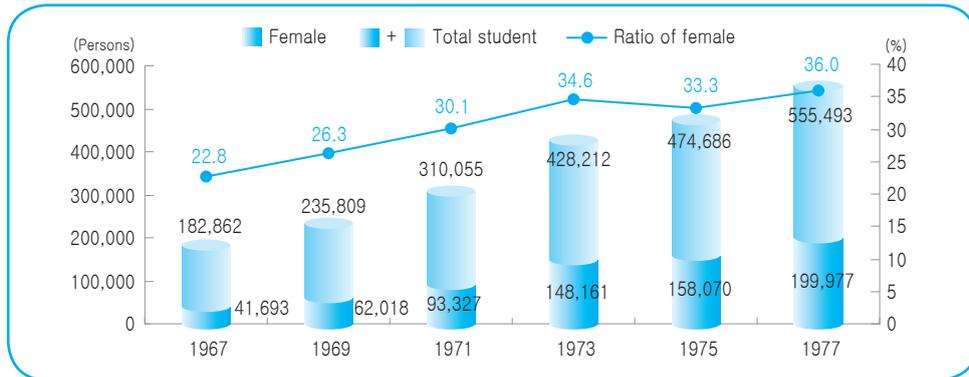
As shown in <Table 3-2>, as a result of policies aimed at developing vocational high schools, the number of vocational high schools dramatically increased, from 368 in 1968 to 481 in 1970. That figure continued to increase, reaching 574 at the end of 1979, demonstrating the importance of the schools as institutions that were responsible for professional vocational education.

Table 3-2 | Status of Vocational High School in the 1960s and 1970s

Year	1967	1968	1969	1970	1971	1972	1973	1974	1975	1976	1977	1978	1979
Number of schools	368	425	444	481	500	539	563	476	479	484	499	536	574

In the beginning, there were more male students in vocational high schools, but starting in the 1970s, the proportion of female students continuously grew. As can be seen in the following diagram, the ratio of female students in total vocational high schools increased from a mere 22.8% in 1967 to over 30% in the early 1970s, reaching close to 40% at the end of 1970s.

Figure 3-1 | Number of Students at Vocational High Schools and Ratio of Female Students



Source: Ministry of Education, annual Statistical Yearbook of Education

In particular, commercial high schools with a majority of female students showed continuous growth under the vocational education policy in the 1960s and 1970s and the proportion of female students in commercial high schools to all vocational high schools increased. A heavy concentration of female students in commercial high schools can be seen by the proportion of female students in each category of vocational high schools (refer to <Table 3-3 >). By year, among the number of total female students in vocational high school from the 1960s to the 1980s, female students attending commercial high schools accounted for 75 to 83% of the total. The proportion of female students in technical high schools increased from 1.4% to 4.4%, but the ratio for agriculture and fisheries high schools fell from 5.4% to 1.0%. In short, the majority of female students in vocational high schools attended commercial high schools, which have been referred to as the feminization of business world (Jung, Hye-suk, 1998).

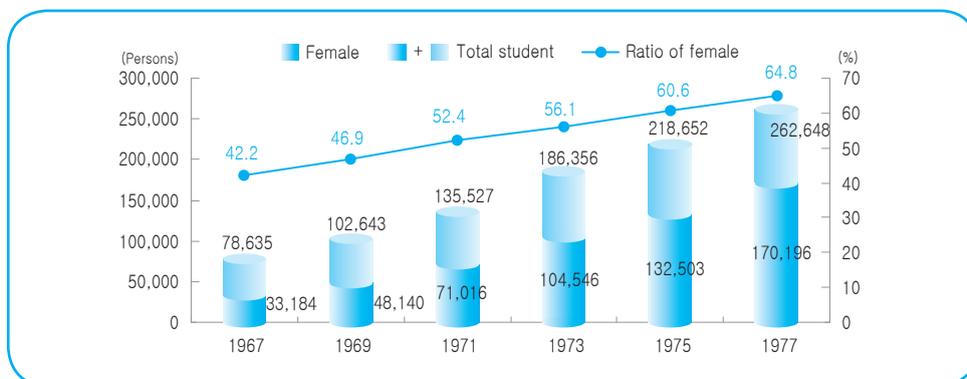
Table 3-3 | Ratio of Female Students in Each Category of Vocational High School

Year	Total	Commercial	Technical	Agriculture and Fisheries	Others
1967	41,713 (100.0)	33,222 (79.6)	580 (1.4)	2,245 (5.4)	5,666 (13.6)
1972	113,758 (100.0)	85,782 (75.4)	1,493 (1.3)	5,615 (4.9)	20,868 (18.3)
1977	200,173 (100.0)	170,238 (85.0)	7,628 (3.8)	3,828 (1.9)	18,478 (9.2)
1982	378,646 (100.0)	316,817 (83.7)	16,562 (4.4)	3,667 (1.0)	41,600 (11.0)

Source: Ministry of Education, annual Statistical Yearbook of Education

Among students attending commercial high school, the ratio of female students stood at 42.2% in 1967 to reach 52.5% in 1971, increasing further to over 2/3, or 66.7% in 1978. This trend continued until the 1990s, when growth stalled, but the proportion of female students in commercial high schools was almost saturated.

Figure 3-2 | Number of Students at Commercial High School and Ratio of Female Students



Source: Ministry of Education, annual Statistical Yearbook of Education

In conclusion, the government's stronger vocational education policy which was implemented to supply technical workers over a short-term period beginning in the 1960s and 1970s resulted in increased vocational education for female adolescents in middle and high school. Women preferred commercial high schools over technical high schools. After graduation, rather than enrolling in college or universities, they often found office positions, such as bookkeeper and clerk in the manufacturing or social service sectors and are considered to have made major contributions to economic development at the time. According to statistics from the Labor Administration, female graduates from commercial high school, the ratio of women who worked in office jobs recorded 65.9% in 1970, 58.5% in 1975, and 51% in 1980 (Labor Administration, trends of working women, 1972).

1.2 Industry Schools and Special Classes

Along with expanded public education in the late 1970s, educational opportunities were provided to young working women through industrial schools and classes. Industrial schools refer to middle and high schools established by industrial firms to provide education to youths working for their company. Special classes were carried out in existing middle and high schools near industrial firms to offer evening classes.

At the time, the Fourth 5-Year Economic Development Plan was implemented. In July 1976, it was decided at a joint meeting between the government and ruling party that workers at industrial complexes would be allowed to attend middle school in the evening. To this end, companies developed welfare facilities and measures were taken so that the government would be able to provide assistance to evening classes (night classes) and industrial classes.

Consequently, in line with the law enacted on December 31, 1976, the establishment of industrial classes and schools for educating adolescent workers began. When the program began on March 1, 1977, 381 businesses participated, providing educational opportunities to 10,505 working adolescents in 181 classes in 31 schools. The number of participating schools increased to 41 in 1988, providing education opportunities to 47,000 students (Chosun Ilbo, 2006.2.2. column).

There was more than one reason for establishing the industrial schools; building pride in the industrial workers, improving manufacturing techniques, and eliminating inequity in education. Most companies that established affiliated schools were in the manufacturing sector's textile industry, with females accounting for more 90% of the working student population, most between the ages of 18 and 19 (Kim, Chun-su, 2003) .

With increasing global economic prosperity, exports increased from the mid-1970s, leading to a severe labor shortage in the manufacturing sector. This triggered the establishment of the industrial schools. In particular, after 1977, the shortage of labor developed into a social issue. In this sense, firms which developed industrial schools not only attracted workers by providing educational opportunities but also retained the school-age workers they already employed.

For the first time in Korea, Hanil Synthetic Fiber Co., Ltd. established the Hanil Women's Vocational High School in its headquarters located in Masan in 1974. At the opening ceremony of the school, some 4,000 students are reported to have transplanted grass from their respective hometowns and created a lawn made with grass from the eight provinces of Korea. The stated purpose for establishing Hanil Women's Vocational High School, the largest industrial school, was as follows (Hanil Synthetic Fiber Co., Ltd. The Committee on the Twenty-year History, 1986):

- Provide education opportunities to resolve social issues of working female students
- Seek to return the profit of the company to society to realize a welfare society
- Improve productivity with pride from working and learning
- Promote basic attitudes of diligence, self-help, and cooperation in women

This illustrates that the school aimed not only to help resolve social issues of working female students and secure a stable source of labor but also to enhance productivity by providing equal educational opportunities.

Schools affiliated with businesses played an important role in securing labor. In the manufacturing industry, 31.8% of female workers had an average length of service of less than one year and 59.5% from 1 to 4 years. In all, 91.3% of female workers' average length of service was less than 4 years (Labor Administration, 1976). However, most women who enrolled in industrial schools would stay with their company for over 3 years. Reflecting the trends of the time, this indicates that the women were likely to stay at the same workplace until they married (the average marriage age for women was 23.6 years old in 1975). Hanil Synthetic Fiber gave additional benefits to those who continued to work for the company after graduating from school, and an average of 65% of the students continued to work for the company after graduation (Hanil Synthetic Fiber Co., Ltd. The Committee on the Twenty-year History, 1986).

Special classes, which were operated by establishing night classes in existing middle and high schools, were expected to produce similar effects as schools affiliated with companies. Special classes were implemented as part of schools attached with industrial corporations based on the Decree and Detailed Enforcement Regulations on the Establishment of Special Classes for Education of Working Adolescents in Schools Affiliated with Industrial Corporations beginning in 1977. While schools attached to industrial companies were established and operated by businesses with over 1,000 employees, the special school system was also appropriate for small-scale businesses. So for the most part, the special class system was confined to relatively young female workers who worked at small- and medium-sized companies (Kim, Hee-jung, 1990 quotation).

In conclusion, the government encouraged large corporations to establish schools attached to industrial companies, and small- and medium-sized companies were recommended to operate special classes to provide educational opportunities to many adolescent and female

factory workers who were unable to attend regular school. Many youths, both male and female, who worked during the day and studied at night, eventually played a crucial role in achieving the economic development of Korea, as heavy and chemical industries took the leadership in Korea's economic development.

2. Development of Women's Vocational Program: 1980s-1990s

Vocational competency development projects after the 1980s can be divided into two categories: projects led by the government and by the private sector. At the time, women's leadership proved to be highly effective through the Saemaul Movement (New Village Movement). The Saemaul Women's Club was first established when the Ministry of Health and Social Affairs carried out its 1967 Saemaul project for women in women's classes, which were organized to improve women's competence and ability to provide for their own livelihood, as well as encouraging the social participation of women. Poverty was a more serious problem for rural women who were the breadwinners in their family than it was for men. This motivated rural women to participate as leaders of the Saemaul Movement. This was also the result of government's efficient policies to develop leaders of the Saemaul Movement. Improved perceptions of the capabilities of women were largely recognized when projects to increase income on each farm were expanded due to the activities of female Saemaul leaders. To improve the efficiency of domestic work, Saemaul Women's Clubs built counters and kitchen sinks in each home and conducted nutrition education to improve the diet of rural families. This project began with the idea that healthy eating habits and better nutrition would lead to higher income. Saemaul Women's Clubs also carried out various projects such as operating childcare centers during the busy farming season, providing wells, washing places, and bridges in villages, and expanding electrical facilities (Ministry of Health and Social Affairs, 1981). In 1984, Saemaul education was provided to 672 female leaders including doctors, pharmacists, professors, businesswomen, and executives of women's groups as well as to wives of leaders to enhance their understanding on conditions of the nation and to promote participation in national economic development (Ministry of Gender Equality, 2003). In these ways, the government-led Saemaul Movement contributed to triggering women's social participation for the development of local communities and improving the leadership potentials of women.

Initiatives to develop the vocational capabilities of women were carried out by the central government, local governments, and project enforcing institutions in each region.

This chapter will introduce the functions and changes of Women's Centers and Women's Resource Development Centers that have been a pivotal part of providing training for women over age 40 for a long time.

Women's Centers have been established by local governments and most are operated by public officials. However, starting in the mid-1990s, more Women's Centers have been taken

on by private organizations. However, the operation of Women's Resource Development Centers has been entrusted to private women's organizations by the government since their beginning, with the government supporting a portion of their rent and operating expenses until today. Women resources development center are non-profit institutions that carry out occupational development training and job placement for women with financial assistance from the government. When a financially secure nonprofit institution that has experience in providing job training to women first establishes a women's resources development center, the government provides full or partial assistance for initial organizational expenses and approximately 30% of annual operating expenses. This scenario is seen as a desirable model for public-private cooperation, with the government providing administrative and financial assistance and private institutions operating the centers based on their experience in job training for women. In deciding where to establish Women's Resource Development Centers, priority is given to regions with greater need for the centers, which is determined by provincial governors.

2.1 Public Sector Job Skills Development Project for Middle-aged Women: Women's Centers

2.1.1 History and Background

Women's Centers became public institutions with the 1952 establishment of the Gyeongsangnam province women's center in Busan. In 1959, a municipal women's center was established in Seoul and Women's Centers expanded nationwide through the 1960s. During that period, most major women's center projects involved technical training, colleges for women, childcare services for working women, consultation, and enlightenment of women. Women's Centers began to operate in full swing with the establishment of the Busan Metropolitan City women's center in 1965. Based on the support from women's organizations in Busan, women's capacity and potentials were developed to promote their social participation. As such, community education for women was reinforced (Chae, Chang-kyun, Na, Young-sun, 2001).

Establishing Women's Centers has been a part of Korean government policy since the 1960s, a policy that was in line with the nation's economic growth programs. In 1962, the government began establishing welfare facilities for women to help them find ways to support themselves. A specialized type of these facilities, Women's Centers, were established to provide vocational guidance and training especially for women (Department of Health and Human Services, 1987).

Nationwide expansion of Women's Centers in the 1960s was due largely to support from then-First Lady Yuk Young-soo and other women's organizations. The Women's Centers underwent expansion at the time and their major function was to provide comprehensive welfare services. The Women's Welfare Department of the Ministry of Welfare was the governmental agency charged with operating Women's Centers, and the purposes of

women’s welfare facilities were stated as “providing general education to women to improve women’s abilities and achieve healthy families, and providing technical education to develop the potential of women to contribute to scientific management of family and develop their means of earning a livelihood (The Korean Women's Development Institute, 1985).”

Educational program of the Women’s Centers were referred to as educational projects on technical guidance and concentrated on creating an environment where women could support themselves through technical and vocational training. For this reason, the policy direction was focused on improving welfare through technical education and training. Policies regarding the Women’s Centers were centered on providing technical education to average women who needed vocational and general education. Therefore, with the enactment of Mother and Fatherless Child Welfare Act 1989, Women’s Centers were based off of the Act.

A total of 10 institutions established in the 1960s all started out as Women’s Centers. In the 1970s, 14 centers were established among which only three were at cities and provinces level, six were at city level, and five were at the province level. Later, Women’s Centers at the city and provincial level increased. Educational programs were mostly centered on dressmaking, beauty treatment, and knitting (50-year History of Gyeongsangnam-do Women’s Center).

Table 3-4 | Establishment Year of Women’s Centers by Organizations

(Unit: center (%))

Organization/ Year of establishment	Nationwide	Cities & provinces	City	Province
1965~1969	7 (33.3)	7 (70.0)	-	-
1970~1979	14 (66.7)	3 (30.0)	6 (100.0)	5 (100.0)
Total	21 (100.0)	10 (100)	6 (100.0)	5 (100.0)

Under the municipal ordinance of the Framework Act on Women’s Development (1995), service is provided to local women over the age of 18. Seoul City has an Ordinance on Establishment of Women's Development Centers (1996) and other regions also have Ordinances on Establishment and Operation of Women’s Centers in place. While there is no legal standard for establishing Women’s Centers, the purpose was building one center for each city, county, and district. Regions with a high population density, areas with a high proportion of low-income residents, and regions without any similar facilities received priority under the selection system. Establishment is largely decided based on the opinions of local governments.

2.1.2 Functions and Status of Project Enforcement Institutions

Women's Centers are local organizations for women with unique Korean characteristics, differing from these types of organizations in other countries. This means that in Korea, Women's Centers are considered institutions with separate functions of social welfare, social education, and culture. They may also be regarded as comprehensive organizations with all of these functions.

The purpose for establishing Women's Centers was prescribed in Article 1 of the ordinance by local governments. The ordinance defined Women's Centers as welfare and social/educational organizations for average women. Most of the ordinances by local governments state the purpose of Women's Centers as "developing women's abilities, creating environments in which women with low income can support themselves, and enhancing the welfare of women" (Kim, Tae-hong et al., 1999). In short, welfare and social/educational functions are taken into equal consideration.

Women's Centers are also known as welfare centers, cultural centers and development centers for women. The names vary by region depending on which function is emphasized in that region. That is to say, in a welfare center for women, the welfare function is emphasized and in culture center for women, cultural and educational functions are stressed as major projects.

After the mid 1990s, the Seoul region started to name some Women's Centers as development centers for women and emphasized job training and the development of women's abilities in their operations. These centers differed only in their core functions and were not completely differentiated from other centers. However, a movement began in Seoul and other regions to differentiate some Women's Centers as organizations centered on developing the employability of women.

There are approximately 139 Women's Centers that were established by local governments and received funding toward their labor costs and operating expenses from them. Gyeonggi province has the highest number of Women's Centers with a total of 29, two at the province level and 27 centers on the city and county level. There are 27 centers in the Chungcheong region, 23 centers in Jeolla province, and 24 centers in Gyeongsang province. This reflects the fact that Women's Centers are most often located in regions with high population densities. Also, the centers are distributed fairly evenly around the nation to provide services to women in all regions.

60 centers were established in the 1990s and 54 centers after 2000. This indicates that facilities for women are continuously increasing with the activation of local governments. Excluding Seoul and a small number of regions, in almost all regions the Women's Center workforce is made up of public officials.

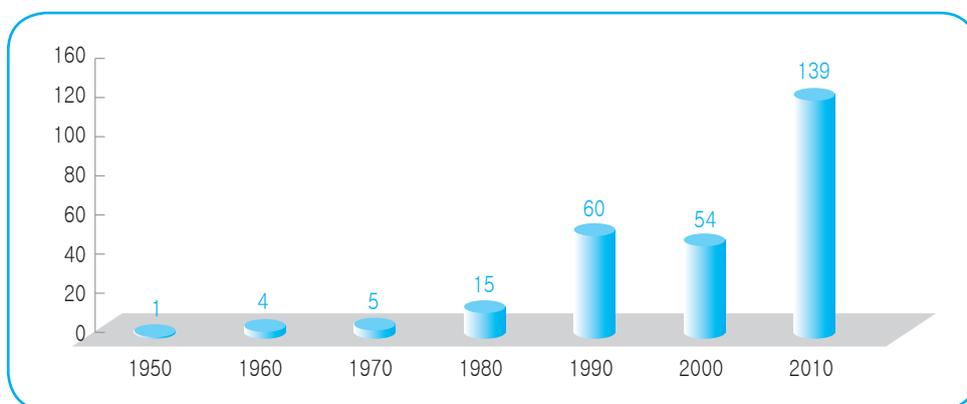
Table 3-5 | Women’s Center Status (2008)

(Unit: center)

region	total	Seoul	Busan	Daegu	Incheon	Gwangju	Ulsan	Gyeong-gi	Gang-won	Chung-buk	Chung-nam	Jeon-buk	Jeon-nam	Gyeong-buk	Gyeong-nam	Jeju
No	139	8	2	5	3	1	1	29	15	13	14	11	12	14	10	1

Source: Park Sung-jung et al. (2008)

Figure 3-3 | Number of Women’s Center by Year of Establishment



2.1.3 Contents of Projects

In the 1960s, Women’s Centers mainly carried out technical training for women with the goal of supporting economic activities for women and enlightenment of women. At the time of establishment, they were named the Centers for Women and served social and cultural education functions. After the 1970s, they were renamed Women’s Centers and managed projects with welfare, social/educational, and employment support functions. With the rapid increase of social welfare institutions in 2000, Women’s Centers are changing into organizations that provide job training for the re-employment of women and employment-linked services. However, Women’s Centers at city level mainly operate job training courses and those in rural areas provide mostly cultural welfare services (Park, Sung-jung et al., 2008). As such, even the centers in areas with active job training functions could change over to a different emphasis on services they provide based on the direction of operations decided by the relevant local government. To expand opportunities for women to participate in social activities, Women’s Centers have branched out to leisure and volunteer activities while also providing job training, and participants in the program expanded to include not only those in lower-income bracket but also those in the middle class.

Specific programs offered range from consulting programs for jobseekers, female resources center program, employment guidance programs and childcare programs for welfare function and technical training, leisure activity education, raising social awareness and living information education for social education program. Other programs include facility rental to regional women’s organizations, wedding halls for the low-income class, and temporary protection center.

Table 3-6 | Women’s Center Functions and Program Contents

Women’s Welfare Function	Common items	Women’s Lifelong Education Function
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> □ Women’s Counseling Center □ Women’s Volunteer Center □ Childcare services (children of working women) □ Emergency shelter (pilot project) 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> □ Childcare services (children of training recipients) □ Employment guidance program 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> □ Technical skills training □ Hobby and general functions □ Social consciousness education <hr/> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> □ Role as hub of social-education association for women □ Role as networks for social/ educational information for women

Source: Choi, Hyun-ja (2000). Research on utilization of organizations by women’s centers.

Women’s Centers play a pivotal role in lifelong education for women. Training content ranges from technical skills to social consciousness education, along with hobby and cultural education.

The Women’s Centers technical training program is aimed at creating an environment where women can support themselves and expand their participation in social activities. Training content includes beauty-related courses, cooking courses, garment-related course, flower arranging and gardening classes, crafts and embroidery class, technical know-how class, and a class dealing with service jobs.

Table 3-7 | Women's Center Technical Training Programs

	Technical Training
Beauty Treatment	Makeup, beauty, skincare, makeup&image making, natural ingredient soap&cosmetics
Cooking	baking&confectionery, traditional Korean wedding cooking, Korean/Japanese/Chinese/Western food class, catering, cooking technician certificate, barista, school meal cooking
Clothing	Clothes repair, home fashion, Korean traditional clothes (hanbok), modern clothes, embroidery fashion, curtain manufacture, dressmaking
Flower Arranging& Gardening	Flower decoration, interior design, florist, art flower, flower shop
Crafts& Embroidery	Crafts design, machine/oriental/hand embroidered, textile/tradition/marble/traditional Korean paper/macrame, accessory
Technology& Information	Advertising design, design handwriting, computer, photoshop, tax accounting, engineer information processing
Services	Caregiver, English/Japanese guide, hospice education, postnatal care center education, monitoring agent education, recreation guiding group, home helper, logistics sales
Others	Paper/tile/paint, dyeing, recreation, natural dye, reading instructor, foot care certificate, auto repair, meridian massage

Source: Choi, Hyun-ja (2000). Research on utilization of organizations by women's centers.

Hobby and refinement education consists of music class, arts and crafts class, sports and health class, foreign language and writing class, etiquette class, and garment class.

Table 3-8 | Hobby and General Education Program of Women’s Centers

	Hobby and General Education
Music	Basics of instrumental music, open music class, janggu (double-headed Korean drum), violin, music class for senior citizens, general music class, Korean traditional percussion quartet, choir, prenatal education, chorus, popular music class, art song class, acoustic guitar class, southern province folk song, Korean zither, exciting music class, women’s choir, music garden
Arts&Crafts	Calligraphy, painting in the literary artist’s style, traditional knots craft, the four gracious plants apricot flower, orchid, chrysanthemum and bamboo, watercolors, paper craft, balloon art, DIY handicrafts, black-and-white painting, natural dye, pottery, ceramic living ware class
Sports, Health	Hypogastric breathing, sports dancing, Korean dance, yoga, hand acupuncture, foot care, belly dancing, diet dancing, Korean traditional percussion quartet, life gymnastics, energy exercise, healthy diet yoga, taichi, aerobics
Foreign Language, Composition	Chines, English, everyday English, play in English, Chinese character, English conversation, Chinese conversation, composition class, story-telling, Chinese characters in everyday life, Japanese conversation, Korean, reading guide
Etiquette	Etiquette, tea etiquette
Clothing	Home fashion, dressmaking, making of couple look, hand knitted knitwear, quilt&doll making
Others	Natural cosmetics, laughter therapy and recreation, Korean traditional clothes, POP, digital photo, guide for cultural&historic places, wild flower, sign language, pottery, photography, folk art&furniture reform, balloon decoration, drama club

Source: Kim, Myung-wha (2007). Function changes of Women’s Centers and efficient operation.

Social consciousness programs refer to all programs excluding regularly managed technical skill education and hobby and refinement education. Women’s college and Moving Women’s Centers are representative programs and both programs receive financial assistance from the local government (Kim, Myung-wha, 2007).

Looking at performance of technical education of women’s center, the number of participants to technical training continuously increased from 1993 to 1998. Participants are increasing in cooking, computer, and other related classes and participants are decreasing in beauty treatment and home fashion classes.

Table 3-9 | Job Training Performance of Women's Centers

		1993	1994	1995	1996	1997	1998
Number of centers		50	57	65	68	74	78
Total (persons)		29,906	32,940	34,222	42,026	50,790	60,838
Program (%)	Dressmaking	10	10.8	9.8	9.3	9.6	9.7
	Beauty	12.7	10.5	10.2	10.9	10.7	10.8
	Handicrafts	4.5	3.8	3.0	2.5	1.4	2.0
	Knitting	1.2	0.7	0.5	0.4	0.2	0.6
	Macrame	3.7	2.9	2.8	2.7	1.5	1.4
	School Meals Cooking	10.2	10.8	9.3	10.3	9.9	9.8
	Tile, Paper, paint	4.6	4.2	3.7	3.9	3.4	3.0
	Korean Traditional Clothing	7.0	6.5	5.9	5.4	5.6	6.2
	Cooking	10.1	11.2	13.5	13.8	14.2	12.1
	Home Fashions	12.2	12.0	11.9	10.6	10.5	7.9
	Mounting	1.1	1.0	0.7	0.6	0.1	0.1
	Computers	4.1	9.4	10.2	13.4	16.1	14.3
	Others	18.6	16.3	18.4	13.3	16.8	22.0

Source: Kim, Tae-hong (1999). Status and policy measures for job training system for women.

After the mid 1990s, local government systems were stabilized and Women's Centers were differentiated by local governments. The Woman's Resources Development Center in Gyeonggi Province (WRDC Gyeonggi) was the first such case and offers an excellent example. It was an important step for local government to support capital investment and operating expenses of the WRDC and its efforts were centered on helping middle-aged women develop job skills. Unlike shorter term education for middle-aged women, the center provided professional vocational training for six months to a year. In particular, IT training was provided for the first time to middle-aged women. In addition, business start-up education was provided for middle-aged women and a Women's Business Start-up Incubator was established and supported to provide assistance to business start-ups by middle-aged women. The results of these efforts substantially improved women's economic empowerment. WRDC Gyeonggi also motivated other local governments to strengthen their vocational skills development programs, augment the function of Women's Centers and build more job skills-oriented centers by local government.

2.2 Private Sector Job Skills Development Project for Middle-aged Women: Women's Resources Development Center

YWCA has played an essential role in expanding operations of The House for Working Women nationwide, and is responsible for operating more than 50% of the Women's Resources Development Centers that are currently operating. In these ways, it plays a pivotal role in the developing job skills in the private sector.

2.2.1 History and Background

In the December 31, 1981 Basic Vocational Training Act and Employment Security Act (1982.4.3) were revised. The Ministry of Labor stated that it would “work to develop types of occupations appropriate for women and expand employment opportunities.” Following up on this act, the YWCA of Korea worked to provide vocational training for low-income women and develop new jobs for women who were marginalized from social welfare services. New methods for developing jobs for women were expected to bring about changes in employment policies on women. In particular, Korea's social welfare system urgently needed to use volunteers working together with the government and private institutions alike. This study is the result of training by one organization, but proved to be helpful in active prevention policies in Korea's social welfare administration.

The occupational development project for low-income women overseen by the YWCA of Korea from 1978 to 1980 was the first pilot occupational development project carried out by a private organization for women. This project aimed to challenge conventional ways of thinking and change social attitudes in its efforts to improve the economic status of women. Private organizations served not only to complement the inadequate social welfare administration but also to develop women's ability to support themselves long term.

The background of occupation development project for women carried out by YWCA can be found in research on the status of women's vocational training conducted in 1975, which the United Nations declared as “International Women's Year.” At the time, 40% of the nation's economically active women were not able to find appropriate employment and a substantial number of women were reluctant to enter the labor market. Employment opportunities for women were confined to simple labor or clerical jobs, and traditionally most women worked in the beauty industry, sewing or needlework. To help women to break free from traditional occupational limitations and become more proactive about their own employment, training programs were centered on non-traditional jobs. The purpose of the project was to provide pilot training to women in job fields that had been traditionally dominated by men, as a way to enhance the economic status of women in Korea.

The project provided training in three job areas of the construction field: plastering, painting, and installing tile. Programs were offered twice a year to approximately 200 trainees each year over the three years, producing a total of about 600 women workers in the three jobs fields so they could enter the construction industry. Nationally, 600

people may have been an insignificant number, but it was an important symbol in the effort to create opportunities for women who had been overlooked in the construction and technical industries to offer their services as skilled workers. With this project providing the momentum, the YWCA intentionally made effort to urge the government to actively participate in revitalizing women’s employment, and succeeded in attaining government support with measures such as financial assistance for training expenses.

To find jobs for trainees in the male-centered industry, the YWCA organized a committee on employment. The committee was made up of representative of the YWCA, government officials, and interested parties from labor institutions and businessmen.

For training sites, working women’s centers in Gwangju and Doksan-dong, Seoul were selected. These two locations were chosen since they could accommodate all the trainees and had dormitory facilities.

Since the education was focused on non-traditional jobs, the project also attempted to enhance the impact of education and training by working to change people’s ideas about jobs for women. So in addition to regular education hours, the centers also provided general education in morning and night classes to help guide students make a transition to working together in groups to help them become better workers when they moved into their field. Since there was some concerns about students dropping out of the program before they had finished, much effort went into improving attitudes and understanding of the importance of working in non-traditional fields. Candidates were especially selected for their likely potential for success, including the ability to live in the dormitory and complete their education and training.

Training was provided on working with plaster, tile, and paint from 1978 to 1980. The following is the detailed plan for the training program.

Table 3-10 | YWCA Vocational Training Program

Training Area	Period (Months)	Training (hours)	Course Content (hours)
Plastering	3	450	Theory (80), cultural studies (30), practice
Painting	6	900	Theory (80), cultural studies (30), practice
Tile work	6	900	Theory (80), cultural studies (30), practice

Trainees, including married women, had to live in the dormitory from the beginning of the program, which meant that women with children were not able to take advantage of the opportunity. However, in the middle of the training, a woman in Doksan-dong YWCA made an urgent request to allow her child to be taken care of in the child care center during the day and stay with her in the dormitory at night. With this, the Doksan-dong center established childcare center for low-income women.

Meanwhile, many difficulties were encountered in trainee field trips to construction sites. It was necessary that the trainees must go to construction sites to learn about their future jobs, but the fact that the trainees were women was a major obstacle. Therefore, the government was requested to take regulatory measures so that women could go on field trips to construction sites.

Since the 1990s, the YWCA has coordinated the job skills development project led by the Women's Resources Development Center.

Women's Resource Development Centers are organizations that help working women continue their employment and provide job training and employment support to married women. In accordance with the Act on Gender Equality in Employment and Act on Budgeting and Management of Subsidies, in 1993 the Ministry of Labor began providing support to establish and manage The House for Working Women, operated by private nonprofit women's organizations in three large cities (Seoul, Busan, and Gwangju). This was the start of women resources centers.

With the goal of establishing one center in each of 15 metropolitan cities and provinces, three House for Working Women were established, one each year, through 1996. After the onset of the Asian financial crisis, more centers were built to cope with massive unemployment. The number of establishments increased to five centers in 1997, 18 centers in 1998 and nine centers in 1999. The rapid increase came about because the policy goal of securing a social safety net for unemployed women (female breadwinners in particular) during the Asian financial crisis was supplemented in addition to the original goal of encouraging employment for married women and developing the potential of women to resolve a lack in industrial workers, as well as enhancing women's socioeconomic status (Kim, Tae-hong et al., 1999).

Through an amendment to the Government Organization Act in January 2001, the Ministry of Gender Equality was newly organized and the ministry responsible for the center has its name changed from the Ministry of Employment and Labor to the Ministry of Gender Equality. The centers had their names changed to become Women's Resource Development Centers in May 2001. Currently, Article 33, Clause 2 of the Framework Act on Women's Development is the law governing Women's Resource Development Centers. The law states that "central and local governments can provide financial assistance, within their respective budgets, for all or part of the expenses of facilities related to women." With its revision of the Enforcement Decree of the Framework Act on Women's Development, the legal foundation for Women's Resource Development Centers was organized and all functions, including supervision and guidance, were entrusted to 16 cities and provinces for efficient operation of the centers.

2.2.2 Functions and Status of Project Enforcement Institutions

The purpose for establishing The House for Working Women, former name of the Women's Resource Development Centers, was promoting the welfare of working women. The projects to be carried out included: short-term employability development for one to six months; providing employment information and job placement; consulting services for working women; operating welfare facilities for children of training recipients, and other welfare projects such as social education and cultural activities support (Kim, Tae-hong et al., 1999). These same functions continue after the name was changed to women's resource development centers.

The function of Women's Resource Development Centers is designated in Article 34, Clause 2 of the Enforcement Decree of the Framework Act on Women's Development. It stipulates that the "Minister of Gender Equality can provide financial assistance for expenses of nonprofit organizations or institutions that provide support to employability development training, providing employment information and job placement, consultation, welfare, and cultural activities to women for enhancing the capacity and improving the socio-economic status of women in part or full within the budget of the Ministry of Gender Equality." Taking into consideration the opinions of regional officials, priority in establishing Women's Resource Development Centers goes to the regions with the greatest need for the centers. Institutions to implement the project are selected, in principle, based on their qualifications as financially sound non-profit organizations with experience in job training for women.

There are 51 Women's Resource Development Centers nationwide as of 2011. Most are concentrated in Seoul and Gyeonggi province. In other regions, only one to three centers exist in each region. Unlike Women's Centers, which are state-run and evenly distributed nationwide, privately-run Women's Resource Development Centers are concentrated in Seoul and metropolitan regions. For this reason, there may be limited access to centers for women in regions where few or none exist.

The 51 centers are managed by a wide range of private women's organizations. The Young Women's Christian Association of Korea operates the highest number of centers, managing 25 in all. The incorporated association Onteodurehoe and the Korean Women's Association operate three centers each, and the Korean Women's Hot Line and Korea Association of University Women operate two centers each.

In addition, several different private women's groups run one center each, including the Daegu Seogu Community Welfare Center, Korean Federation of Mothers, Korea Federation of Business&Professional Women, Korean Women Workers Association, Korea Mothers' Association, Korea Business Women's Federation, and National Council of Homemakers' Classes.

Women's Resource Development Centers focus on providing job training for productive job skills and employment support services for working women, women from low-income families and women over age 40. Compared with Women's Centers, they offer more diverse

and professional job training programs. However, because they are private institutions, they face more challenges growing into professional training institutes in terms of their finances and facilities.

Table 3-11 | Women’s Resource Development Center Status (2011)

Region	total	Seoul	Busan	Daegu	Incheon	Gwang-ju	Dae-jeon	Ulsan	Gyeong-gi	Gang-won	Chung-buk	Chung-nam	Jeon-buk	Jeon-nam	Gyeong-buk	Gyeong-nam	Jeju
No	51	14	3	2	3	2	1	1	7	2	1	3	2	3	3	3	1

2.2.3 Contents of Project

Women’s Resource Development Centers carry out projects related to employment of women such as support for married women in their 30s and 40s to re-enter the labor market, development of jobs appropriate for women in their 50s and 60s, fostering of female workforce in education, childcare, culture and environment fields, support for employment and providing business start-up ability of women. Training programs at Women’s Resource Development Centers were previously centered on women from low-income brackets but now include programs for more educated women and those whose careers were interrupted due to marriage and childbirth.

In addition, Women’s Resource Development Centers provide employability development training to promote the re-employment of housewives and career-interrupted women, employment promotion programs such as providing employment information and job placement, consulting services for working women, support programs for social and cultural life, and operating welfare facilities for children of trainees.

Table 3-12 | Project Details of Women’s Resource Development Centers

Project name	Contents
Employability Development Training	To enhance the social and economic status of women by developing women’s employability and supporting employment of women, short-term education from one to six months is offered
Employment Information and Job Placement	Collecting job advertisements and information, providing consultation services to job seekers regarding employment and job placement
Consulting	Consultation and advice to women regarding difficulties they may face at home and work.
Welfare Facility Operation	Operating welfare facilities to children of training recipients Operating user facilities such as staff lounge, cafeteria, childcare center for preschoolers
Other Cultural and Welfare Programs for Women	General classes: Basic language education and education for balancing work and family, childbirth, education of children, and disease prevention Programs to support cultural activities of working women such as hobby and recreation

Source: Women’s Resource Development Centers (2007).

Employability development training programs in 1998 and 2008 at Women’s Resource Development Centers are indicated in <Table 3-13>. Types of occupations are similar, but specialist programs, computer and business support fields are more professional and segmented.

Table 3-13 | Training Programs Women’s Resource Development Centers

Field	Contents	
	1998 ¹	2008 ²
Textile Garments	Oriental embroidery, hand knitting, sculpture, dressmaking and clothing repair, home fashion, making children’s wear, Korean traditional clothes design, clothing reform, textile design, draw Korean traditional clothes, professional home fashion, curtain, wedding dress, baby dress, reform, make maternity dress, performance dress making, quilt, practical dressmaking	Clothing repair, clothing construction and manufacture, fashion making, clothing repair and reform, Korean traditional clothes maker, fashion design, dressmaking, home fashion
Certificate Programs	Hair designer, cook (Korean, Western), caterer, cooking for guests, traditional wedding food, wallpaper, baking&confectionary, certified blowfish cook, traditional food, wedding food cooking	Korean and western food cook, Korean food cook assistant, baking&confectionary, caterer, side dish professional, western food cook, Japanese food cook, baker, professional catering
Child Guidance	Essay instructor, English instructor, reading at home class, home visit computer instructor, NIE instructor, after school children instructor, reading instructor, children’s story research class, professional reading instruction, writing	Reading instructor, essay instructor, logical speed reading instructor, English book reading instructor, children’s English instructor, elementary math instructor, daily math learning instructor, Chinese character instructor, POP instructor, child art instructor, story-telling instructor, CA instructor training course, NIE instructor, cultural experience instructor, after school computer instructor for elementary students
Computers	Computer class, computer 101, create website 101, e-publishing, computer class for housewives, architectural drawing, computer-aided design (CAD), computer graphic, Microsoft word certificate, computer class for women, office automation, excel	Auto CAD, auction internet shopping, IT professional training, computer certificate, web design, office master
Animation, Telemarketing, Office Support	Bookkeeping assistant, telemarketing, cartoon professional class, counseling education, animation, legal staff, tax accountant, office work education, tax accounting job, social insurance and labor work, trade and duty work	Computerized tax accounting, computerized bookkeeping, bookkeeping, accounting, pc bookkeeping, finance and accounting clerk, telemarketer, trade, apartment bookkeeping, OA bookkeeping clerk, office professional

1 Na et al. (1998). *The Current Status of the Vocational Training and the Development of the Prospective Occupations in Employment for Women.*

2 Oh et al. (2008). *Development and operation of job training program for promotion of career-interrupted women*

Field	Contents	
	1998 ¹	2008 ²
Beauty, Health & Housekeeping Services	Makeup artist, aid for mothers. Housekeeping aid, babies and toddler childcare class, foot massage therapist, caregiver for the sick, nurse's aide, bridal makeup, professional makeup, home childcare center, recreation instructor class, housekeeper for foreign national families, hair cut, pet shop	Skin massage, facial skincare, beautician research class, hair designer, skincare, care for senior citizen, nail artist, care helper fostering class, caregiver for the sick, housekeeper, aid for mothers, baby-sitter nurturing class
Startups	Flower shop manager, event flower designer, balloon decoration, first class restaurant management, small scale flower shop management, accessory shop management, small capital startup	Flower shop startup, rice cake startup class, side dish shop startup
Others	Product painting, drama writer, gardening, apartment garden management, silver accessory processing, wax carving, jewel craft, home gardening, reporter education, fashion painting pilot class, professional coordination, traditional Korean paper craft, pottery and paper folding class, stencil, bouquet professional class, pressed flower, body painting, clay professional class, cocktail making class, patchwork, stone flower	Paper craft master, woodcraft, flower decoration instructor, real estate auction, wallpaper professional, caddy training class, foot massage therapist, room maid,

3. Women's Job Training Project by Target: after 2000

3.1 Job Training for Women in Low-income Families

3.1.1 Self-Support Project

The self-support project was not originally a program on vocational competency development specialized for women but was classified as a project for women because most of the recipients were women. After the Asian financial crisis in the late 1997, the number of unemployed citizens soared and real wages fell, leaving many vulnerable because of gaps in the social safety net. An increased number of households had no way to earn their living apart from receiving benefits from the livelihood program. To address this, the government started the self-support project with the aim of promoting employment of conditional recipients by enhancing their work abilities and reducing the welfare budget in the long term. Social Welfare Specialists first select candidates among which the people who are considered to be able to work receive assistance from the government under certain conditions. Those who are classified as having no labor capacity (senior citizens, people who are physically or mentally challenged, and others) are classified as unconditional recipients and receive state assistance without conditions. Conditional recipients receive vocational training provided

by the Ministry of Employment and Labor and Ministry of Health&Welfare for a certain period of time after which they need to stand on their own feet. The Ministry of Employment and Labor has developed self-support training program for the unskilled unemployed with low education levels, and for people with insufficient work skills such as adolescents, the disabled, and women breadwinners. This program was divided into two types, one focusing on employment and starting a business, and another centered on public sector training. In the process, training suitable for women was developed as described below.

Table 3-14 | Number of Participants of Self-Support Job Training for the Unemployed by Women’s Educational Attainments

(Unit: persons, %)

Classification	Total	Educational attainments				
		Middle school graduate & under	High school graduate	Vocational college graduate	Graduate	Graduate school graduate & over
Total	285 (100)	72 (25.3)	181 (63.5)	20 (7.0)	11 (3.9)	1 (0.3)

Source: 「Analysis on 2009 Vocational Training for the Unemployed」 of HRD-NET statistics analysis.

Note: missing value of 69 persons excluded from education level.

Table 3-15 | Number of Participants of Self-Support Job Training for the Unemployed by Gender and Industry

(unit: persons, %)

Classification	Total	Educational attainments	
		Male	Female
textile	14 (100)	1 (7.1)	13 (92.9)
metal	1 (100)	1 (100.0)	0 (0.0)
machinery & equipment	20 (100)	13 (65.0)	7 (35.0)
construction	3 (100)	0 (0.0)	3 (100.0)
electronics	10 (100)	6 (60.0)	4 (40.0)
information & communications	18 (100)	4 (22.2)	14 (77.8)
industrial application	3 (100)	1 (33.3)	2 (66.7)
crafts	3 (100)	0 (0.0)	3 (100.0)
service	193 (100)	27 (14.0)	166 (86.0)
office management	40 (100)	2 (5.0)	38 (95.0)
medical treatment	36 (100)	1 (2.8)	35 (97.2)
Total	341 (100)	56 (16.4)	285 (83.6)

Source: 「Analysis on 2009 Vocational Training for the Unemployed」 of HRD-NET statistics analysis.

Note: No recipients of the training in the fields of agriculture, fishery and mining, chemical products and ceramics, electricity, transportation and production, finance and insurance, and environment.

3.1.2 Training to Promote Employment

Training to promote employment is a project which has been implemented since 1993 to provide job training opportunities to those in low income brackets of each local government unit and to enhance their job stability. In an effort to promote employment, the Human Resources Development Service of Korea provides tailored training to married and middle-aged unemployed women to support their employment and stabilization of their livelihood. Married women are provided short-term job training in training institutes such as the Woman Resources Development Center and community welfare centers. Training is provided in representative occupations such as caregiver for the sick, telemarketer, wallpapering assistant and other 20 types of occupations that have been developed.

Table 3-16 | Number of Participants for Training to the Local Unemployed by Women's Educational Attainment

(Unit: persons, %)

Classification	Total	Educational attainments				
		Middle school graduate and under	High school graduate	Vocational college graduate	University graduate	Graduate school graduate&over
Total	5,508 (100)	585 (10.6)	3,352 (60.9)	896 (16.3)	663 (12.0)	12 (0.2)

Source: quotation from 「Analysis on 2009 Vocational Training for the Unemployed」 of HRD-NET statistics analysis.

Note: missing value 69 persons excluded from education level.

Table 3-17 | Number of Participants for Training to the Local Unemployed by Gender and Industry

(unit: persons, %)

Classification	Total	Educational attainments	
		Male	Female
agriculture, fishery&mining	19 (100)	3 (15.8)	16 (84.2)
textile	330 (100)	20 (6.0)	310 (94.0)
chemical products &ceramics	26 (100)	21 (80.8)	5 (19.2)
machinery &equipment	699 (100)	630 (90.1)	69 (9.9)
construction	152 (100)	88 (57.9)	64 (42.1)
electricity	156 (100)	114 (73.0)	42 (27.0)
electronics	80 (100)	43 (53.8)	37 (46.2)
information &communications	570 (100)	187 (32.8)	383 (67.2)
industrial application	86 (100)	28 (32.6)	58 (67.4)
crafts	27 (100)	2 (7.4)	25 (92.6)
service	2,784 (100)	430 (15.4)	2,354 (84.6)
office management	1,373 (100)	240 (17.5)	1,133 (82.5)
medical treatment	1,060 (100)	44 (4.1)	1,016 (95.9)
Total	7,362 (100)	1,850 (25.1)	5,512 (74.9)

Source: 「Analysis on 2009 Vocational Training for the Unemployed」 of HRD-NET statistics analysis.

Note: No recipients of the training in the fields of metal, transportation equipment manufacturing, finance and insurance, and environment.

3.1.3 Job Training for Unemployed Female Breadwinners

The program aims to provide female breadwinners who cannot participate in job training because of household needs the opportunity to participate. Under the program, free training is provided to women who are considered to have insufficient ability to support their family due to disease or absence of spouse or women who have become single due to divorce or death of spouse.

Training is provided in favorable fields for women to find work or start businesses such as telemarketing, catering, and visiting teachers. The training is provided for one year and training costs and an allowance are covered by the government. The training allowance covers transportation and food expenses and a family allowance along with subsidies for household finances. Subsidies are only provided when all other family members are dependents. Also, recipients under the National Basic Living Security Act are given an allowance in accordance with self-support training regulations as well as the self-support training budget. The job training to unemployed female breadwinner program was enacted as a policy to deal with unemployment in September 1998 and has promoted employment through enhancing the employability of female breadwinners.

Table 3-18 | Number of Participants of Job Training for Unemployed Women Breadwinner by Educational Attainments

(Unit: persons, %)

classification	Total	Educational attainments				
		Middle school graduate & under	High school graduate	Vocational college graduate	University graduate	Graduate school graduate & over
total	2,434(100)	445(18.3)	1,555(63.9)	207(8.5)	217(8.9)	10(0.4)

Source: 「Analysis on 2009 Vocational Training for the Unemployed」 of HRD-NET statistics analysis.

Note: missing value 69 persons excluded from education level.

Table 3-19 | Number of Job Training for Unemployed Women Breadwinner by Gender and Industry

(Unit: persons, %)

Classification	Women	Age					
		Under 20	20~29	30~39	40~49	50~59	Over 60
textile	10 2 (100)	0 (0.0)	8 (7.8)	30 (29.4)	36 (35.3)	26 (25.5)	2 (2.0)
machinery&equipment	8 (100)	0 (0.0)	1 (12.5)	3 (37.5)	4 (50.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)
construction	8 (100)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	2 (25.0)	5 (62.5)	1 (12.5)	0 (0.0)
electronics	11 (100)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	5 (45.5)	6 (54.5)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)
information &communications	59 (100)	0 (0.0)	6 (10.2)	30 (50.8)	18 (30.5)	5 (8.5)	0 (0.0)
industrial application	17 (100)	0 (0.0)	3 (17.6)	8 (47.1)	6 (35.3)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)
crafts	80 (100)	0 (0.0)	5 (6.2)	24 (30.0)	34 (42.5)	14 (17.5)	3 (3.8)
service	1,455 (100)	3 (0.2)	43 (3.0)	460 (31.5)	627 (43.1)	295 (20.3)	27 (1.9)
office management	485 (100)	1 (0.2)	22 (4.5)	190 (39.2)	210 (42.3)	59 (12.2)	3 (0.6)
finance&insurance	1 (100)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)	1 (100)	0 (0.0)	0 (0.0)
medical treatment	208 (100)	1 (0.5)	4 (1.9)	18 (8.7)	97 (46.6)	80 (38.5)	8 (3.8)
Total	2,434 (100)	5 (0.2)	92 (3.8)	770 (31.6)	1,044 (42.9)	480 (19.7)	43 (1.8)

Source: 「Analysis on 2009 Vocational Training for the Unemployed」 of HRD-NET statistics analysis.

Note: No recipients of the training in fields of agriculture, fishery and mining, chemical products and ceramics, metal, electricity, transportation equipment manufacturing, and environment.

3.2 Employment support System for Career Interrupted Women: Reemployment Support Center for Women

3.2.1 Policy Background

The job training institutions for women mentioned above, such as the Women's Centers and Women's Resource Development Centers, over the short run, helped women find new jobs by providing career education training programs, as well as providing educational and cultural programs to help them improve their basic employability and interest in lifelong education in the long term. As the government strengthened its policies regarding support for female workers to re-enter the labor market after the year 2000, these institutions reinforced career counseling and career connection services. In particular, as the government's reemployment support center for women expanded, these women's institutions played an important role in carrying out the projects in each region.

The Korean government has long made a variety of efforts to increase the female labor force participation rate, which is the lowest level among member countries of the Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development (OECD). Since the enactment

of the 1998 Act on Gender Equality in Employment, the government has implemented an improved Basic Plan for Gender Equality in Employment every five years. In particular, the government has adopted strong measures to establish a corporate culture of gender equality in employment and personnel management. In 2006, it began efforts to prevent and eliminate sexual harassment in the workplace for the first time, starting with businesses with more than 1,000 employees. The program was expanded to include employees from companies with more than 500 workers in 2009.

In 2008, the government renamed the Act on Gender Equality in Employment to the Act on Equal Employment and Support for Work-Family Reconciliation. At that time, it also reinforced measures to help working women create a balance between work and family. These measures were led by the Ministry of Employment and Labor, which is responsible for gender equality in the workplace.

With the launch of the Ministry of Gender Equality&Family in 2003, developing resources for women and policies to stimulate women's participation in the job market began to attract more attention. In particular, the Women's Resource Development Center, an organization for women supporting reemployment and training for housewives, was stated as grounds for the Framework Act on Women's Development by the Ministry of Gender Equality&Family. Accordingly, the Ministry of Gender Equality&Family obtained the function of supporting education and training to women preparing to reenter the labor market. Ministry of Gender Equality had expanded into the Ministry of Gender Equality&Family in 2005 and allocated substantial portion of budget in policies on increasing childcare facilities to ease women's burden on childcare and the scope of recipients for childcare expense assistance so that more families can receive financial assistance. At the same time, Dynamic Women Korea 2010 (2006~2010) was launched in 2006 and in cooperation from ministries, efforts were concentrated on establishing diverse infrastructures and increasing jobs for women. The plan classified women according to their lifecycle: adolescent, youth, employed, and job seeker. It aimed to increase female labor force's participation rate to 55% by 2010 by enforcing multifaceted projects and programs.

Unfortunately, these efforts did not produce tangible results in increasing women's participation in economic activities. Female labor force participation rate recorded 48.4% in 2000 increased by a mere 1.6% points to 50% in 2009. To resolve this problem, the policy should be directed from focusing on promoting employment of the unemployed to targeting economically inactive population, potential workforce.

Economically inactive female population recorded a mere 8.471 million in 1990, but soared to 10.420 million, or 50.8% of the total working age population in 2009. Among the economically inactive population, approximately four million are economically inactive due to housekeeping and childrearing. Considering that substantial number of the women hopes to get employed, it would lead to a drastic increase of female labor force participation rate if they can be induced to the labor market.

In May 2008, the Ministry of Gender Equality&Family and Ministry of Employment and Labor jointly enacted The Act on Promotion of Economic Activities of Career-Interrupted Women. While previous policy regarding equal employment and support for work-family reconciliation was centered on the unemployed, The Act on Promotion of Economic Activities of Career-Interrupted Women was focused on women whose career had interrupted by marriage, pregnancy, childbirth or childrearing and wanted to get back to work.

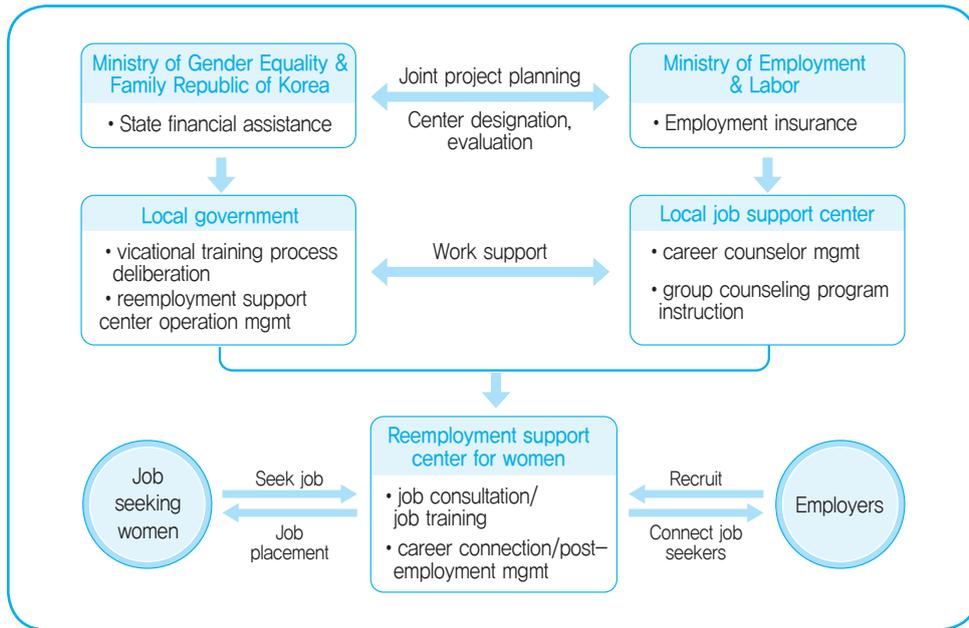
Going beyond just training career-interrupted women in their 30s and 40s, the policy was directed at encouraging their aspiration to rejoin the workforce, providing employment information and consulting services, and providing all-around service from job placement to post-employment services. This policy demonstrates the government's strong intent to provide complete support for economically inactive career-interrupted women both at work and in the home. As part of its efforts to realize the purposes of the policy, Ministry of Employment and Labor and Ministry of Gender Equality&Family jointly designated and implemented the New Occupations for Women's Centers beginning in 2009.

3.2.2 Promotion System and Organization Type

The implementation system of reemployment support center for women is indicated in the figure below. On the central government side, the Ministry of Gender Equality&Family and Ministry of Employment and Labor allocate the center's budget and provide administrative support with respect to their respective roles. The Ministry of Gender Equality&Family provides financial assistance, not only for labor costs of workers at enforcement organizations, but also for career education training program costs and internship expenses, work and family reconciliation projects and the visiting employment support service program. The Ministry of Employment and Labor provides funding in support of career counseling and group counseling program operating expenses. In particular, the Ministry of Gender Equality&Family works to apply a gender-sensitive perspective that reflects the obstacles and characteristics of women throughout their life cycle in all its projects. The Ministry of Employment and Labor provides knowledge accumulated through long-term experience in career education training, group counseling programs and employment support services.

On the local government side, both local governments and regional job centers provide joint financial assistance for labor costs and operating expenses of centers, targeted career education training programs for women along with reviewing and supervising a wide range of the centers' projects and programs, including the career education training program for women. Cooperation among all parties is reflected in budget allocation. In the 2011 budget, the Ministry of Gender Equality&Family contributed 23.9 billion won, the Ministry of Employment and Labor 6.7 billion won and local governments 9.9 billion won for a total of 40.5 billion won (an increase from a total 17.2 billion won in 2009 and 25.7 billion won in 2010).

Figure 3-4 | Promotion System of Reemployment Support Center for Women



Reemployment support center for women, which receive cooperative financial support from central and local governments, provide systematic counseling and employment information to women seeking jobs and help them receive occupation training program in line with their aptitude as well as assistance finding jobs. At the same time, through continuing a cooperative relationship with companies looking for employees, it connects the companies with the female job seekers and provides post-employment support so they can more easily sustain their employment.

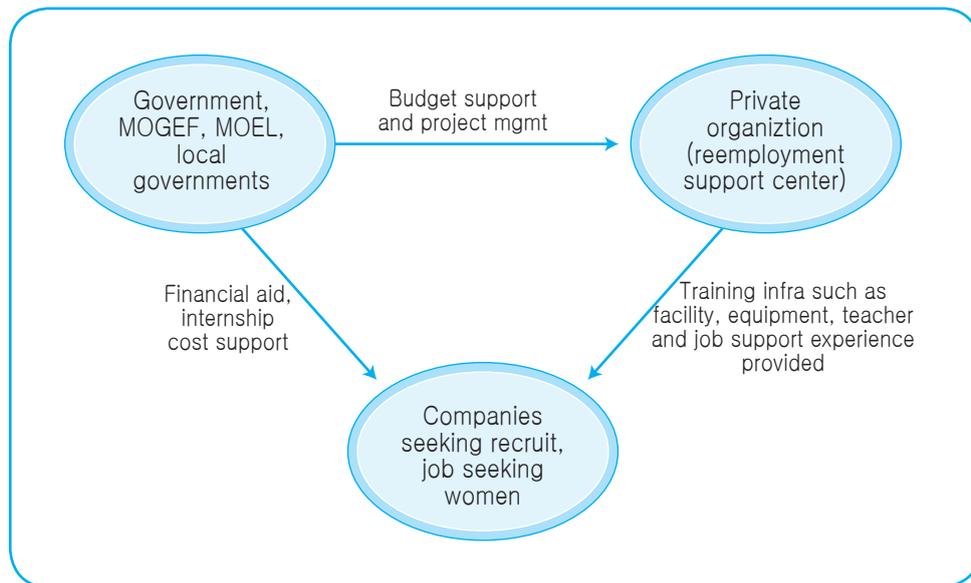
Reemployment support center for women carried out education programs, welfare project, career education training and cultural programs for women even before it was designated to implement policies related to working women by the government. That is, the government designated an organization that was already engaged in projects related to helping women find employment before it provided financial assistance.

Reemployment support center for women started out with 72 centers in 2009, growing to 90 centers in 2011. Of those 90 centers, 51 are operated by Women’s Resource Development Centers, followed by Women’s Centers with 27 and nine centers which are run by universities, social welfare institutions and cultural centers run by foundations. Centers are distributed evenly throughout the country and centered in the five regions of Siheung in Gyeonggi province, Ochang in Chungbuk province, Iksan in Jeonbuk province, and Changwon in Kyungnam province where national industrial complexes are located. The centers are established within the industrial complexes to meet the needs for women’s workforce in the manufacturing industry.

Reemployment support center for women project is a positive governance model, developed through cooperation among the central government, the local government and the private sector. Instead of being operated solely by the government, cooperation with private organizations and institutions that have experience in training, welfare, and culture projects for women has made this project much effective. This was based on the idea that government would be able to create a synergistic relationship with private institutions that have long-term experience and know-how in occupational education, welfare and culture projects as well as the facilities and other infrastructure to produce maximum results in efforts to re-employ women who are seeking jobs. Therefore, not only Women’s Centers that are directly run by the government, but also Women’s Resource Development Centers and other civic organization and university facilities are utilized to help further the project’s goals.

The roles of government and private institutions are described in [Figure 3-5]. On the central government side, the Ministry of Gender Equality&Family and the Ministry of Employment and Labor provide financial assistance, and local governments also provide funding and have responsibility in managing projects. Companies that hire career-interrupted women are provided with internship subsidies for six months or financial assistance to improve their working environment. Under this type of government support, project-enforcing organizations, mostly private institutions carry out reemployment programs for career-interrupted women based on their pool of teachers, facilities, equipments and other infrastructure and long-term experience in providing training and employment support for women over age 40.

Figure 3-5 | Public and Private Sector Cooperation Method in Reemployment Support Center for Women



3.2.3 Re-Employment Support Service

As can be seen in the figure below, reemployment support center for women provide four-phased gradual re-employment service to women seeking jobs. Taking into consideration the characteristics of women whose career is interrupted, the four-step service provides comprehensive employment support service ranging from career educational training to employment and post-employment support. All employment support services of reemployment support center for women include counseling, training and employment-related services, all of which are free of charge to all career-interrupted women regardless of income level if they have registered at reemployment support center for women and are seeking jobs. This has been the case since 2009, when reemployment support center for women started, and continues until present. This is based on a policy direction of actively inducing economic activity among career-interrupted women who are seeking jobs by relieving them of the burden of expenses required for evaluation, training and job placement

■ Phase 1: Career Counseling

- Professional career counseling is provided through aptitude tests, career planning and provision of recruiting information. In particular, group counseling programs are available for job seekers who lack confidence in finding employment.

■ Phase 2: Career Education Training

- Considering the demand for human resources of businesses and abilities and career paths of women seeking jobs, a variety of career education training programs are developed and provided.

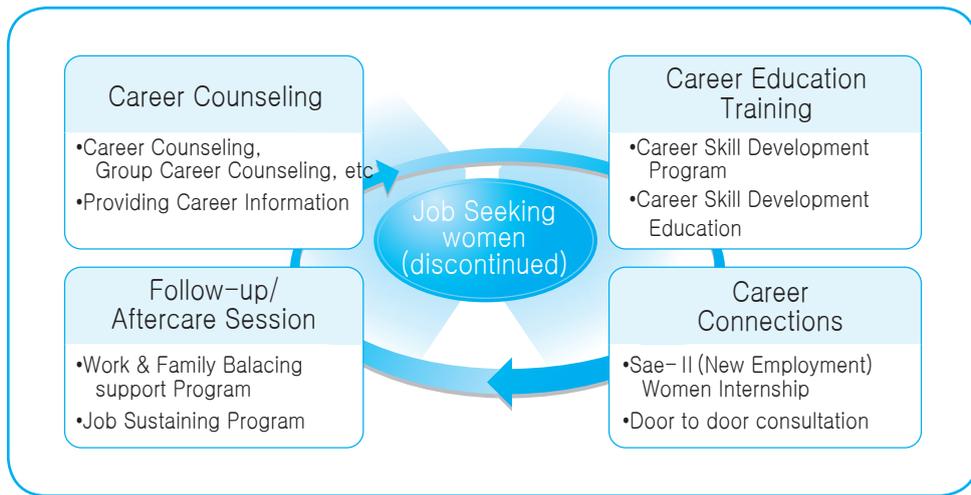
■ Phase 3: Career Connections

- Capitalizing on a career connection information system by government and private institutions, human resources and recruiting information is identified and managed to provide tailored job placement service for each individual.

■ Phase 4: Follow-up/ Aftercare Session

- Aftercare sessions are provided to employed women and businesses for continuing employment. Also, services for work and family reconciliation are offered, including creating a woman-friendly corporate environment, providing childcare and offering meal preparation assistance to children of working women.

Figure 3-6 | One-Stop Model of Reemployment Support Center for Women



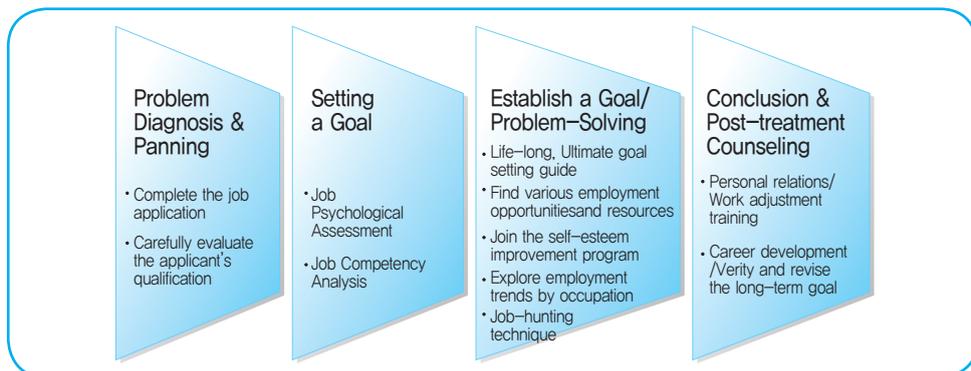
a. Occupation and Career Path Counseling

Reemployment support center for women carry out employment and career counseling tailored to individuals and the life cycle of women seeking jobs. Employment counseling is provided in three methods – one-on-one counseling, group counseling and visiting counseling where the counselor visits women seeking jobs. All these types of counseling are aimed to eliminate psychological barriers for women and a range of counseling services are provided to assist women finding jobs through life planning, enhancing their confidence and work ethic, and improving the self-image of job seekers.

(1) Individual Counseling

Individual counseling goes through the stages of problem diagnosis and planning, goal-setting, problem-solving, and conclusion and post-treatment counseling.

Figure 3-7 | Career Counseling Process



■ Phase 1: Intake and Assessment for Female Job Seekers
(Problem Diagnosis&Planning)

- First, the problems and characteristics of job seekers are discovered through a personal interview. In employment counseling, the process of self exploration is very important. This is because most women do not have information on their areas of interest and jobs that might fit their aptitude. More importantly, many of them do not know a lot about themselves (what they like, etc). Self-exploration is conducted through career-related psychological tests that are internationally accredited and reworked to fit characteristics of Koreans. These tests are utilized when it is difficult to find any job that attracts interest, or when it is difficult to choose one job out of several possibilities.

■ Phase 2: Setting Goals for Female Job Seekers

- In this stage, the candidate's personality and interests are objectively evaluated through vocational preference, value and personality tests. Moreover, job competency is examined to understand the strengths, weaknesses and aptitude of female job seekers to diagnose their level of competency and a field of employment that suits their aptitude. It is particularly important to identify strengths of the candidates so that they can find jobs that will maximize their competitiveness and lead them to set career goals on their own.

■ Phase 3: Establishing Goals and Problem-Solving

- It is recommended that visitors make a guidebook of their life plan so that they can plan their life with an overarching vision. To this end, job seekers are assisted in collecting information on education and training, occupation, qualifications and the labor market, as well as establishing realistic employment goals based on changes in the corporate environment and up-to-date employment trends to help them practice job-finding skills regarding their résumé, curriculum vitae, interview, manner and image making. Also, job seekers can recover confidence through trainings in self expression, goal setting, and mock interviews.

■ Phase 4: Conclusion and Follow-Up

- In the last stage, a job adaptation program is created to enable female job seekers to adopt to both their new job and relationships with other people at work. In addition, education and training programs are provided so that they can develop their career after beginning employment, and career development goals are assessed.

■ Establishing an Employment Plan

- In job counseling, a realistic employment plan needs to be established, considering the job seeker's characteristics and environment. To do this, analysis of the reality that the job seeker faces is required as well as assessment on the weakness and strengths of the job seeker. For this, a SWOT (Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities and Threats) analysis is used to assess internal competency and the external environment.

(2) Group Counseling

Reemployment support center for women provides both individual and group counseling to women who lack confidence regarding employment. Unlike one-on-one counseling, group counseling is conducted with a class of 20 to 30 job seekers for approximately 20 hours (four hours a day for five days) to assess aptitudes and carry out a range of diagnostic tests to help job seekers better understand themselves, enhance understanding of the labor market and prepare for re-employment through self-expression and other training sessions.

Counselors assist participants in sharing their past experiences and employment interest to better understand themselves and others and create an environment where job seekers can support each other in setting plans for re-employment. In particular, a focus is centered on recovering confidence through exercises such as self-expression and goal setting training and mock interviews.

The group counseling method is highly effective in relieving career-interrupted women's fears about the job market and recover confidence in regaining employment. It is also a good opportunity to listen and learn from others' opinions.

(3) Visiting Counseling Service

Reemployment support center for women does not just wait for job-seeking women to come into the office. Staffs go to wherever career-interrupted women might be. This means that it operates visiting counseling service. The reason for operating a visiting counseling service is that while married women may have the interest in finding a job, they often have limited information on relevant institutions and unlike other unemployed persons, they do not actively seek jobs right away.

Therefore, employment consultants at reemployment support center for women regularly visit large shopping centers, traditional markets, churches, schools, banks, government offices and apartment complexes to set up mobile counseling centers. At the visiting counseling service, intake counseling is performed, aptitude or interest examinations are conducted and employment information is introduced. Furthermore, the visitors are recommended to visit reemployment support center for women for more complete services.

b. Career Education Training

Reemployment support center for women have developed and operated career education training sessions tailored to the human resources needs of their local community and industries to strengthen the career-related competency of career-interrupted women and help them re-enter the labor market. Career education training programs are developed after with deliberation on career education training operation plans submitted by reemployment support center for women by local governments. Through a series of decision-making steps such as on-site visits, the appropriateness of the programs is reviewed and up to three programs are supported by each reemployment support center for women.

Career education training programs start recruiting trainees in March each year and complete the process from April to September. Those most in need of employment support are prioritized when selecting trainees based on factors such as their income bracket, women who are sole breadwinners, immigrant women in international marriages, women with disabilities and women from North Korea. Trainees receive comprehensive employment support services including work/family balance support service (meal preparation assistance services, use of childcare centers within the center, etc.) to reduce the burden of childrearing as well as internship programs and career connection services, not only during the training period but also after completing training.

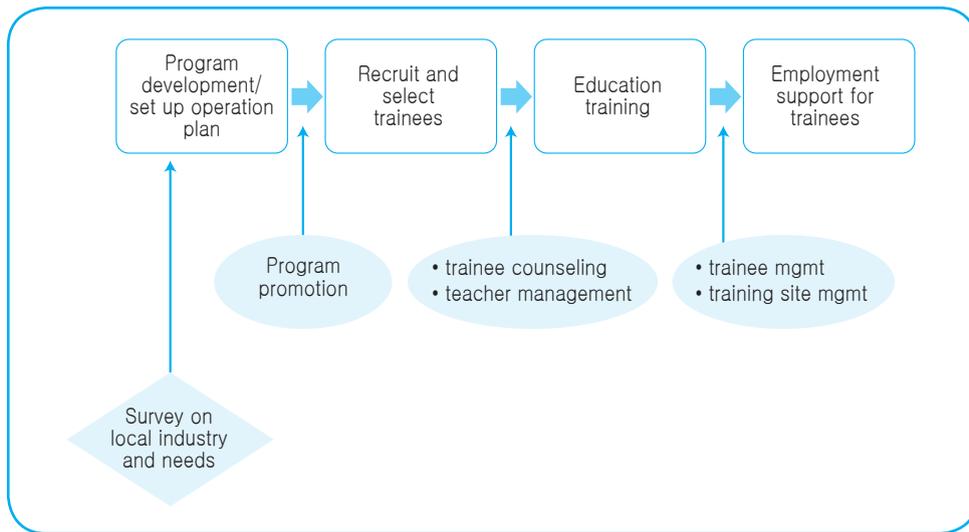
Programs for after-school instructors and instructors for education of children (60 courses) make up the largest part of the career education training programs provided by reemployment support center for women. These programs are followed by computerized tax accounting and bookkeeping (47 courses) and multi office programs such as computerized office support. With the development of the internet, internet shopping mall, e-commerce and web design programs (22 courses) are also provided. In accordance with the spread of leisure activities with the implementation of five-day workweek, the government's environment policy, history, culture and ecology instructors programs (21 courses) are now on the increase. Traditional women's career's education training programs such as cooking courses including school meal cooking, beauty treatment, crafts, and needlework as well as programs for housemaid and caregiver for the sick, which are preferred by many older women with low educational attainment, are also popular.

The career education training program of reemployment support center for women reflects women's wants and needs for career education training. More educated women usually prefer part-time and teaching-related jobs and women with lower level of education tend to prefer full-time jobs as housemaids, care-worker, or other service positions. The younger the woman, the more she tends to prefer to work with computerized office programs or internet-related educational programs that may be required in clerical or white-collar jobs.

Career education training programs of different types are offered ranging from as short as 80 hours to 160 hours. Particularly for women with some level of college degree and/or relevant job certifications, a more professional education training program was developed and is provided in a cooperative venture among reemployment support center for women, community college, local corporate associations and related institutions. Career education training is, for the most part, group training carried out during the day that helps job candidates acquire an actual sense of being on the job. The trainees are sent to actual worksites and placed in positions in their field of employment.

Overall implementation process of the career education training is as indicated in the next figure.

Figure 3-8 | Vocational Education and Training Implementation Process



c. Career Connections

The most crucial task for the center is to connect women who have received career education training to jobs. To this end, reemployment support center for women actively identifies and manages information about companies seeking to recruit women. It also provides a service in which a staff member from the center accompanies women to the company searching for new recruits to provide assistance in interviews. Finally, the center often offers financial assistance to employers so that women can be employed as interns in companies.

First, to identify companies seeking new recruits, the centers develop education programs tailored to the needs of companies after surveying them on their human resource needs, as well as determining general regional staffing needs. These surveys help the centers focus on managing potential recruiting companies over the long term. In addition, the center has agents who exclusively work to identify and manage new recruits. These agents make visits to companies that could potentially recruit women employees. There are about five to seven agents at each center who connect women to jobs.

Also, a worker from the center accompanies women to interviews, which is a unique service of reemployment support center for women. Often, career-interrupted women have been separated from the working environment and it is not easy for them to go to interviews even when they have found the right job field. This is where this program can provide help. In particular, the service is provided to women who lack confidence in employment, have limited career experience, are older, are sole family breadwinners, have failed previous job interviews, are afraid of interviews and others for whom it may be difficult to attend interviews by themselves. It is also provided when there is a need to negotiate on the terms

of wage and working conditions for job-seeking women. This service has proven to be very helpful for career-interrupted women.

Finally, reemployment support center for women operate a program named the reemployment support center for female internship program, to support career-interrupted women who have not worked for a long period of time adjust to their new working environment. This internship program, on the company side, alleviates bias toward employing women by hiring them for a certain period of time to utilize female human resources, and on the side of career-interrupted women, provides opportunities to experience work and acquire the skills required to be a productive worker.

The period of the internship program varies from three to six months depending on the agreement between interested parties. After termination of the contract, the period can be modified with agreement between the parties. Working hours are, in principle, eight hours a day, five days a week. Companies hiring interns should sign a labor contract and offer workmen's compensation insurance, labor insurance, health insurance and unemployment insurance, and offer wages of at least KRW 950,000 a month based on an eight hours a day, five day a week status. For companies that hire interns through the New Jobs for Women Internship Program through reemployment support center for women, financial assistance of 500,000 won per month is offered for each intern up to six months.

d. Follow-up

The last stage of re-employment support center for women service is continuing employment management. Those assisted by continuing employment management are, on the one hand, job seeking women and women employed through reemployment support center for women, and on the other hand, companies which have either employed women workers or intend to hire female workers through reemployment support center for women.

The purpose of continuing employment management is to continue career connections in the long term by providing responsible employment support services to users of reemployment support center for women, including the job seekers women and companies. Continuing employment management is generally provided for up to six months after registering for jobs by job seeking women and female workers.

Reemployment support center for women offer counseling and solutions for women who are employed through the centers on relationship with people at work, adjusting to working life, managing conflicts with supervisors, balancing work and family life, and other challenges to help women continue working. To those women who are not yet employed, counseling services are provided so that they continue their search for employment by continuing to offer employment information. Also, a variety of methods are used for continued employment management to clients of reemployment support center for women, such as supporting meetings among trainees of the center, operating clubs for trainees to exchange employment information, and providing a venue for clubs and gathering activities.

Continued employment management for employers is also an important function of reemployment support center for women. For companies that have hired women through reemployment support center for women, a survey is conducted on their satisfaction level with the workers they employed (job capability, professionalism, diligence, etc.) to determine problems. Feedback from the companies on their satisfaction level or recommendations can be used effectively to implement reemployment support center for women projects in the future.

e. Work and Family Balance

One of the most important projects of reemployment support center for women is their work and family balance support project. This project was designed to support both women and companies based on the perception that the biggest difficulty women face when finding employment is finding a way to strike a balance between work and family life. For job seeking women, the project helps alleviate burdens from childrearing and housework, and for companies it supports creating an environment which is favorable to working women. The purpose is to expand the employment base of career-interrupted women.

The work and family balance support service is divided into programs for job seekers and companies.

Reemployment support center for women offers childcare and afterschool childcare service to help women with their childcare responsibilities. That is, in order for women to work without worrying about their children, the center provides childcare and afterschool childcare classes for children of working women. In addition, reemployment support center for women provide side dish services regularly to trainees and working women. By providing high quality side dishes at no cost to low income clients and at low cost to other clients, the centers help ease the burden of housework. Various programs to assist with family needs are also provided. Cooking classes are offered to husbands so that they can help women with housework. Historical and cultural experiences and family camping activities are also offered to provide opportunities for the entire family to enjoy time together.

Work and family balance support services are also provided to companies with a relationship to reemployment support center for women. The centers make agreements with “woman-friendly” companies and maintain regular contact with officials and human resource directors to create a woman friendly corporate environment. A “woman-friendly agreement company” is one that has committed to implement active employment measures to retain female human resources through measures such as maternity protection and gender equity in the workplace. Financial assistance is provided to these companies to improve their working environment and to help prepare facilities for a women-friendly working environment. For example, companies that install or repair female toilets, lounges, and nursing facilities for new mothers receive up to 50% of their costs within the limit of two million won. Before providing financial assistance, corporate environment consulting service is provided to companies interested in the service. A wide range of educational programs are also offered to employees of the companies including sexual harassment prevention and gender equality education.

2011 Modularization of Korea's Development Experience
Operational Experience on Women's Vocational Education
and Training Support System and Project

Chapter 4

Improving Laws and Regulations to Vocational Education and Training Women: 1980s-2000s

1. Background of Legal Institutionalization
2. Act on Equal Employment and Support
for Work-Family Reconciliation
3. Framework Act on Women's Development
4. Laws and Basic Plans for Human Resource Development
in Women's Policy by Target

Improving Laws and Regulations to Vocational Education and Training Women: 1980s-2000s

Economic activity among women in Korea, which had continuously increased alongside Korea's rapid industrialization in the 1960s, stalled beginning in the late 1990s. To overcome the stagnation, the government has executed various policies and enacted relevant laws. The following describes in chronological order diverse policies carried out by the government to promote women's economic activities.

With the introduction of high school equalization policy and higher education becoming more popular, the number of women educated at least to the middle or high school level in the labor market dramatically increased from the 1980s to the mid-1990s. This means there has been a substantial progress in human resource development during this corresponding period. Participation by women in the labor market continued to increase, augmented by informatization and development of the service industry. The female population worked in a variety of fields, including not only production jobs but also office, sales and service position

Meanwhile, though the female workforce was still composed mostly of single women, the number of married women at work increased during this period. However, economic activity by married women did not show substantial change due to pressures from balancing work and family. Legislation to protect female workers was almost nonexistent except for the Regulation on Special Protection for Women in the Labor Standards Act. Therefore, women were in a situation where they can do little but accept their disadvantages on the labor market.

However, job training for women continued to be limited. There was no administrative body to plan, implement, and supervise job training which reflects the unique job training needs of women. The job training department of the Ministry of Employment and Labor³

³ With the establishment of the Labor Administration in 1963, administration of labor, previously managed by the Labor Bureau of the Ministry of Health and Welfare, was managed by the Labor Administration along with issues concerned with the labor of women. After the 1970s, a separate person in charge of issues on female workforce took on the job.

was focused on developing candidates for male-dominated positions, such as engineering and technical fields, and did not review policy on developing jobs or job training for women (Korean Women's Development Institute, 2001). In the 1970s, with the exception of the cottage industry center of the former Ministry of Knowledge Economy and job training by Women's Centers in cities and provinces, job training for women was almost non-existent. Organizations providing job training to women increased after the Asian financial crisis 1997.

After the Asian financial crisis in the late 1990s, approximately half of the young women entering the labor market for the first time had received at least a high school education. However, this highly educated female workforce was directly affected by unemployment caused by the Asian financial crisis. Under the International Monetary Fund (IMF) rescue program for Korea, unemployment became the most serious social issue facing the nation and female unemployment was even more severe. At the time, when companies dismissed employees, they adopted criteria that workers in double-income families would be discharged first, and then single-income family would be laid off. Due to this standard, the female workforce from double-income families was the first in line to lose their jobs. This did not have a positive impact on the increase of women's economic activities. Because the female workforce belonging to the aforementioned category was first in line to be laid off, progress toward social recognition for women's capacities and their increased participation in economic activities took a step backwards toward the former gender-based ideology in which males acted as breadwinner and females provided homemaking and childcare services.

At the time, the number of non-regular workers in all fields dramatically increased, intensifying employment instability for women. From the mid-2000s, female participation in labor market has recovered to its pre-Asian crisis level, but the gender inequality in the labor market has intensified. In particular, Korea was reported to have the highest level of career interruption due to marriage, childbirth, and child care, as well as the lowest level of employment rate of highly educated women and gender-based wage difference among OECD member countries, requiring improvements in these fields.

Requirements for improvement were reflected in the enactment of the 1995 Framework Act on Women's Development, the first time policies on female development were institutionalized. Also, in a major change, affirmative action for women was introduced into the election of members of the National Assembly and regional elections as well as in public servant recruitment exams. In addition, the Equal Employment Act was revised to become the Act on Equal Employment and Support for Work-Family Reconciliation in an attempt to encompass active utilization of women in the workforce and help people balance their work and family responsibilities for both male and female workers. In 1999, the government implemented policies to help the nation recover from the currency crisis and reduce female unemployment. A case in point would be strengthened self-support project, employment promotion training, and vocational training under an Act aimed at helping households headed

by unemployed women enforced by the Ministry of Employment and Labor in 2000 along with the National Basic Livelihood Security Program. However, the government recorded better results in vocational training and enhancing the employment capacity of women through cooperative projects between the Ministry of Employment and Labor and Ministry of Gender Equality&Family with the enactment of the Act on Promotion of Economic Activities of Career-Interrupted Women in 2008. While the Ministry of Employment and Labor worked to revitalize economic activity largely for unemployed women, the Ministry of Gender Equality&Family implemented various projects to enhance vocational competence and help them participate in healthy social activities by providing general vocational and technical education, life-culture classes, and counseling on employment and secondary employment. However, policies of the Ministry of Gender Equality&Family after 2008 focused on developing women's vocational competence and promoting their employment. The following explains the contents and results of the aforementioned policies and projects and their implications:

1. Background of Legal Institutionalization

The first governmental body aimed at helping female workers in Korea was the Women's Bureau of the Department of Health and Human Services, a governmental agency, in 1946. At this time, however, women were viewed as subordinate to men, rather than being viewed as independent economic actors.

Since 1970, an awareness of women's issues has spread in Korea alongside the introduction of women's studies in western countries. This focus began to develop in full swing when the United Nations proclaimed the year 1975 to be International Women's Year. Women's groups in Korea continued to call for a political body on women's issues and the UN advised the government to establish an entity dealing with those issues against the backdrop of the International Women's Year in 1975. Because of this, the government worked toward the establishment of a comprehensive women's organization by integrating the National Women's Vocational Training Center, which had provided job training services to women since 1963, together with the National Women's Welfare Center, which had operated as a venue for women's groups and activities such as culture classes, technical education and research since its inception in 1961. Korean representatives approved the establishment of a women's organization at the World Conference on Women held in Copenhagen, Denmark, in 1980. Finally, on December 31, 1982, the Korean Women's Development Institute Act was enacted and as a result, the Korean Women's Development Institute opened its doors in 1983. This came about because of a shift of policy toward women, from an original focus on helping widows, single mothers and rehabilitating prostitutes that later aimed to develop career skills and protect the rights of all women. The Korean Women's Development Institute, a state-run organization, effectively carried out research on women's issues, education and training to improve women's capabilities, and supported activities for women, contributing to their participation in society and improving their welfare (Ministry of Health and Social

Affairs, 1987). The government established regulations that placed emphasis on job training for women through the Vocational Training Act (1981. 12.31) and charged the Minister of Labor with making efforts to increase employment opportunities and develop appropriate jobs for women in the Employment Security Act (1982.4.3). It also expanded employment opportunities for women through legislation supporting women's employment by reducing the number jobs that have employment limitation on women in the Enforcement Decree of the Labor Standards Act (1982.8.13) and provided necessary education and training. With ratification of the UN Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women (1984.12.12), it had the same effect as domestic law (1985.12.26). Reflecting this, the government prepared regulations to prohibit discrimination against women in employment by stipulating that "Women's labor receives special protection, and is not subject to unfair discrimination in employment, wage and other labor conditions" in Article 32, Clause 4, of the Constitution of the sixth republic of Korea (1987.10.29) and established a regulation that the government shall work to improve the rights and welfare of women (Ministry of Employment and Labor, 2001).

With the enactment of the Act on Gender Equality in Employment in 1987 and the entire revision of provisions that discriminated against women in Part IV (Relatives) and Part V (Inheritance) of the Civil Act in 1990, the perceptions of women changed from them being simply the beneficiaries of government policy to becoming independent subjects at the center of policy. In particular, the Act on Gender Equality in Employment, which was enacted based on recognition that the Labor Standards Act was not enough to end discrimination against women, nor could it establish the details of prohibition and penalties for discriminatory actions against women in all areas of employment from recruitment to hiring. It was a major step that the act included a provision calling for maternity leave and daycare facilities at workplaces for the first time in the history Korea's employment policy (1987.12.4) (Ministry of Employment and Labor, 2001). However, no permanent organization dealing with policies for women existed within the government or non-governmental organizations.

Comprehensive legislation on women's policy was initiated after the establishment of the Presidential Commission on Women's Affairs in the National Assembly in 1994. With the Framework Act on Women's Development in 1995, core tasks and detailed measures for women's development were presented and in accordance with Framework Act on Women's Development in 1998, the Presidential Commission on Women's Affairs, which was the first presidential body on women's policy, was established. In 1998, the Act on Support for Women Entrepreneurs was enacted and in 1999 the Act on Gender Equality in Employment was revised to include provisions on sexual harassment and prohibition of discrimination in human resources. With the 1999 abolition of the practice of awarding favorable points to men who completed their military service, women's economic participation accelerated. Establishment of the Ministry of Gender Equality in 2001 reflected the strong inclination of the government to work toward revitalizing policies to help women.

2. Act on Equal Employment and Support for Work-Family Reconciliation

The purpose of the Act on Gender Equality in Employment was to ensure gender equality in employment opportunities and treatment of women in accordance with Article 11, Clause 1 of the Constitution, which states that "All people are equal in the employment, marriage and family life and Article 32, Clause 4 of the Constitution, prescribing gender equality in employment, wage and labor conditions, as well as promoting the welfare and social status of women through developing their vocational capabilities.

Looking into the background of the Act on Gender Equality in Employment, there was a limit to what could be accomplished by applying the Trade Union Act and Labor Standards Act in wide range of discriminatory actions against women in the workplace due to obscure and comprehensive definitions of the issues. Therefore, women's groups called for legal and institutional measures to protect women's rights to equality, work, and earning a living, as well as for swift measures on cases of discrimination against women in employment which had been in process since the 1980s. The government began to prepare measures on gender discrimination to enhance Korea's national competitiveness and more effectively utilize human resources. The United Nations Convention on the Elimination of All Forms of Discrimination against Women in December 1979 was ratified in Korea on December 27, 1984. In accordance with ratification of this UN Convention, Korea was obliged to put into place a legal mechanism to ensure gender equality in employment. This put in a foundation for the Act on Gender Equality in Employment (Park, Sun-young and others, 2009). On December 4, 1987, the Act on Gender Equality in Employment was enacted. It was revised on December 21, 2007 and renamed the Act on Equal Employment and Support for Work-Family Reconciliation. Article 1 prescribes, "The purpose of this Act is to realize gender equality in employment in accordance with the principle of equality proclaimed in the Constitution of the Republic of Korea by ensuring equal opportunities and treatment in employment between men and women and protecting maternity and promoting female employment, and to contribute to the improvement of all the people's quality of life by supporting the reconciliation of work and family life for workers."

The following table highlights long-term changes in equal employment policy.

Table 4-1 | Changes in Equal Employment Policy (1953-Present)

Classification	Contents
Special protection period (1953-1960s)	- Began with enactment of the Labor Standards Act in 1953 and system for protection of women and protection on physical and physiological characteristics
Welfare benefit period (1970s-mid 1980s)	- Due to lack of human resources with economic development, the need for female workers increased, giving rise to issues of workers' rights for women and childcare support - Creation of basis for employment of women, including maternity protection and increased focus on eliminating gender discrimination with the enactment of Act on Gender Equality in Employment (1987)
Establishment of gender equality foundation period (1987-2000)	- Regulatory basis for gender equality in employment with three revisions of Act on Gender Equality in Employment and measures dealing with women's unemployment; insufficient to realize effective gender equality - Organization of the regulation for increasing women's employment
Realization of equality in employment period (2001-2007)	- Laid the regulatory groundwork where women can exert their ability in the 21 st century knowledge-based society with the revision of Act on the Gender Equality in Employment, Labor Standards Act, Employment Insurance Act
Settlement of equality in employment and work and family balance support system establishment period (2008-)	- Funding provided for maternity protection expenses, active measures to improve employment, fiscal and tax policy for development of high-quality part-time work and other measures to support work and family balance

Source: Ministry of Employment and Labor. 2008 『The 4th Act on Equal Employment』

After enacting the Act on Gender Equality in Employment in 1987, the government established and carried out a comprehensive and systematic strategy to realize equal employment and promote the employment of female workers along with implementation of a maternity leave system. With the enforcement of the first (1994-1997) and second (1998-2002) Master Plans to Promote Working Women's Welfare, and the Third (2003-2007) Basic plan on Gender Equality in Employment, a foundation for revitalizing the employment of women was secured including provisions on equal employment, improved working conditions, and stronger maternity protection, which led to continuous increase in

women's economic participation. In particular, through enforcement of the Third Basic Plan on Gender Equality in Employment, a regulatory foundation was established, including proactive employment improvement measures, increased sharing of labor costs, and revision of the Act on Equal Employment and Support for Work-Family Reconciliation. This helped create a vision for the regulatory framework toward realizing equal employment in a more proactive manner, an improvement over the passive measures of the past which had focused mainly on protecting women. As a result of measures to eliminate many forms of discrimination, improve equity in employment and promote policy to provide equal opportunities in employment (stronger maternity protection, active employment improvement, and other measures), social prejudice and practices that created difficulties for female employment saw improvement; however, these improvement were seen as insufficient. Meanwhile, due to a low birthrate, aging population and a labor structure increasingly concentrated on the service sector, the effective and active utilization of female workforce became an important resource in the drive to improve national competitiveness.

The 4th Act on Equal Employment and Support for Work-Family Reconciliation (2008-2012) was established with the goal of improving female employment to equal the OECD average within five years under the vision of realizing an equal employment society and achieving a work/family balance. The following outlines in detail the core strategies and tasks.

Table 4-2 | 20 Core Tasks in 5 Sectors of the 4th Act on Equal Employment and Support for Work-Family Reconciliation

Classification	Basic Direction				
Areas	1. Enhance women's competency and increase jobs	2. Childcare support measures for working women	3. Working system for work and family balance	4. Workplace with no gender discrimination	5. Securing of employment infrastructure based on social consensus
Core Task	1-1. Increase jobs appropriate for women 1-2. Strengthen training system to unemployed women 1-3. Strengthen development of ability of working women 1-4. Strengthen employment support service to women 1-5. Improve social insurance system promoting women's employment	2-1. Alleviate childcare burden on working women 2-2. Relieve childcare burden on non-regular workers and other vulnerable class of the society 2-3. Increase socialization of labor expenses 1-4. Revitalize maternity leave system	3-1. Reduce actual working hours 3-2. Revitalize use of vacation system 3-3. Spread diverse types of labor such as working from home 3-4. Increase voluntary part-time work	4-1. Eliminate discrimination in recruiting and employment 4-2. Resolve discrimination in wage 4-3. Resolve discrimination in promotion 4-4. Secure efficacy of active employment improvement measures 4-5. secure efficacy of support to discrimination	5-1. Pursue women's employment policies through various participation 5-2. Strengthen infrastructure for employment of women

Source: Ministry of Employment and Labor. 2008 4th Act on Equal Employment and Support for Work-Family Reconciliation (2008-2012)

The 4th Act on Equal Employment and Support for Work-Family Reconciliation was ushered in a paradigm shift in employment policy for both genders. First, the scope of policies increased with the execution of equal employment and work and family balance policies

in addition to reducing gender discrimination in the labor market. Second, the policies had previously centered on prohibiting gender discrimination in employment and regulations for maternity protection. They now became more comprehensive in offering independent and active equal employment measures by companies and a stronger support system to companies working to realize equal employment, including incentives to companies with independent business operation. Lastly, while the main parties concerned with eliminating gender discrimination elimination, providing maternity protection, and sharing women's employment cost had been the employer and employee in the past, the concern and costs were spread to include businesses, labor unions, and the government, showing stronger social responsibility toward the employment of women and increasing the shared roles of labor, management and government in work and family balance.

The Equal Employment Act, enacted in 1988, was revised as The Act on Equal Employment and Support for Work-Family Reconciliation in 2007 after eight stages of revisions. At the time of enactment, the focus was placed on providing equal opportunities throughout all stages of employment and prohibiting discrimination against female workers in job training, job placement and promotion. However, the revised version describes support for working women so that they can manage work and family in order to respond to changing perceptions of workers about emphasizing a balance between work and family life and to promote women's economic activities during an era of low birthrate and an aging population.

The law requires gender equality in employment, improving employability for women, promoting employment, maternity protection, and support for work and family reconciliation. Policy on gender equality in employment can be largely divided into active improvement measures and improvement of gender discrimination practices and perceptions. In active improvement measures, if a company hired a distinctively low number of female workers compared to similar companies in the same industry, or if the ratio of female staff is low in administrative positions, the company is considered to be practicing indirect discrimination and may be required to establish and implement improvement measures. In accordance with The Act on Equal Employment and Support for Work-Family Reconciliation, the project on gender discrimination in employment prohibits discrimination in employment and in case of violations, business owners are subject to criminal penalties to prevent sexual harassment and provide education for business owners. Under the employment promotion project, business owners receive subsidies for employing female breadwinners who have been unemployed for over one month. The project includes an incentive program for promoting employment of unemployed woman breadwinners and incentive program for promoting employment of mothers that provides financial assistance to business owners when employing female workers who changed jobs due to pregnancy, childbirth and child rearing. Also, there is an incentive program for continuing employment after pregnancy and childbirth that provides subsidies to business owners for immediately re-employing contract or dispatched workers who are on leave after childbirth and more than 16 weeks pregnant after termination of labor contract.

**Table 4-3 | Women's Employment Promotion Support System
(Ministry of Employment and Labor)**

Policy	Target	Criteria	Financial assistance
incentive program for promoting employment of unemployed female breadwinner	business owner	Business owner who employs female breadwinner who has looked for a job but is in unemployed status for more than a month.	600,000 won a month for the first 6 months of employment, 300,000 won a month for subsequent 6 months.
incentive program for promoting employment of women who have given childbirth	business owner	Business owner who hired female labor force (after childbirth) who changed jobs due to pregnancy, childbirth and childrearing.	600,000 won a month for the first 6 months of employment, 300,000 won a month for subsequent 6 months.
incentive program for continued employment after pregnancy and childbirth	business owner	Business owner who immediately reemployed contract or dispatched worker who is on leave after childbirth and over 16 weeks pregnant after termination of labor contract.	600,000 won a month for the first 6 months of employment, 300,000 won a month for subsequent 6 months.

Note: Analysis and tasks on socio-economic policies on female human resources (2009).

In September 6, 2011, a revised version of the Maternity Protection Act⁴ was adopted to promote work and family reconciliation. Major contents of the revised version are: paid paternity leave and increasing the period of paternity leave; promoting maternity leave of contract or dispatched workers; introduction of the right of claim for reducing working hours for childcare; allowing of divided use of maternity leave before and after childbirth; expanding the scope of leave after miscarriage or stillbirth; and changing terminology from leave before and after birth to maternity leave before and after childbearing.

The Maternity Protection Act can be divided into a pre-natal leave and wage program and maternity leave for stillbirth and wage program. In accordance with Labor Standards Act, the legislation prescribes paid maternity leave to reduce the financial burden and secure income for employees using maternity leave or maternity leave for miscarriage and stillbirth. As pre-natal and post-natal leave aims to protect the health of not only the baby but also the mother, the law stipulates that pre-natal and post-natal leave shall be provided in full or partially not only for normal childbirth but also in cases of miscarriage, stillbirth and premature birth. Five days of leave is provided for less than 11 weeks of pregnancy and 10

⁴ Act on Equal Employment and Support for Work-Family Reconciliation, Labor Standards Act

days for 12 to 15 weeks of pregnancy. Over 45 days of post-natal leave should be provided when miscarriage, stillbirth and premature birth takes place from 4 to 7 months and paid leave of 90 days should be given for pregnancies that lasted more than 8 months. Also, under this legislation, pregnant women can use pre-natal leave anytime during pregnancy.

The parental leave system can be divided into parental leave and wage, incentives for parental leave, and incentives for employing substitute workers. A parent with a child younger than 6 years old is eligible for parental leave if the spouse is not on parental leave. Incentives for substitute worker employment and incentive for parental leave are provided to business owners who provide parental leave to employees, the insurers of the employment insurance. For business owners who provide more than 30 days of parental leave and continue employment more than 30 days after suspension of parental leave, incentives of 200,000 won per month are provided for each employee who has taken childcare leave. Incentives of 200,000 won are provided for each worker to business owners who employ replacement workers for more than 30 days, 30 days before the start of parental leave. Also, when a worker with a child younger than 6 years old decides to not take parental leave and requests reduction of work hours, business owners are obligated to allow reduction of work hours except in situations where the worker has worked for less than one year or when it is impossible to hire a substitute worker.

The spouse can request childcare leave to up to 5 days. Currently, only 3 days of unpaid leave is possible. This regulation has been revised to provide parental leave for the number of days as requested by the employee with the first three days as paid leave.

Table 4-4 | Maternity Protection/Parental Leave Support System (Ministry of Employment and Labor)

	Policy	Target
Maternity protection	Post-natal leave and wage	employee
	Miscarriage and stillbirth leave and wage	employee
Work/family reconciliation	Parental leave and wage	employee
	Parental leave incentive	business owner
	Substitute worker employment incentive	business owner

3. Framework Act on Women’s Development

Enactment of the framework act on women’s policies was related to the international cooperation on removing gender discrimination and global legislation movements. At the 4th Beijing World Conference on Women in 1995, a code of conduct urging gender mainstreaming giving attention to gender equity in all policy decisions was encouraged for all countries. Consequently, policies on gender mainstreaming and increasing the

perspective on gender issues were introduced in all areas of Korean society. The Framework Act on Women's Development was enacted as one of ten tasks to increase women's economic activities by the Korean Commission for promotion of Globalization, which was launched in 1995 (Jang Young-min and others, 2006). Initially, the law was submitted in the form of legislation by a National Assembly member on December 6, 1995 and on the same day, a draft of the Framework Act on Gender Equality was also submitted to the National Assembly. After deliberation by relevant standing committees in the National Assembly, a bill was produced encompassing the common elements of gender equality and women's development in the two bills and the Framework Act on Women's Development was enacted on December 30, 1995.

The stated purpose (Article 1) of the Framework Act on Women's Development was "to promote the equality of men and women in all the areas of politics, economy, society and culture and to facilitate women's development by stipulating the fundamental matters with regard to the obligations, etc. of the State and local governments for realizing an idea of equality between men and women under the Constitution of the Republic of Korea." The Framework Act on Women's Development calls for establishment of a Women's Policy Master Plan (Article 8 and Article 9) every five years. The basic idea of this Act is to encourage men and women to participate together and share responsibility for realization of a healthy family and development of State and society, through the promotion of equality between men and women, protection of motherhood, eradication of gender-based discrimination mindset and development of women's abilities based upon the dignity of individuals (Article 2).

3.1 Women's Policy Master Plan

Pursuant to the Framework Act on Women's Development, Women's Policy Master Plan has been established and enforced three times. The basic goal of the 1st Women's Policy Master Plan (1998-2002) is to promote gender equality, realize the ideals of the healthy family through promoting gender equality, women's social participation, and women's welfare and to consolidate a social system where men and women participate jointly in national and social development and share responsibilities. The 2nd Women's Policy Master Plan (2003-2007) was aimed at achieving substantial gender equality based on the social system established through the 1st plan. That is, it aimed to promote independence of women, ensure gender equality, and recognize differences between men and women in order to realize a society where men and women are substantially equal. It targeted increasing regards for working toward substantial gender equality through strategies of gender mainstreaming and partnership between men and women and central and local governments, as well as between governments and non-governmental organizations. The results of the 1st (1998-2002) and 2nd (2003-2007) Women's Policy Master Plan established a legal structure for gender equality and relieved gender discrimination, laying the groundwork for substantial gender equality. Reflecting the result of women's policies over the last ten years and increasing demands for

a new policy environment, the 3rd Women’s Policy Master Plan was expected to establish more proactive and diverse directions for women’s policy moving toward a sustainable society based on gender equality.

Under the vision of an advanced society based on gender equality, the 3rd Women’s Policy Master Plan (2008-2012) adopts utilization of female human resources, protection of women’s rights, strengthening the basis for policies on gender equality as policy measures with the goals of strengthening competency of women and respecting diversity and differences.

Table 4-5 | 14 Core Tasks in 3 Sectors of the 3rd Women’s Policy Master Plan

Classification	Policy Direction		
Areas	1. Utilization of female resources	2. Protection of women’s rights	3. Stronger basis for gender equality policy
Core task	1-1. Substantiate foundation for utilization of women’s resources 1-2. Expand and enhance representability of jobs for women 1-3. Prevention of discrimination against women workers 1-4. Increase jobs for women 1-5. Strengthen social support for women’s employment activities	2-1. Protection of women’s health 2-2. Fulfill the need of welfare for women 2-3. Increase rights of women with disabilities 2-4. Prevention of all kinds of violence and protection of victims 2-5. Ban prostitution and support self-support of victims 2-6. Support settlement of migrant women	3-1. Implementation of gender sensitivity policies 3-2. Pursuit of comprehensive policies for women 3-3. Spread culture of equality

Source: Ministry of Gender Equality&Family, The 3rd Women’s Policy Master Plan (2008-2012)

The following are the results of the 3rd Women’s Policy Master Plan relating to utilization of women:

First, a system was introduced in which the Career Development Center for Female Students is jointly designated by the Ministry of Gender Equality&Family and the Ministry of Education, Science and Technology and from December 2010, the Career Development Center for Female Students was officially designated for 29 universities. This stimulated career development for female students.

Second, based on the Basic Plan on Promotion of the Economic Activities of Career-Interrupted Women (2010-2014), the infrastructure to support employment of career-interrupted women expanded including increasing the number of new job centers for women as well as designating and operating wider areas of new job support headquarters to provide employment support services in areas with no new job centers.

Third, based on the Second Basic Plan on Fostering and Supporting Women in Science and Engineering, women in science and engineering have been encouraged and supported. Also, women have been actively supported in their efforts to participate in training as tourism professionals, a mentoring system among businesswomen has been established to foster women in business, education was provided to nurture next-generation female CEOs, operating expenses were supported for female farmers in agriculture and fishery centers, a female farmer leadership academy was implemented, and informatization education was provided to farmers. In these ways, a wide range of education and training was conducted to assist female professionals in diverse fields.

Fourth, to enhance female representation in the public sector, women's resources were expanded in the national defense sector, the appointment of female public officials over grade 4 has increased in central administrative agencies, and the appointment of female public officials in administrative positions has grown.

Fifth, to prevent discrimination against female workers, measures to strengthen maternity protection for non-regular workers were introduced. Also, guidance and inspection were strengthened to achieve substantial gender equality in employment to secure the efficacy of active employment improvement measures.

Sixth, the ratio of female workers in national strategic R&D projects increased. Also, through linking identification and distribution of new jobs and job placement in job training programs for career-interrupted women, jobs for women increased in the growth engine sector. The management infrastructure of female business owners increased. All of these factors contributed to increasing jobs for women.

Seventh, support was provided for operation of all-day kindergarten for working women, a community youth safety net (CYS-NET) was established and operated, social service assistance increased on childcare, and a system was improved to spread flexible working program. In these ways, regulations and the environment for work and family balance were put into place and a regulatory basis was secured for supporting family-friendly companies and social support for women's economic activities strengthened (Ministry of Gender Equality&Family, 2011).

3.2 Comprehensive Human Resources Development Plan

With a rapidly declining birthrate and an aging population, effective development and utilization of human resources have become important to achieve sustainable economic and social development in Korea. Therefore, the Ministry of Gender Equality&Family has worked to prepare measures to promote female workers' participation in the labor market and legal groundwork to support policies aimed toward gender equality. The Framework Act on Women's Development (enacted on December 30, 1995 and revised on June 7, 2011) was enacted with the purpose (Article 1) of promoting gender equality and the development of women in all sectors of government, economy, society and culture by prescribing the basic responsibilities of state and local governments to realize gender equality as stipulated in the Constitution. Pertaining to the Framework Act on Women's Development, Ministry of Gender Equality&Family has established Dynamic Women Korea initiatives every five years since 2006. The following describes Dynamic Women Korea, which has been put implemented twice so far.

Dynamic Women Korea 2010 (2006~2010) was enacted because of a need to establish government-led policies to systematically execute measures reflecting the necessity to create high-value added jobs, create an environment that promotes entry and re-entry of female workers into the labor market and reflects the working life cycle of women. Dynamic Women Korea 2010 pursued 15 core tasks in five sectors with the aim of achieving 55% of female labor force participation rate by 2010 and creating 600,000 jobs for women through the following five years as well as securing human resources development infrastructure in accordance with the life cycle of women under a vision of leaping forward to become an advanced economy by capitalizing on Korea's female workforce.

Table 4-6 | 15 Core Tasks in 5 Sectors of the 1st Dynamic Women Korea

Classification	Basic Direction				
Area	1. Strategic expansion of diverse jobs for women	2. Develop women's ability and expand employment opportunities	3. Secure infrastructure for development of female workforce	4. Lay groundwork for work -family balance	5. Organize policy structure
Core task	1-1. Create jobs for women in social service sector 1-2. Increase jobs in national strategy/regional specialization fields 1-3. Support women's entry to public sector and large corporations 1-4. Increase jobs for women in SMEs	2-1. Strengthen career guidance to young females 2-2. Develop ability of working women and improve working environment 2-3. Offer job training` for career-interrupted women and expand employment opportunities	3-1. Strengthen infrastructure to develop high-quality women human resources 3-2. Develop ability of potential women workforce 3-3. Establish system linked to employment	4-1. Strengthen childcare support service 4-2. Build system to support work/ family balance 4-3. Create family -friendly corporate/social culture	5-1. Establish intergovernmental women human resources development policy overview system 5-2. Support HRD innovation of local women

Source: Ministry of Gender Equality&Family, Dynamic Women Korea 2010 ('06~'10)

As a result of Dynamic Women Korea 2010, female labor force participation rate reached 49.4%, falling short of the initial goal of 55%. The Ministry of Gender Equality&Family analyzed the reasons behind this poor performance. First, employment rate of highly educated women in their twenties fell short of expectations, and did not contribute greatly to increase in women's economic participation. Second, due to an unfavorable labor market environment, it was difficult for women to balance between work and family, and career-interruption of women persisted. Third, highly educated middle-aged women are facing difficulties in reemployment, and women were re-entering the labor market in their fifties. Finally, the employment rates of women stagnated due to the global financial crisis and deteriorating external economic conditions. Nevertheless, Dynamic Women Korea 2010 was meaningful in that the government expanded its employability development project and presented a roadmap for development and utilization of women in the workforce.

Dynamic Women Korea 2010 helped create a wide range of jobs for women and expand their employment opportunities, as well as building a framework for fostering a female labor force by expanding the workforce development infrastructure and organizing policy structure. In particular, the regulatory tools and social atmosphere regarding achieving a balance between work and family life were brought about, enabling women to continue economic

activity without interrupting their careers. The initiative also contributed greatly to enhancing awareness in local communities by organizing a consultative body on developing of local female human resources by city and provinces and establishing female human resources development plans by region. However, the program was weighted toward creating jobs in the social services sector and developing ability by methods such as vocational training. For these reasons, it produced insignificant results in improving the employment figure for women. Also, program was limited by a lack of support for highly educated women over 40. Based on female human resources policy over the past five years, Dynamic Women Korea 2015 was established to strengthen the employability of women across all phases of their life cycle, maximize use of the female workforce, and utilize female human resources as part of national development strategy and major government policies. Dynamic Women Korea 2015 aims to achieve a 55% labor force participation rate for females over 15 years old, a 70.3% labor force participation rate for women with advanced educational attainment, and reduce the gender wage gap (based on hourly wages) to the 65.4% level under its guiding vision of accomplishing sustainable national development by utilizing female human resources. Dynamic Women Korea 2015 has designated 16 priorities in five sectors.

Table 4-7 | 16 Core Tasks in 5 Sectors of the 2nd Dynamic Women Korea

Classification	Basic direction				
Area	1. Strengthen employment empowerment of young females	2. Career-building for working women and support work/family balance	3. Increase employment opportunities for women over 40	4. Reinforce female human resources policy in national strategic sector	5. Establish female workforce development system and infrastructure
Core task	1-1. Support career-building of highly educated women 1-2. Career counseling and development of young women and 1-3. Reinforce career education based on gender equality	2-1. Improve employment target system 2-2. Career development and educational training 2-3. Childcare and temporary care support for working mothers 2-4. Work-family balance policy	3-1. Strengthen support for people facing difficulty getting employed 3-2. Support employment in nontraditional fields and startups of women 3-3. Employment support system for career-interrupted women and system organization 3-4. Create jobs for older women and support employment	4-1. Make women the center of human resources development in national strategic fields 4-2. Promote women's entry into promising industries 4-3. Nurture women professionals	5-1. Legal and regulatory infrastructure 5-2. Establish facility infrastructure

Source: Ministry of Gender Equality&Family, Dynamic Women Korea 2015 (2011~2015)

4. Laws and Basic Plans for Human Resource Development in Women's Policy by Target

4.1 Basic Plan for Promoting Economic Activities of Career Interrupted Women (2010~2014)

Amid a social consensus on the seriousness of continued slump in women's economic activities, the Ministry of Gender Equality&Family and Ministry of Employment and Labor have jointly set out a basic plan for promoting economic activities for career-interrupted women every five years in accordance with the Act on Promotion of Economic Activities of Career-Interrupted Women (enacted on June 5, 2008 and revised on June 4, 2010). Career-interrupted women refers to women who are willing to work and have either stopped or never engaged in economic activity due to pregnancy, childbirth, childrearing, or caring for their family. This plan can be seen as a sign that our society perceives women as a new growth engine as we face a shrinking population of workers because of our low birthrate and aging population. The Act on Promotion of Economic Activities for Career-Interrupted Women was enacted on June 5, 2008 and has been in force since December 2008, to overcome a low rate of participation by women in the labor force. This lack of participation may be caused by poor employment quality, unfavorable corporate and social culture, difficulties due to childbirth, and career interruption caused by childbirth and/or childrearing. The act attempts to promote the re-entry of career-interrupted women into the labor market. Based on the Act on Promotion of Economic Activities for Career-Interrupted Women, the basic plan on promoting economic activity for career-interrupted women aims to achieve a female labor force participation rate of 60% by 2014 through providing opportunities to participate in economic activities across all aspects of women's lifecycle under the guiding vision of realizing a sustainable society by effectively utilizing female human resources. The basic directions of the plan in promoting the economic activity of career-interrupted women are described in the following:

Table 4-8 | Basic Directions of Plan on Promotion of Economic Activities of Career-Interrupted Women

Classification	Basic direction			
	Improve environment for re-entry into labor market		Reduce the scale of career-interrupted women	
Area	Strengthen employment support service to career-interrupted women	Establish infrastructure linked to childcare and employment	Create corporate environment for work and family reconciliation	Create social groundwork to resolve career interruption
Core task	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ① Revitalize functions of employment support institutions ② Link Support service to employment and childcare ③ Expand startup support ④ Expand training and employment opportunities ⑤ Strengthen link to employment welfare 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ① Secure infrastructure for childcare service ② Reorganize childcare policy for working women 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ① Support spread of short-time job for work and family reconciliation ② Expand flexible working system ③ Create family friendly corporate environment 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> ① Create work/family balanced family and regional environment ② continued research on career-interrupted women ③ Establish intergovernmental cooperative structure to support overall support to career interrupted women

Source: Intergovernmental agency, 2010~2014 basic plan on promotion of economic activities of career-interrupted women

4.2 Act and Basic Plan on Fostering and Supporting Women in Science, Engineering, and Technology

Stemming from social and environmental changes such as an aging population and low birth rate, recognition of the importance of utilizing female human resources has led to continuous efforts to strengthen national competitiveness. In particular, the creative ability of women is needed for convergence of science and technology. Against this backdrop, the Act on Fostering and Supporting Women in Science, Engineering, and Technology was enacted in 2002 to foster and utilize women in positions in the fields of science and engineering. This Act stipulates the establishment of a basic plan every five years with

the purpose (Article 1) of strengthening women’s competency in science and engineering and contributing to national development of science and technology by fostering, utilizing, and providing support to women in science, engineering, and technology and providing assistance so that women in science, engineering, and technology can fully exercise their abilities. The 1st Basic Plan on Fostering of Women Scientists and Technicians (2004-2008) was carried out and five Korea Advanced Institutes of Women in Science, Engineering and Technology were established nationwide, strengthening support for enhancing the growth potential of women scientists and technicians.

Under the vision of “realizing a creative science and technology society led by women in science, engineering, and technology,” the 2nd (2009-2013) basic plan features 12 core tasks in three key areas. Its main policy direction is aimed at enhancing efficient measures to induce more female students into the natural science and engineering fields, securing projects to promote the employment of women in science, engineering, and technology, and strengthening the competency of female researchers as well as increasing the number of female high-level officials to increase woman-friendly jobs and utilization of top-level female human resources. Also, by preparing regulations for creating a woman-friendly environment and building a comprehensive support system for women in science, engineering, and technology, the plan aims to strengthen resources and create a stable research environment.

Table 4-9 | 12 Core Tasks in 3 Sectors of the 2nd Basic Plan on Fostering and Supporting Women in Science, Engineering, and Technology

Classification	Policy Direction		
Area	1. Increase top level women scientists and technicians	2. Promote utilization of women scientists and technicians	3. Strengthen fostering utilization of women scientists and technicians
Core task	1-1. Creation of education environment friendly to female students 1-2. Enhance competitiveness of female students in science and engineering 1-3. Systematic support of female science prodigies 1-4. Foster high level of female scientists in promising technology fields	2-1. Introduction of diverse types of labor and expand jobs 2-2. Secure employment service and statistics infrastructure 2-3. Promote career development of women in science and engineering 2-4. Strengthen use of high level female scientists and technicians	3-1. Create safe research environment 3-2. Create family-friendly culture 3-3. Continuous expansion of budget for projects related to women in science and engineering 3-4. Organize system for supporting women in science and engineering

Source: Ministry of Education, Science and Technology, Ministry of Knowledge Economy, Ministry of Environment, Ministry of Gender Equality&Family, Ministry of Health&Welfare, 16 local governments, 2009 Basic Plan on Fostering of Women Scientists and Technicians (2009-2013)

4.3 Act and Basic Plan on Fostering Women in Farming and Fishing

The Support of Women in Farming and Fishing Act was enacted on December 31, 2001 with the goal of contributing to the development of farming and fishing villages and agriculture and fisheries by actively supporting protection of the rights of females in farming and fishing occupations, improving their status, maternity protection, improving the childcare environment, enhancing their quality of life and offering training. In accordance with Article 5 and Article 6 of the Act, cities and provinces should establish the Support of Women in Farming and Fishing Act Basic Plan every five years. The Basic Plan has been implemented three times. Under the vision of “fostering female farmers and fishers equipped with creativity, expertise and leadership and improving their quality of life,” the 3rd Basic Plan has 39 tasks in five strategies including improving the professional rights of female farmers and fishers, strengthening competence in professional agriculture and fishery management, fostering regional development leadership and successors, improving the quality of life of women working in farming and fishing, and strengthening the infrastructure for policy implementation. Through supporting a new workforce, including women leaving urban areas to return to farming and/or those who return to their hometown, as well as helping immigrant women in international marriages settle in farming and fishing villages and support small-scale business startups, women in farming and fishing career are given assistance to become professionals, enhancing the vitality of farming and fishing communities. Other tasks to help support life in farming and fishing villages include supporting national health insurance expenses for women in farming and fishing occupations. Also, with an increase in the aging population, support is being provided for community kitchens in places such as centers for senior citizens.

Table 4-10 | 39 Core Tasks in 5 Sectors of the 3rd Basic Plan on Fostering Women in Farming and Fishing

Classification	Policy direction				
Area	1. Improvement of professional status and rights	2. Strengthen competence in professional agriculture and fishery management	3. Fostering of regional development leader and successor	4. Improvement of quality of life of female farmers and fishers	5. Strengthening of infrastructure on policy implementation
Core task	1-1. Increase professional rights as joint manager 1-2. Pursue enlisting female farmers and fishers in national pension 1-3. Increase policy decision making and participation in producer organization	2-1. Support improvement of competence of female farmers and fishers 2-2. Support start-ups of female farmers and fishers 2-3. Develop and distribute women friendly agriculture machine	3-1. Foster leaders for farming and fishing village regional development 3-2. Foster farming and fishing village welfare service human resources 3-3. Foster mentors to support newcomers settle down 3-4. Support settlement of married migrant women and multicultural families	4-1. Increase maternity protection and health support to female farmers and fishers 4-2. Increase childcare facilities and childcare environment in farming and fishing village 4-3. Revitalize community kitchen in farming and fishing village 4-4. Support cultural activities to female farmers and fishers	5-1. Increase gender impact assessment and gender equality education 5-2. Strengthen policy to nurture female farmers and fishers in local communities 5-3. Establish governance to pursue policies with female farmers and fishers organizations

Source: Ministry for Food, Agriculture, Forestry and Fisheries. 2011 3rd Support of Female Farmers and Fishers Basic Plan (2011-2015)

4.4 Act and Basic Plan on Support for Women Entrepreneurs

The Act on Support for Women Entrepreneurs was enacted on February 5, 1999 with the purpose of contributing to the development of the national economy by actively supporting activities of female entrepreneurs and start-ups by women to promote substantial gender equality in the economy, seeking to improve women’s economic participation and the status of female entrepreneurs. The Act stipulates establishment of a Basic Plan on Support for Women Entrepreneurs encompassing measures to support start-ups by women, measures for support toward funding, information, technology, workforce, and sales routes, and other measures required for activities of women entrepreneurs after deliberation by the Committee on Promotion of Women Entrepreneurs each year. The 2011 Basic Plan has 16 policy measures

in three areas with the aims of creating jobs for women and enhancing competitiveness of women entrepreneurs. The plan is established and implemented reflecting the conditions in which, despite the increase in the number of women entrepreneurs, the infrastructure for start-up is lacking in absolute terms and insufficient support policies exist to improve business competence and build a management environment for female entrepreneurs.

Table 4-11 | 16 Core Tasks in 3 Sectors of 2011 Basic Plan on Support for Women Entrepreneurs

Classification	Policy Direction		
Area	1. Secure and organize infrastructure to support women entrepreneurs	2. Promote start-ups by women and enhance success rate	3. Expand sales channels and enhance global competitiveness
Core task	1-1. Pursue revision of law to establish system to identify women entrepreneurs 1-2. Establish comprehensive information network of women entrepreneurs 1-3. Expand women entrepreneurs support organizations and organize related projects 1-4. Strengthen innovative capacity and establish network 1-5. Substantial study on the status of women entrepreneurs and publishing of white paper 1-6. Revitalize research on women entrepreneurs policies 1-7. Enhance awareness on women entrepreneurs	2-1. Increase business start-up success rate of future female founders 2-2. Strengthen business incubation competency of women 2-3. Increase funds to financing micro start-up business 2-4. Strengthen mentoring function and support stable management 2-5. Strengthen women entrepreneurs comprehensive support center function	3-1. increase public purchase of products by women entrepreneurs 3-2. Increase sales channels for products of women entrepreneurs 3-3. Support exports and strengthen global competitiveness 3-4. Strengthen international cooperation and study on overseas best practice

Source: Ministry of Gender Equality&Family, Small and Medium Business Administration, 2011 Basic Plan on Support for Women Entrepreneurs (2010-2014)

2011 Modularization of Korea's Development Experience
Operational Experience on Women's Vocational Education
and Training Support System and Project

Chapter 5

Evaluation of Women's Job Skills Development Support System

1. Development of Young Women, Policy Results and Assessment
2. Changes Regarding Women in Their Late 40s and Older, Policy Results and Assessment

Evaluation of Women's Job Skills Development Support System

This section aims to assess results of the policy objectives of women's vocational competency development support system at the time of its introduction, the contributions it has made, examples of negative impacts from the policy, and future supplementary measures. The results of the policy were evaluated largely through quantitative analysis. However, qualitative interviews with professionals were used in cases where it was difficult to evaluate results using quantitative methods.

1. Development of Young Women, Policy Results and Assessment

1.1 Complete Implementation of Higher Education for Women

Since Korea's independence in 1945, the level of Korea's female human resources has continued to develop alongside improvements in education for women. In the 1960s and 1970s, a national management system was established for education as a whole and under the system, women were not seen as a priority in educational policies. In fact, awareness of the need for educational policies regarding women was quite inadequate at the time. However, with the inauguration of the Saemaul Movement, vocational education for women in industrial schools, and compulsory elementary education, the gender gap in education opportunity was completely resolved after the 1960s and 1970s.

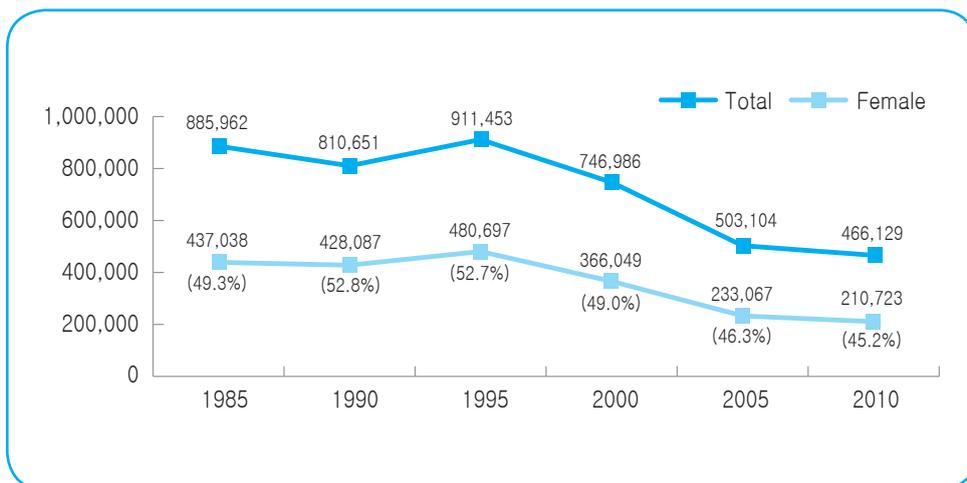
In the late 1980s, opportunities for higher education increased for women, leading to increased interest in gender equity in all areas of the society. In the Gender Discrimination Improvement Guiding Principle in 1985 and the sixth Five-year Economic Development Plan (1987-1991), plans for women's development were established and guidelines to reduce gender discrimination were introduced. However, these efforts failed to produce any tangible results and for the most part, had only symbolic meaning. The seventh Five-year

Economic Development Plan (1992-1996) helped realize more concrete policy measures for women's development by sector.

After the mid-1980s, Korean middle school enrollment and entrance rates for both males and females were recorded at nearly 100%, and high school enrollment rates stood at 90.5% for boys and 83.8% for girls. Since the year 2000, both middle and high school entrance rates for males and females have reached 99%, indicating that there is almost no gender gap in elementary, middle, and high school education. However, gender disparity in educational opportunity was still evident in higher education in the 1980s. Among all male high school graduates, 24.5% went on to higher education, while 22.5% of female high school graduates entered university programs. After 2000, however, the gender gap in entry to higher education was much reduced, and even slightly reversed. In 2010, female students recorded a higher entrance rate at Korean institutions of higher educational, 80.5%, compared to 77.6% for male students.

In particular, increases in women's education through expanded vocational education for women have been a noteworthy result. As explained in chapter 1 of the second section, the number of female students in vocational high school reached 199,977 in 1977, representing 34% of all students in vocational high schools. That proportion of women in vocational high schools reached 49% in 1985, and 52% through the 1990-95. The number of female students in vocational high schools reached a peak of 480,697 in 1995, indicating that the effects of job training for women were in full swing at the time. After 2000, however, the Korean industry was restructured centering on knowledge-based industry led by IT and a high-value added labor force was preferred over workers with medium-level skills. Consequently, the number of students at vocational high schools rapidly decreased, which naturally led to a decrease in the number of female students. Compared with 1995, the number of female students decreased to 269,974 in 2010, almost a 50% decrease.

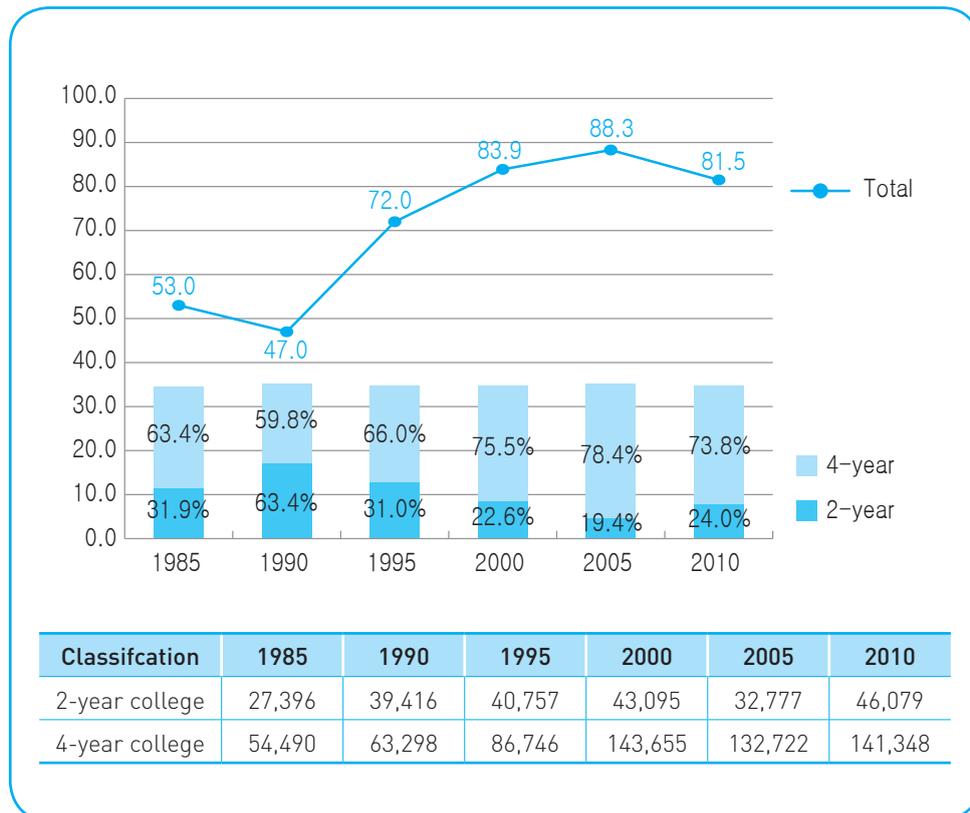
Figure 5-1 | Distribution of Female Students in Vocational High School



Women’s college entrance rates continued to increase beginning in the 1980s and in 2010, 80% of female high school graduates entered university. This shows that higher education has, in effect, become popularized. In particular, an increase in vocational colleges since 1980 has contributed to increasing higher educational opportunities for women. Women who graduated from vocational college were able to develop into professionals with higher levels of skills, which had a huge impact on the professional lives of many women. In short, the government’s reinforced policy on vocational education which was carried out based on the need for skilled workers in the 1960s and 1970s led to increased job training opportunities for women in secondary education. Women with advanced vocational skills sought jobs after graduation, resulting in higher economic participation among women around the age of 20. Most women who graduated from commercial high schools found employment in office jobs.

The college entrance rate of female high school students increased from 53% in 1985 to 81.5% in 2010, showing a rapid increase by almost 30% over a 15-year period.

Figure 5-2 | College Entrance Rates of Female High School Students

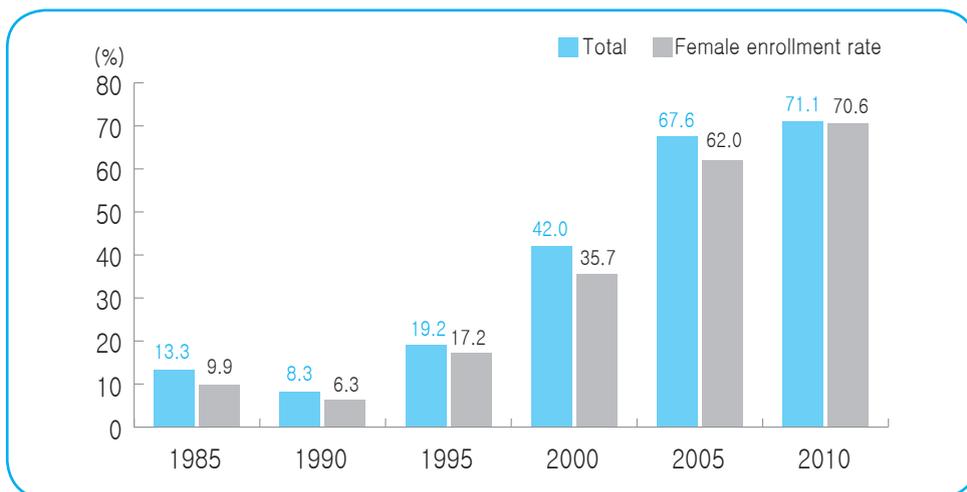


In addition, the number of women enrolled in college increased by 105,541 in 2010 compared to 1985. In particular, the number of female students in vocational colleges increased by about 18,683 in 2010, a 68% increase from 1985. Four-year universities recorded higher growth in female enrollments than two-year colleges, but this resulted in increased challenges for university graduates seeking jobs that met their expectations after graduation.

Women’s education levels have increased substantially since Korea’s independence from Japanese colonial rule in 1945, due to the government’s strong push to expand compulsory elementary school education. Through legislation which penalized parents for not sending their children to school, boys and girls were able to concentrate on their studies when they were of school age, being liberated from domestic work. Such strong measures brought down the national illiteracy rate and provided a strong motivation for secondary education in later years.

The 1960s and 1970s saw rapid urbanization as people moved from the farms to cities. During this period, many young girls graduated from elementary school in their rural hometown and then moved to cities where they found work in growing industrial complexes. Although they were working, many still had a strong desire for secondary education. The government established a legal framework for “establishment of special classes and schools related to industrial corporations for the education of youths working in industrial companies” in 1976 and industrial firms that hired large numbers of minors established their own schools. With the establishment of schools, young workers at the companies worked during the day and studied in the affiliated schools inside the industrial complex in the evening. The schools were recognized as an official part of the education system and the graduates of these schools played an important role in enhancing women’s academic ability. Backed by such legislation and the efforts of many women, higher education for women in Korea is now considered to have reached the complete execution stage.

Figure 5-3 | Women’s Higher Educational Enrollment Ratio in Vocational High Schools



In [Figure 5-3], the rate of female vocational high school graduates entering institutions of higher education stood at a mere 9.9% in 1985, but increased to 70.6% in 2010, indicating that a substantial number of female students at vocational high schools are continuing their studies. Women's attainment of higher education is considered to be a driving force of Korea's economic development.

The industrialization from 1960 to 1975, centered on light industry, was led by exports. After proclamation of the Formation Law of the Export Industrial Complex Development in 1964, the government concentrated on fostering export industries in the light industry field and in this process, the nation's female labor force rose as women began to be seen as essential human resources. The economic participation rate of 14 year old girls increased from 9.4% in 1960 to 17.7 % in 1975, that of girls aged 15 to 19 rose from 28.6% in 1960 to 44.5% in 1975, and economic participation by women aged 20 to 24 grew from 31.8% in 1960 to 49.7% in 1975.

Table 5-1 | Trends of Female Labor Market Participation Rate by Age in Cities and Provinces: 1960, 1966, 1970, 1975

(Unit: persons, %)

Age	1960	1966	1970	1975
Total	19.4 (452,815)	24.5 (745,900)	26.0 (1,101,333)	30.9 (1,781,571)
14	9.4	19.2	17.5	17.7
15-19	28.6	37.8	39.1	44.5
20-24	31.8	38.2	39.2	49.7
25-29	14.6	18.0	17.8	20.4
30-34	14.3	16.9	17.1	20.8
35-39	17.5	21.6	22.1	26.4
40-44	19.7	24.8	26.8	30.5
45-49	20.6	24.7	27.8	31.2
50-54	18.1	19.8	22.1	25.7
55-59	14.1	14.8	16.5	19.1
60 Over	5.7	4.8	5.6	5.9

Sources: Economic Planning Board, Population and Housing Census Report. 1960, 1966, 1970, 1975.

In short, the driving force of economic development in industrialization led by light industry was young female workers. The availability of young female workers was the result of the government's provision of vocational education. The result of the government's policy was that high-quality inexpensive labor was supplied to companies.

1.2 Negative Impacts of the Policy and Complementary Measures

Continuing improvement of women's education since the 1960s contributed greatly to producing tangible results for Korea's economic development. However, unlike the rapid improvement of women's educational opportunities, many issues related to women's employment in the labor market could not be resolved rapidly. The biggest problem of this type was that jobs making use of women who improved education levels were not created.

It was predicted that women's economic participation would naturally increase alongside improvements in education. With advances in industrialization, women's educational attainment increased, and indeed, their participation in the economy also increased. However, in some ways, many thought that women's economic participation rate stalled despite their higher education levels, and career interruption could be even more severe for women with higher levels of education. This was an unexpected result of the modernization of Korea (interview with an expert).

From 1960 to 1975, the manufacturing industry saw the highest increase in female employment. In 1960, women in manufacturing accounted for a mere 6.3% of all female workers, but that figure increased to 16.8% in 1975. Wholesale and retail, food and accommodation industries also saw increases in female workers by more than 10% from 9.3% in 1960 to 14.4% in 1975. These facts are part of the picture showing an increase in female workers in the food and hotel industries as increases in economic activity contribute to the nation's urbanization and industrialization. Many women moved to the cities to find work but were unable to find jobs in regular job sectors and instead found employment in small-scale service jobs. In particular, this period marks the start of an increased informal economic sector, which has been pointed out as an important characteristic of the Korean women's labor market after industrialization. Among the population that moved to cities to find jobs, many women found work in homes as housemaids and babysitters and were offered food and accommodation at low wage levels. As these women were employed in individual homes, they were not recognized as employed in official statistical instruments. There were also many workers who worked from their homes. All these workers were laborers in unofficial sectors. Labor in unofficial sectors indicates that not all labor is institutionalized in Korean society. This was the dark side of the Korean society in the process of urbanization and industrialization.

Since the 1980s, the number of women who received higher education increased and career interruption for women has become more evident. At that time, many women between the ages of 20 and 24 quit their jobs after marriage. However, in later years, when women's

higher education achievement started to fully develop, the age level for career interruption shifted to between the ages of 25 and 29. Women employed from 1960 to 1975 were largely employed in two categories: manufacturing jobs and office jobs. In industrial complexes, women worked at manufacturing jobs and most graduates of commercial high schools found jobs in offices. However, as Korea's industrial policy shifted from light industry including textiles, shoes, and wigs to heavy/chemical industry, including petrochemicals, chemicals and automobiles in the mid 1970s, the composition of the economically active female population shrunk between 1975 and 1990. After 1975, the overall economic participation rate of women decreased. In particular, the economic participation rate of women workers between the ages of 15 to 19 dropped from 47.6% in 1975 to 11% in 1995. As the average marriage age for women also increased, the labor force participation rate of women aged 20 to 24 increased to 61.3% in 1995 but decreased after the age of 25, reflecting career interruption among women. The decrease in young female workers age 15 to 19 showed that Korea was no longer one of the poorest countries in the world, having recorded exports of \$1,000,000 after the mid 1970s. The national per capita income surpassed \$1,000 in 1977 and at about the same time, the number of women under the age of 20 who moved from rural areas to the cities to find work also began to decrease.

Table 5-2 | Female Labor Market Participation Rate by Age

(Unit: %)

Year	15-19	20-24	25-29	30-34	Total
1975	47.6	56.5	35.6	42.1	46.7
1980	34.0	53.0	31.0	33.5	39.5
1985	21.1	55.1	35.9	43.6	41.9
1990	16.7	51.4	29.7	28.0	32.6
1995	11.0	61.3	42.7	35.8	38.9

Sources: Economic Planning Board, Population and Housing Census Report, Economically Active Population Survey of Each Year

One continuing characteristic of the female labor market after 1980 was that despite higher levels of educational achievement, women continued to leave their jobs after marriage. This was presumed to be related to two reasons. First, changes in the job structure were insufficient to tailor to the enhanced education attainment level of women. According to <Table 5-2>, in recent years (2008-2009), the labor market is relatively less favorable for women with university degrees compared to those with only high school diplomas. The proportion of women who were employed as regular workers after graduating from universities was 49.6%, substantially lower than the overall 58%. This implies that although educational attainments have become more equal between men and women, there are still

barriers for women hindering their continued economic activity. Since enactment of the Equal Employment Act in 1987, the public sector has taken affirmative action to increase women's employment. As a result there have been substantial results in the public sector where public servants are selected through competitive examinations. However, many supplementary measures are required to reduce entry barriers in the private sector.

Table 5-3 | Number of the Employed and Type of Employment by Gender and Type of Higher Educational Institution

Year of Graduation	Gender	Educational Institution Type	Number of Employees	Type of employment			
				Regular	Non-regular	Self-Employed	Total
August 2008, February 2009	Total	Vocational College	162,608	66.7	31.0	2.3	100.0
		4-year University	169,277	58.0	40.1	1.8	100.0
		Graduate School	25,356	67.6	26.9	5.5	100.0
	Women	Vocational College	92,609	66.5	31.7	1.8	100.0
		4-year University	78,614	49.6	49.1	1.2	100.0
		Graduate School	9,301	55.2	40.9	3.9	100.0

Sources: Survey conducted April 1, 2009.
Statistical Yearbook for Employment of Higher Education Graduates 2009.

In addition, there have been calls for improvement in the labor environment for women by helping them find balance between work and family so they can continue to work after marriage. Eliminating discrimination toward women has become a major issue for labor. The career interruption of women with higher educational degrees was a result that was unpredicted in the course of Korea's economic development. It can be seen as a signal that social policies should be supplemented to improve job prospects for women as well as economic policies. Many of Korea's social policies have been introduced rather belatedly and haphazardly along with the Democratization Movement of 1987. Because of this late start, analysis and study into women's labor has also been delayed and as a consequence, women have faced continued discrimination in the male-dominated labor market with many women leaving their jobs after marriage. Eliminating discrimination against women started in Korea with the implementation of relevant policies under the Equal Employment Act of

1987. However, the career interruption of women still persists, and in an effort to resolve this issue in a more fundamental manner, the Korean government has revised the Equal Employment Act to make it the Act on Equal Employment and Support for Work-Family Reconciliation in 2007 along with strengthening the maternity protection of women. With enactment of The Act on the Promotion of the Economic Activities of Career-Break Women in 2007, reemployment support center for women was placed as a priority in 2008 and initiated policy intervention to help resolve career interruption for women and promote their re-entry into the labor market. The lesson learned from such endeavors was that if greater efforts had been made to utilize female human resources in the course of economic development in ways such as preventing career interruption, much would have been saved in social costs. In other words, the relatively belated introduction of the policy has led to greater expense for society. It is clear from the experience of Korean society that maximizing the use of female women resources should be aligned with policies on work environment in which women can achieve a balance between their work and family lives.

2. Changes Regarding Women in Their Late 40s and Older, Policy Results and Assessment

2.1 Effects of Government and Private Led Projects

After 1960, there was no specific vocational training project aimed at helping women in their late 40s and older. However, with the spread of Saemaul Movement, projects to assist and educate women expanded nationwide and vocational training and education were implemented in Women's Centers. Women's Centers were established nationwide and increased dramatically in the 1972-1973, with number of users increasing from about 100,000 in 1972 to over 700,000 in 1979 (Jang, Ha-jin et al. 2001). Women's Center programs were centered on general culture education and vocational guidance (sewing, beauty treatment, handicrafts, knitting, cooking, plastering and other technical training). Technical education decreased from 1980 with more programs focusing on hobbies and general cultural education. The characteristics of Women's Center programs underwent changes, but they were created with the overall purpose of providing education for women and improving their social status through technical education. The policy proved itself to be effective because the establishment of regional institutions for women provided vocational training and educational opportunities to women in their late 40s and older, giving them support and guidance to stand on their own.

Although the main function changed, the Women's Center model played an important role in educating and enriching women's lives. Women's Centers provided vocational and Korean language education to women, providing a direct connection to the success of the Saemaul Movement (interview of an expert).

However, there was a limit to the number of Women's Centers that could be built at the provincial level. State financial assistance was insufficient to increase the number of

Women's Centers to help women receive education near their home areas. The number of Women's Centers in the 1970-1979 was only 12. Although the number of Women's Centers dramatically increased from 1980 to the late 1990s, they were not evenly distributed in all regions of the country, and they also suffered from lack of resources. Facing these problems, private non-governmental organizations led by the YWCA started vocational training programs for women in their late 40s and older beginning in 1970. This has been seen as the basis for modeling vocational training so that the government gives financial assistance to women's groups. A variety of different vocational training models were established in which private groups provided professional vocational training and the government supported only project costs to NGOs and did not invest in facilities. The number of vocational training institutions for women increased and under a new model of women's vocational training after 1990, women in their late 40's and older were able to receive vocational training through public and private cooperation.

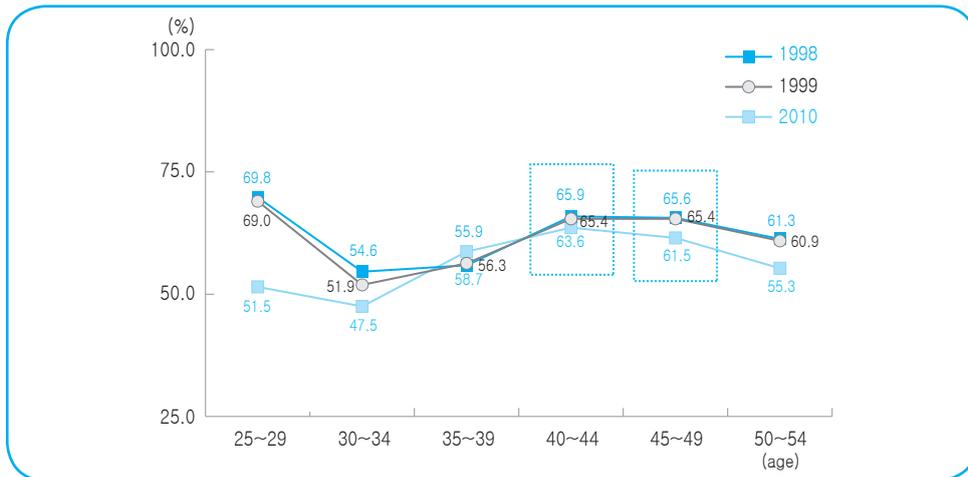
The initial vocational training conducted by the YWCA was aimed at promoting women's employment and enhancing their social status, a project that was mainly centered on increasing the number of women in their late 40s and older who entered male-dominated fields where women's employment was structurally low. Training programs were developed to help women improve job skills required in construction, such as plastering, painting and installing tile. This was a "pattern break" project targeted toward breaking the pattern of gender bias in jobs and provides women with chance to enter non-traditional job fields. This project was originally based on the paradigm shift that women can hold the same occupational status as men and it is still being carried out today.

With the enactment of the Framework Act on Women's Development in 1995, the House for Working Women was established. In this model, the government provided operational costs and working expenses to private institutions. Private groups covered capital investment and the government supported operating costs and working expenses. This provided the basis for establishing a model under which the government provided only working expenses in its reemployment support center for women in 2008. It is too early to conclude whether or not such a model is effective or not. However, it may be that this model can be mutually beneficial in that the government can reduce its expenses of capital investment and private groups can decrease their burden for operating and working expenses to continuously execute projects for the underprivileged.

By expanding opportunities for women in their late 40s and older to receive vocational training and find employment, economic participation rate of women over the age of 40 is increasing, after having stagnated in 1990. Experts analyze this result as follows:

Career-interrupted women who have long worked as housewives had fear in entering the labor market. However, by receiving training to promote career awareness at reemployment support center for women, they learned the attitude to actively seek employment (interview with expert).

Figure 5-4 | Changes in Female Labor Market Participation Rate by Age



There were many challenges in attitudes and thinking for career-interrupted women as they reenter the labor market, but by receiving training at reemployment support center for women they work on getting rid of their fears of the unknown and take on the challenge to find employment. The program is considered to have positively impacted career development and contributed to the enhancement of women’s social status. This increased the status of women both in their homes and in society as women in their late 40s and older were no longer marginalized by society and continued their economic activity as productive citizens. With today’s lack of human resources stemming from the low birth rate and aging population, it is encouraging for the nation to have highly educated human resources come back to the labor market.

2.2 Negative Impacts and Supplementary Measures for the Policy

Since 1960, women in their late 40s and older were encouraged to find employment and were provided vocational training opportunities, but projects in childcare and counseling showed poor results due to lack of funding and expertise. In particular, there have been many cases in which women were not able to receive vocational training due to lack of childcare facilities.

Women who come to Women’s Centers are mostly in their early 30s, and it is not easy for them to receive vocational training if they have children. The establishment of childcare facilities is an absolutely needed (interview with expert).

Women’s Centers and model women’s vocational training institutions, led by the government, provided technical education in their early stages, but after the 1980s and 1990s, the number of Women’s Centers were limited and there have been insufficient number

of staffs to run them, requiring that their educational programs be centered on hobbies and general cultural education, which means that the quality of education was substantially lowered to cater to the needs of women (Kim In-suk, 1996). <Table 5-3> shows decreases in technical education and increases in hobby education.

Table 5-4 | Women's Centers Utilization Results

Classification	Total	Technical Education	Hobby Education	Childcare Project	Use of Accommodations and Facilities	Counseling
'92	213,870	39,717	116,317	4,871	7,108	45,857
'93	379,676	29,906	266,632	6,164	11,258	65,716
'94	373,897	32,940	283,153	5,152	5,067	47,585
'95	308,546	34,222	204,423	4,618	10,661	54,622

Source: Kim, In-suk, 1996, Status of Korea's Social Welfare Service and Women's Welfare

As education and training direction of Women's Center changed to hobbies and general culture education, self-support projects and vocational training to the unemployed were executed by professional vocational training institutions. In this regard, the government developed jobs appropriated for women after late 40's in low-income bracket and developed educational and training programs. In this process, mainly traditional jobs were advised to women. Therefore, after 2000, MGEF developed new jobs named promising occupations for women in the non-traditional fields in an effort to prepare regulatory framework enabling women to enter men dominated fields.

Women in their late 40s and older have no choice but to enter the traditional fields of cooking, sewing, and child or personal care services because of long interruptions in their careers. According to a labor and income panel of Korean Labor Research Institute, the average career-interruption period of Korean women is about 10 years. This makes them in some ways, not very different from new entries into the labor market in terms of job skills and familiarity with work life, and considering that educational attainment level before career-interruption is not directly connected to employment, it can be said that the effects of education and technical training have disappeared by the time these women re-enter the labor market. Therefore, in order to minimize losses in careers and skills, women should re-enter the labor market quickly after childbirth. Reemployment support center for women is a project designed to help women make a speedy return to the labor market, but at this point is limited in its job connection and counseling services as far as helping clients find jobs and improving women's educational attainment. Such limitations should be overcome with bold investments in human resources.

2011 Modularization of Korea's Development Experience
Operational Experience on Women's Vocational Education
and Training Support System and Project

Chapter 6

Implications for Developing Countries

Implications for Developing Countries

The implications from this research are as follows:

First, women's educational attainment level should be improved. The development of a nation cannot be expected without a highly skilled labor force. Therefore, the state should direct its attention on ways of implementing policies to attract young women under the age of 20 to receive education. In order to give these women's the firm conviction that attending school is better than doing household work, there should be rewards of some type to attract them to school. After the end of the Korean War in 1950, schools meals contributed to eliminating hunger and brought many students to school where they could learn in addition to getting something to eat.

With enactment of the enforcement decree of Education Act in 1952, compulsory education secured specific legal grounds, and the Act states penalties for noncompliance. Article 164 of Section 10 of the Act states, "those who do not comply with the obligations set forth in Article 96 and Clause 2 of the Act are subject to fine of up to 30,000 won."

The problem of child labor was a serious issue in Korea after the end of the Korean War. At the time, many children who should have been provided for by their family had to work to make ends meet. In particular, because of strongly rooted Confucian values in Korean society, the idea of men having predominance over women was prevalent at the time, and many girls were forced to be the breadwinners of the family. Sending a daughter to school was not an easy decision for a family because it was directly connected to the family's economic survival. However, under Five-year Economic Development Plans after the 1960s, massive industrial complexes began to be built. Under government regulations, when a family sent its daughter to work in an industrial complex, the girl received wages and education at the same time, resulting in increased educational achievement for women. In fact, in 1975, when female students in vocational schools saw the most rapid increases, the economic participation rate of women under 14 recorded was 17.7%; 44.5% for those

aged 15-19. This is because of the policies enabling young women to work and study at the same time.

Also, when hiring young workers under the age of 20, corporations with more than 1,000 regular employees are obligated to establish affiliated middle school or high school and operated the schools in the form of regular schools for workers who wish to study (Jang Ha-jin et al. 2001). Labor and operating expenses for industrial schools are to be covered by the business owner but when needed, the state can support a part of the operating expense. These schools enabled adolescents who were employed at a young age because of poverty to continue their education and work at the same time. By letting companies bear some of the costs of education, the program successfully induced them to fulfill their corporate social responsibilities.

Second, the state should provide continued assistance in educating and enriching the lives through vocational training for women in their late 40s and older. Efforts to continuously supply a regular school curriculum and improve the lives of all citizens by sharing awareness on economic development through assisting women in their late 40s and older in communities have major implications for underdeveloped countries. Preparing a national delivery system by establishing Women's Centers in communities to educate women about diet and cooking, helping carry out nutrition projects and enabling women to support themselves by receiving vocational training was essential in improving citizens' lives. This delivery system has been assessed as being highly efficient even in the present day, functioning as professional vocational training institutions. However, there were limits for the government as far as supporting capital investment, operational, and working expenses for projects on women in their late 40s and older. Therefore, the establishment of Women's Centers was basically dormant in the 1960s and 1970s. After 1990, the government worked to distribute vocational training institutions for women by supporting operating and working expenses to private organizations. By doing so, its burden on the delivery system was eased and investments on working expenses increased. This effort became a major model of the reemployment support center for women which are now operating in 120 private organizations nationwide.

Third, underdeveloped countries should prepare measures for increasing childcare facilities and employing women workers when introducing economic development policies. In Korea, the policy direction was first economic policy and later, social policy from the 1960s to the 1980s. The difficulties women faced in the workplace were, of course, overlooked, and women had to endure many challenges in order to increase productivity. Attention was concentrated on maternity protection and removing gender discrimination in employment from the late 1980s, and affirmative action was taken with the enactment of the Equal Employment Act in 1987. However, emphasizing economic growth was widespread through all areas of society, and substantial social costs were required for legal measures to produce tangible results. There is still controversy about whether introduction of economic development first and social policy later is the correct order for healthy development.

Looking at examples from the Scandinavian countries, growth policies centered on economic development and social policies were balanced in the course of national economic growth. Therefore, it is advised that underdeveloped countries pursue economic development policies with consideration for social policies.

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Appendix Table

Revision date and number	Major contents
Enactment (1987.12.4) Enforcement (1988.4.1)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - established basic plan for welfare of working women - equal opportunity ensured in recruiting and employment - gender discrimination, marriage, pregnancy, childbirth prohibited in deciding retirement, education, placement, promotion, retirement, resignation or dismissal - ensured vocational guidance and job training - enforced maternity leave - established nursing and childcare facilities and public welfare facilities including education, childcare and housing - established grievance settlement organization in place of business and employment measures coordination committee in regional labor administrative institution - enforced penalties: gender discrimination in retirement, resignation and dismissal
1 st partial revision. enforcement (1989.4.1)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - added provision on definition of discrimination (excluding maternity protection and potential preferential treatment) - added provision on equal value of labor and wage among identical businesses - inclusion of maternity leave in service period - completed dispute arbitration procedures: statement of participation of women's representative in grievance settlement organization and settlement period, included female employment expert in employment dispute mediation committee and others - added provision on responsibility of business owner in proving settlement of disputes - expanded application of provision on penalty: discrimination, childcare leave and others
2 nd partial revision. enforcement (1995.8.4)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - added provision banning requirements on physical and marital status in recruiting and employment - added provision requiring input from employee representative when defining standard of equal value labor - added provision banning gender discrimination in matters of compensation other than wages - included prohibition on discrimination based on marriage, pregnancy, and childbirth in education, placement, and promotion - implemented paternity leave - stipulated childcare facility → workplace daycare facility - expanded employment measures coordination committee → committee for equal opportunity of employment: added consultation function regarding equal employment - strengthened penalties on wage and dismissal discriminations and addition of provision on fine

Revision date and number	Major contents
3 rd partial revision. enforcement (1999.2.8)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - included definition of indirect discrimination - added provision defining sexual harassment at workplace, preventive training and measures on perpetrator, prohibited any disadvantage in employment to victims - added provision on status of equal employment
4 th entire revision (2001.8.14) enforcement (2001.11.1)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - included "work and family balance" and "employment promotion" in purpose - expanded business and place of business subject to Labor Standards Act to all business and place of business (provision stating exclusion of business with less than 5 employees stipulated in the enforcement decree) - changed basic plan on welfare of working women into Basic plan on Gender Equality in Employment, making Ministry of Employment and Labor's establishment and enforcement of equal employment related measures mandatory - enabled consigning sexual harassment at workplace prevention education, and established business owners' responsibility to conduct preventive education to dispatched workers - added provision of support to women's employment promotion non-profit organizations and groups and business owners - added provision on covering part of pre- and post-natal leave expenses with social insurance funds - expanded childcare leave to include both male and female workers, added provision on securing return to workplace after childcare leave, and added provision for supporting part of employment maintenance costs during childcare leave - added provision providing financial support to private institutions offering consultation services on sexual harassment at workplace - established honorary employment equality supervisory system - added provision on possibility of replacing grievance settlement institution with labor management council - strengthened penalties and fines
5 th partial revision (2005.5.31) enforcement (2006.1.1)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - expanded coverage of pre- and post-natal leave to provide 100% of wages - supported wages for miscarriage and stillbirth (gradual implementation)

Revision date and number	Major contents
<p>6th partial revision (2005.12.30) enforcement (2006.3.1)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - defined and specified enforcement measures for proactive employment improvement measures; added provision on related institutions - added provision defining laborer, including persons with intent to find employment - replaced grievance settlement organization with labor management council, abolished committee for equal opportunity of employment - added provision on implementing preventive education sexual harassment at workplace - strengthened protection for persons claiming to be victims of sexual harassment at workplace - increased eligibility period for childcare leave: childcare leave can be used within 3 years after childbirth
<p>7th (other) partial revision (2007.4.11)</p>	<p>* amended due to revision of Labor Standards Act</p>
<p>8th partial revision (2007.12.21) enforcement (2008.6.22)</p>	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - name changed to Act on Equal Employment and Support for Work-Family Reconciliation - added provision on improvement of discrimination, maternity protection, and research on the status of work and family balance - added provision on sexual harassment prevention of client and other work related parties - added provision on support and development of job competency of career-interrupted women and employment promotion program - added provision on spouse childcare leave (3 days) - added a chapter on support for work and family balance: reduction of working hours during childcare period, divided use of childcare use, included childcare support measures such as adjusting work hours and family support measures such as family leave, stated obligation to support return to workplace after childcare leave
<p>9th (other) partial revision (2009.10.9) enforcement (2010.1.1)</p>	<p>- Replaced functions of proactive employment improvement committee under Ministry of Employment and Labor to Council for Employment Policy Consultation under Framework Act of Employment Policy</p>
<p>10th (other) partial revision (2009.10.9) enforcement (2010.1.10)</p>	<p>* amended due to revision of Employment Security Act</p>

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