



# Korean Human Development Report on Gender



2005



Ministry of Gender Equality, Republic of Korea  
United Nations Development Programme







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# I . Introduction

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1. Background and Purpose of the Study
2. Study Method and Contents
3. Significance and Limits of the Study

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## 1. Background and Purpose of the Study

According to Human Development Report 2003 published by the United Nations Development Programme (UNDP), Human Development Index (HDI) of the Republic of Korea (hereafter Korea) stood at the 30th place among 175 countries. However, when it came to Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM), Korea stood at the 63rd place out of 70 countries. Such difference between the two indices indicates that, even though Korea has made an overall progress in human development on the back of economic growth, women's social status still remains low. Korea's traditional Confucian mores and patriarchal social system impacted negatively on human development as a whole, as well as placed women in subordinate positions in relation to their male counterparts, be they in political, economic or socio-cultural terms. Despite women's increasing participation in the economic sector, gender discrimination is apparent in all aspects of life in Korea. It is particularly blatant in the area of politics where women occupy only a small proportion of parliamentary seats as compared to the international average.

Human Development Report, published by UNDP annually since 1990, introduced the concept of human development for the first time. Stressing that economic growth does not bring happiness to all people, the report argued that people could achieve true state of well being if their potentials as human beings are fully developed. The report defines 'Human Development' as a process through which people can expand their choices in all aspects of life, including politics, economy, society and culture. The stress on choice expansion is particularly important because people can live a long and healthy life, be educated, and access resources necessary for a decent standard of living if

they enjoy a wide range of choices. Human development goals embrace, among others, improving people's welfare, raising their standard of living, protecting the natural environment for the next generation.

The human development strategy, while providing people with opportunities to develop their capacities, must place people at its center and, as such, give high priority to gender equality since gender equality really represents a keystone of human development that stresses sustainable productivity, equality and empowerment of all people.

Aware that the main body responsible for promoting human development and helping the people to achieve their own development is each of the nations themselves, many nations began publishing National Human Development Reports (NHDR) that are geared to addressing issues and problems particular to their respective national human development endeavours. The NHDRs, that are published either at the regional or national level, have been used as a basis for policy making because they provide approximate assessment on the overall status of human development in the countries concerned and bring to the fore the obstructions that may exist toward human development in the same. Some of the African NHDRs, for example, suggest that a main obstacle in achieving human development in that region is HIV/AIDS by presenting analysis that supports close association between human development and HIV/AIDS.

The subjects of about 450 reports were published by approximately 130 countries. While the first reports tended to describe overall conditions and situations in the countries concerned, the second and further ensuing reports presented in-depth analyses of particular issues.



The first Korean Human Development Report was prepared by Korea Institute for Health and Social Affairs (KIHASA) in 1988 with the support of UNDP. The report delineated Korea's human development situation at large as it stood at the time of its preparation, which, inter alia, encompassed the areas of gender equality, poverty and population aging. The reports' analysis on gender equality, however, was found limited in three respects. First, it did not provide an overall depiction of gender inequality that still prevailed in Korea as it confined its observations on only a few of the development sectors, i.e. population, labour and education. Second, by relying on national level statistics only, it failed to portray differential conditions of differing population groups such as based on geographical sub-regions, age groups, levels of education and occupational statuses. Third, the outcomes of the

report contributed little toward introduction of policies for gender equality because the report paid scant attention to the relationship that could exist between gender policies and women's status, as well as neglected suggesting policy recommendations for improving the same in the future.

The purpose of the present research is to analyze more fully the status of gender equality in Korea using the UNDP human development indices and methods of measurements and come out with statistical data and other materials that can be made a part of the means for monitoring the progress in the country's gender equality. Another purpose of the research is to provide practical and effective policy recommendations for achieving gender equality that incorporate international perspectives on sustainable development drawing from existing international instruments and specific action plans.

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## 2. Study Method and Contents

### A. Study Contents

In chapter two, we explore the relation between human development and gender equality, with focus on the reason why eradication of gender inequality is essential in achieving human development. In so doing, we discuss National Human Development Reports (NHDRs) of other countries that suggest ways of effective government intervention in favour of gender equality.

Also included in the chapter is a discussion on GDI (Gender Related Development Index) and GEM (Gender Empowerment Measure). The Report introduces the significance of GDI and GEM developed by UNDP to measure the status of gender equality and the method of calculating the indices. It then goes on to analyze major changes in the indices between 1995 when the indices were first developed and 2003 and undertakes an inter-country comparison to gauge the status and rights of women in respective countries including Korea as they stood in 2003.

In chapter three, the development of women's policies in Korea, and its overall situations and problems, with reference to gender equality, are covered. We then go on to summarize women's policies that have achieved outstanding results over the past two decades. By comparing Korea's GDI and GEM with those of other countries, or in terms of socio-economic level, we attempt to reassess the level of gender equality in Korea.

In chapter four, in order to analyze the factors that may be associated with Korea's relatively low GEM, we compare the country's economy-related indicators with those of other countries. For example, we ask why Korean women with high level of education show low level economic participation,

and why the ratios of female professionals, technical workers, legislators, senior officials and managers are extremely low in Korea.

Chapter five is dedicated to discussing Korean women's political status. We examine the reason why the percentage of parliamentary seats held by women, one of GEM components, increased radically from five percent in the year 2000 to 13 percent in 2004. Based on that analysis, we will suggest policy recommendations for carrying the trend further.

Chapter six discusses policy alternatives for enhancing women's status in both the economic and political sectors as have stemmed from the preceding analyses.

### B. Method of Study

In order to carry out this research, we examined pertinent literatures, statistics and indicators. We also consulted with NHDR expert groups, organized a task force team for this project, and participated in workshops related to its subject matter.

Literatures referenced included the Human Development Reports 1990-2003, country-specific National Human Development Reports 1991-2003, materials related to human development such as *Guidance Note For The Human Development Report On Gender*, and documents about women's status and related policies in Korea and at the United Nations.

For statistics that show the cases of other countries, we made use of the gender related indexes and statistics available in the Human Development Reports, Yearbook of Labour Statistics and World's Women: Trends and Statistics published by the UN and ILO respectively were also referred to. For data

bearing on domestic conditions, we relied on official statistics issued by government departments such as Yearbook of Economically Active Population and Population and Housing Census, both of which are published by the Korean National Statistical Office, Rudimentary Investigation on Wage Structure published by Ministry of Labour, and Yearbook of Women's Statistics published by Korean Women's Development Institute.

For outside expert consultation, we turned to the NHDR team under HDR organizations and SURF-HDR. SURF-HDR is an on-line UNDP network on issues related to measuring human development—composite indices, indicators, data collection issues, disparities between national and international data, etc., where once certain issue, such as the problem in applying HDR in certain nation, is addressed, HDR experts have discussions and suggest their opinions on that issue. On the other hand, NHDR team supports the publication of NHDR by producing manuals on how to make NHDR and distribute it. In addition, they introduce the NHDR of each country and grant awards to the best publications.

They also make it their concern to set up strategic plans for applying the research outcomes in policy making.

We sought advice from domestic experts by setting up a task force team consisting of academics, researchers at related institutions, concerned officials of government departments, women's groups, and UNDP experts.

Furthermore, we participated in two workshops on NHDR and had a chance to share in the experience of other countries. In "Workshop on Statistics for National Human Development Reports (NHDRs)", which was organized by SIAP and UNESCAP in August 2002, they particularly covered cases on how individual countries gather information to build up statistics for preparing NHDR. In "Workshop on the Potentials and Challenges in Human Development Reporting," which was organized by UNDP in September 2003, the participants attempted to reinforce local networks, publicize the impact of HDR and suggest ways on HDR monitoring.

### 3. Significance and Limits of the Study

The significance of this research lies in the fact that this has attempted to seek the rationale of gender equality and its solution for current problems within human development paradigm. The report can be also meaningful because it made comprehensive examinations in order to find the causes of why women's participation in political and economic sectors, especially in decision-making positions is very low in Korea, despite marked growth in the country's economy over the past decades. This report clearly demonstrates which sectors par-

ticularly lag behind in development in Korea by comparing its GDI and GEM with those of other countries.

The limits of this study lie in the fact that, although attempts were made to compare the differential conditions in various local communities, the attempts were futile due to lack of sufficient breakdowns in existing statistical data. Only when enough statistics on local communities become available, will such comparisons be possible.

## II . Human Development and Gender Equality

1. Economic Development, Human Development, and Gender Equality
2. UNDP's GDI and GEM
3. NHDR and Gender
4. Conclusion

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## 1. Economic Development, Human Development, and Gender Equality

UNDP, keenly aware of the shortcomings of economic and material supports to developing countries in the 1970s and 1980s, introduced a new human-centered development perspective in the 1990s. Noting that simple economic development alone will not be able to deliver happiness to people, the perspective argues that we can achieve true welfare society through human development. "Human development", as defined by UNDP, is a process through which people can expand their choices in all aspects of their lives, such as politics, economy, society and culture.<sup>11</sup> The stress on choice expansion is particularly important because people can live a long and healthy life, be educated and access resources that are necessary for a decent standard of living by expanding the range of their choices. The ultimate purpose of human development is to enhance the quality of human life by improving both the quantitative and qualitative conditions of existence. Guarantee of personal freedom and protection of individual human rights, including gender and racial equality, and preservation of the environment for the next generation are some of the key requisites in that connection. People must stand at the center of development and opportunities for people to do so must be provided. Human development is deeply rooted in gender equality that stresses empowerment, productivity and sus-

tainability.

Even though economic development is a prerequisite for human development, it is not sufficient by itself and, thus, efforts to narrow gender differences in all areas of socio-economic and political structures in terms of rights and the chances of self-development must accompany. There can be discrepancy in the perspectives on gender equality between national development and human development approaches. While gender equality according to national development approach may be addressed as a way to utilize women's human resources for national economic development, gender equality according to human development approach is understood as a way to develop the ability of women for its own sake.

The difference from a normative notion of gender equality lies in its linkage with human development, equality, sustainable development, etc., thus, offering a concrete vision of development and persuasively arguing the case for gender equality within that overall framework.

Human development oriented concept of gender equality such as above helps overcome the limitations of the version tied to a narrowly defined notion of national development, as well as complements the abstract nature of the normative concept.

## 2. UNDP's GDI and GEM

### A. Development GDI and GEM and Its Significance

UNDP annually publicizes national gender equality rankings based on scores GDI (Gender related development index) and GEM (Gender empowerment measure). Despite protests from some countries to the effect that the rankings do not adequately reflect country-specific social situations, UNDP determines the ranking based only on the indices. It also maintain close attention to announcing the ranks because, despite limits that GDI and GEM might have, they are composed of sets of indicators capable of measuring basic features of women's status that cut across national boundaries. As such, they are actively being utilized in national policy making.

Perusing the 1990 HDR, one notes the change in UNDP position with reference to economic growth and development. Having become persuaded of the limits of economic and/or material support to developing countries during the 1960s and 1970s, UNDP began to advocate that, in order to assist the countries to achieve real development, economic growth strategy should be made to go hand in hand with the strategy of ensuring people's overall happiness. UNDP therefore evolved the notion of Human Development and set forth indicators that gave concrete and measurable expression to the notion, viz the Human Development Indicator (HDI). First presented in the 1990 HDR, the indicator had the effect of prompting countries to make greater efforts for human development by bringing into relief the reality that economic development does not necessarily ensure improvements in the quality of people's lives.

The HDI is based on quantitative measurements

of such indicators as life expectancy, literacy rates, years of school attendance and income levels, among others, which are all geared to assessing the levels of people's health, education and financial resources as well as access to opportunities for economic, social and political participation. Years of school attendance was later replaced by the percentage of school attendance but income level is still used as a form of logarithm.

GDI represents a modified version of the "gender disparity adjusted HDI" that was already introduced and was designed to show the difference between HDI and GDI values and, thus, made it possible to quantitatively gauge gender inequality.

As it stood in 2003, the GDI components include gender differences in terms of life expectancy at birth, adult literacy rate, a combined measurement on primary, secondary and tertiary gross enrollment ratios, and estimated earned income. Out of a total of 173 countries in the world, the rankings of 146 countries have been published. Norway enjoys the highest GDI ranking in the world with its GDI points of 0.941, just 0.059 point short of the perfect score, 1.000. Women's life expectancy in Norway is 81.5 years, 6 years longer than the male's 75.6 years. No adult literacy has been reported, and (combined primary, secondary and tertiary gross) enrollment ratio is 95 percent for both sexes. Yet when it comes to estimated earned income, women's is 23,454 dollars, less than men's estimated earned income of 36,510 dollars. This reflects that the gender differential is conspicuous in the economic sector.

### B. World Trends of GDI and GEM

The absolute world average of the GDI and GEM scores increased somewhat between 1995 and 2003. The GDI average has increased by 0.098 p from 0.595p in 1995 to 0.693p in 2003. This was contrary to the world's HDI average that has decreased by 0.037p during the same period. The GEM average has also increased by 0.186p, greater than the increase in GDI. This shows that even though the overall environment for human development has deteriorated during the period under consideration, the gender gaps have been narrowed and that women's position in decision-making has improved markedly.

Figure 2.2 shows the averages of the HDI, GDI and GEM scores of top 10 countries in the world. The trends shown are very much like the change pattern of world trends. That is, while the world's HDI average decreased from 0.948 to 0.938, the GDI average increased from 0.887 to 0.940 and the GEM average from 0.612p to 0.752p, more than the GDI. Considering the fact that 1.000p signifies the perfect state of gender equality, the GDI score of 0.940p means that the countries on average have almost reached that state. GEM, although it has increased more than GDI, is still at a lower level than that of GDI.

### C. Country-Specific Features in GDI and GEM

In order to analyze the effect of economy on GDI and GEM, we examined the correlations between the country GDPs, HDIs, GDIs and GEM. The outcomes of the analyses proved that the four indices are closely interrelated. In particular, the correlation between the GDP, the HDI and the GDI turned out to be highly positive (over 0.9), which meant that economic affluence is a prerequisite in achieving human development. However, the correlation of the GEM with other indices was found to be rela-

Figure 2.1 Changes in HDI, GDI, GEM Values (1995, 2003)

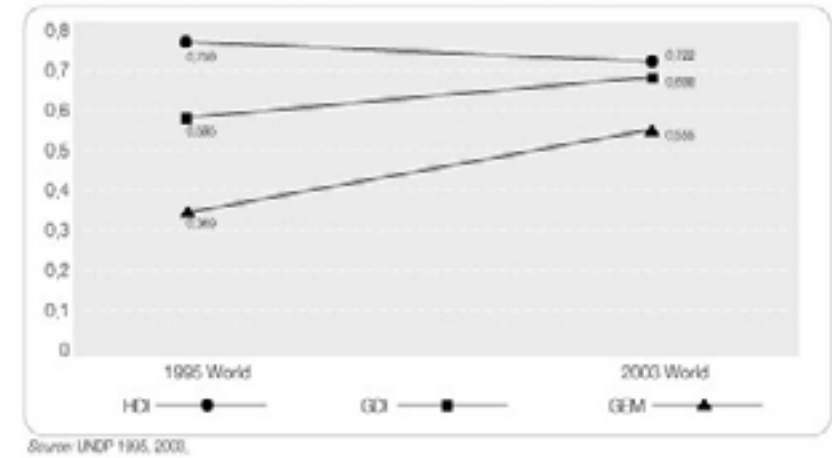
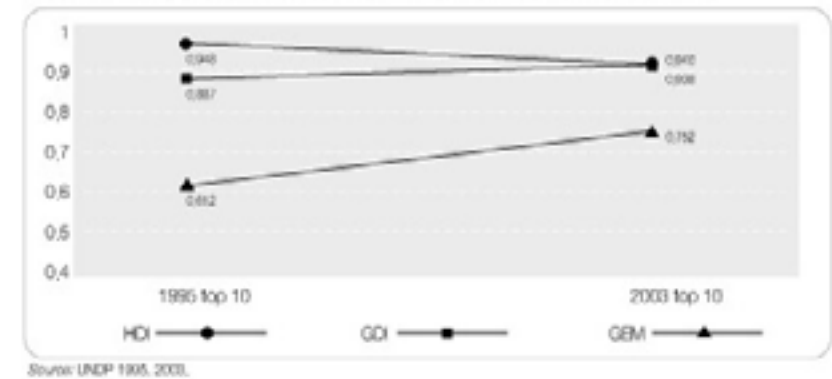


Figure 2.1 Change of HDI, GDI, and GEM Values in Top 10 Countries



tively low (about 0.7), meaning that economic development or human development does not necessarily result in women's empowerment. (See the Table 2.1) That pattern comes though clearly in Table 2.1, which shows the results of analyses of the GDI and GEM of 42 high-ranking countries that have made pertinent materials available for the present study. According to the analyses, even though the overall trends are similar to those that were calculated based on materials of all targeted countries listed in Table 2.1, the correlation of the GEM to other indices turns out to be 0.596p, 0.2p lower than the figures in the previous table. This can be interpreted to mean that the more developed the countries are, the lower the correlation between the level of economy and the GEM. Therefore, in order for women to obtain stronger decision-making power in core sectors, aside from efforts for human

development and economic development, national policies specifically designed to empower women are required.

Comparing the difference between human development and gender equality rankings, it is possible to come to grips with an important aspect of a country's characteristics.

We, therefore, examined the country cases where the GDI is lower than the HDI. Saudi Arabia, that ranks 62nd in HDI but ranks 68th in GDI, turned out to be the country with the widest HDI and GDI gap. Among the top ranking countries, Japan and Ireland had four step gaps between HDI and GDI,

Japan stands at the 9th place in HDI but 13th place in GDI while Ireland stands at the 12th place in HDI but the 16th place in GDI.

This lends to the interpretation that the status of gender equality in the context of human development tends to be lower than the level of human development. On the other hand, the Philippines represents a country case where the GDI ranking has greatly risen, with its HDI ranking at the 72nd and GDI ranking at the 66th. In other words, this means the GDI rank is six steps higher than the HDI ranking. Most frequent among the ten countries that have shown a rapid rise in GDI were those which ranked between the 60th and the 80th and they numbered six in total. Germany, with HDI ranking at the 18th and GDI ranking at the 15th, was the only country among the highly developed to show a rapid rise in GDI ranking. Germany is the only one top country where GDI is higher than HDI, with HDI standing at the 18th and GDI standing at the 15th.

Considering that the country with the widest HDI and GDI gap showed only six step difference between the two rankings, the overall gap between the same indices throughout the world can be judged as not very serious. This also indicates that the state of gender equality has advanced in parallel with the progress in human development. Nevertheless, it deserves attention that women in countries with higher HDI as compared to GDI are at a disadvantage vis-a-vis their male counterparts in seeking to develop their abilities.

With a view to finding particular country patterns in terms of the relations between women's empowerment and the level of economy, a distribution chart was drawn up using GDP per capita and GEM as data. In Figure 2.5, we adjusted ranks on the basis of information on 69 countries whose materials about GEM and GDI were available, and distributed their ranks in relation to one another. The result was that, even though most countries show positive relations between two indices, there are

countries departing far from the overall trend line and they are in two groups. One is those that flock into the upper left of the central line, indicating that even though their GDP standing is high, their GEM is low considering the level of the GDP. Belonging to this group are countries including Korea, Japan, and Italy. The other is those that flock into the lower right from the central line, indicating that, even though they stand low in the GDP ranking, their GEM is high considering the low GDP. Countries in this group are the Philippines and Namibia. The ranks of these countries are shown in Table 2.5. United Arab Emirate turned out to have the lowest level of GEM compared to its GDP, and Korea and Japan followed in that regard.

Table 2.6, on the other hand, lists countries with higher GEMs compared to their GDPs, most of which are among low GDP groups ranging from the 40th and the 60th places out of a total of 69 countries. However, in the case of Sweden, whose GDP stands at the 16th place, the GEM stood at the 3rd place, whopping 13 steps higher, which indicates that national policies favorable to gender equality can make a great contribution toward women's empowerment.

By comparing the GDI and GEM, one can examine the differences between the levels of gender equality and human development specific countries. In Figure 2.6, 42 top ranking countries were subjected analysis. And, even though the overall relations between their GDIs and GEMs proved positive, some countries greatly departed from the central trendline. Those that flocked into the upper left have low GEM compared to GDI, which indicates that although they achieved certain degree of gender equality in the fields of economy, health, education, etc., they still lag behind in terms of

Table 2.3 Countries with Lower GDI Compared to HDI

	HDI Rank	GDI Rank	HDI-GDI <sup>a</sup>
Saudi Arabia	73	68	-6
Yemen	148	127	-6
Belize	67	64	-5
Ecuador	97	84	-6
Japan	9	13	-4
Ireland	12	16	-4
Bahrain	37	40	-4
Mauritius	62	59	-4
Togo	141	118	-4

a : Data was quoted on countries whose GDP, HDI, GDI and GEM ranks are available. Source: UNDP 2003.

Table 2.4 Countries with Higher GDI Compared to HDI

	HDI Rank	GDI Rank	HDI-GDI <sup>a</sup>
Philippines	65	66	6
Zimbabwe	145	113	5
Kenya	146	115	4
Romania	72	57	4
Albania	95	73	4
Germany	18	15	3
Kazakhstan	76	62	3
Armenia	100	78	3
Uzbekistan	101	79	3
Uganda	147	117	3

a : Data was quoted on countries whose GDP, HDI, GDI and GEM ranks are available. Source: UNDP 2003.

women's empowerment. Korea and Japan are in this group. In addition, United Arab Emirates, Greece, and Italy, which are also in this group, are known for conservative attitude on gender equality. Therefore, despite high levels of women's health and education, and high economic level, women are seriously excluded from decision-making.

Clearly, the governments of those countries need to make serious efforts to find out why that situation have come about and to set down policies to change the status quo.

Table 2.1 Correlation of GDP, HDI, GDI, and GEM

		HDI	GDP	GDI	GEM
HDI	Pearson CorrelationSig.	1,000	,937	,998	,753
	(2-tailed)	.	***	***	***
	N	175	175	144	70
GDP	Pearson CorrelationSig.	,937	1,000	,950	,790
	(2-tailed)	***	.	***	***
	N	175	175	144	70
GDI	Pearson CorrelationSig.	,998	,950	1,000	,773
	(2-tailed)	***	***	.	***
	N	144	144	144	69
GEM	Pearson CorrelationSig.	,753	,790	,773	1,000
	(2-tailed)	***	***	***	.
	N	70	70	69	70

\*\*\* : p<1,001  
Note: Data was adjusted focusing on 42 countries among those holding high ranks in the HDI. Source: UNDP 2003.

Table 2.2 Correlation of GDP, HDI, GDI, and GEM in Countries Holding High Ranks

		HDI	GDP	GDI	GEM
HDI	Pearson CorrelationSig.	1,000	,895	,994	,662
	(2-tailed)	.	***	***	***
	N	42	42	42	42
GDP	Pearson CorrelationSig.	,895	1,000	,887	,596
	(2-tailed)	***	.	***	***
	N	42	42	42	42
GDI	Pearson CorrelationSig.	,994	,887	1,000	,702
	(2-tailed)	***	***	.	***
	N	42	42	42	42
GEM	Pearson CorrelationSig.	,662	,596	,702	1,000
	(2-tailed)	***	***	***	.
	N	42	42	42	42

\*\*\* : p<1,001  
Note: Data was adjusted focusing on 42 countries among those holding high ranks in the HDI. Source: UNDP 2003.

Table 2.5 Countries with Lower GEM Compared to GDP

	GDP	GEM	GDP-GEM <sup>a</sup>
Arab Emirate	23	65	-44
Korea	37	63	-33
Japan	14	44	-31
Italy	16	32	-18
Chile	53	52	-16
Cyprus	22	34	-15
Greece	31	40	-15
Turkey	80	66	-15
Ireland	3	16	-14
Russia	66	57	-11

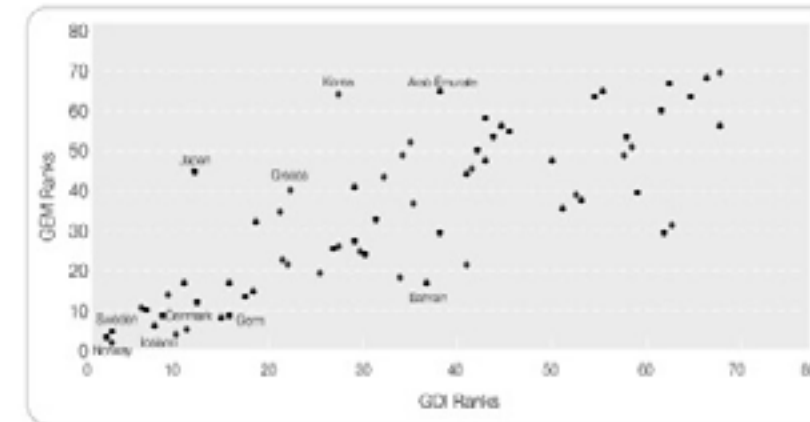
a : Data was adjusted on countries whose GDP, HDI, GDI and Gem ranks are available  
Source: UNDP 2003.

Table 2.6 Countries with Higher GEM Compared to GDP

	GDP	GEM	GDP-GEM <sup>a</sup>
Bolivia	120	36	26
Philippines	104	35	24
Peru	96	39	18
Namibia	65	29	16
Trinidad Tobago	55	22	16
Costarica	51	19	15
Latvia	61	30	14
Moldova	129	51	14
Sweden	18	3	13
Botswana	60	31	12
Ecuador	109	49	12

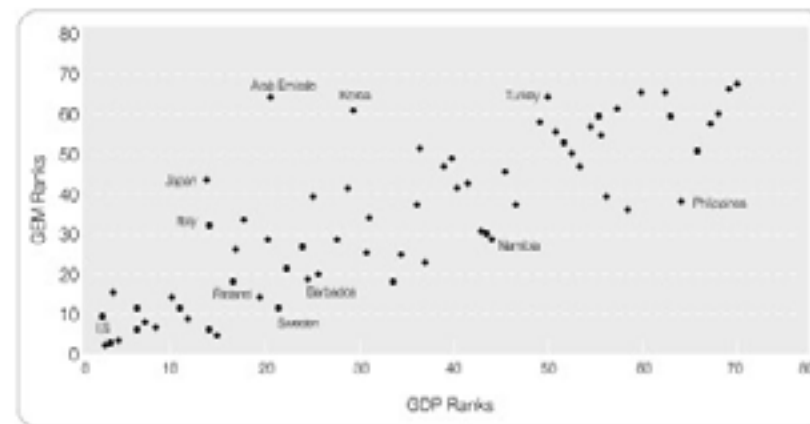
a : Data was adjusted on countries whose GDP, HDI, GDI and Gem ranks are available  
Source: UNDP 2003.

Figure 2.6 Distribution of GDI and GEM



Note: Data was adjusted on countries whose GDP, HDI, GDI and Gem ranks are available  
Source: UNDP 2003.

Figure 2.5 Distribution of GDP and GEM



Note: Data was adjusted on countries whose GDP, HDI, GDI and Gem ranks are available  
Source: UNDP 2003.

Table 2.7 Countries with Lower GEM Compared to GDI

	GDI	GEM	GDI-GEM <sup>a</sup>
Korea	30	63	-35
Japan	13	44	-31
Arab Emirate	49	65	-24
Greece	24	40	-17
Chile	43	52	-16
Italy	21	32	-13
Lithuania	42	48	-13
Cyprus	25	34	-12
Russia	56	57	-12
Hungary	36	41	-11
Ukraine	63	61	-11

a : Data was adjusted on countries whose GDP, HDI, GDI and Gem ranks are available  
Source: UNDP 2003.

Table 2.8 Countries with Higher GEM Compared to GDI

	GDI	GEM	GDI-GEM <sup>a</sup>
Namibia	100	29	36
Botswana	101	31	34
Bolivia	94	38	23
Bahamas	46	18	20
Trinidad Tobago	50	22	19
Dominica	77	37	18
Philippines	66	35	17
Costarica	41	19	15
Peru	72	39	15
Pakistan	120	58	10

a : Data was adjusted on countries whose GDP, HDI, GDI and Gem ranks are available  
Source: UNDP 2003.

### 3. NHDR and Gender

#### A. Significance of NHDR and its Publication

Human Development Report, published annually by UNDP since 1990, suggests various indicators and calculation methods that are used as practical measures for the human development. In 1995, gender issue-related indices such as the GDI (Gender Development Index) and GEM were developed with a purpose of suggesting tools that can measure whether women can get an equal chance to develop themselves and whether women can have equal opportunity in participating in important sectors in societies, compared to their male counterparts. As those indices have come to be regarded as important measures for gauging women's status, individual countries are paying a keen attention to their respective ranks.

Aware, however, of the limits of Human Development Report in portraying country-specific circumstances and situations pertaining to human

development, individual countries began to publish National Human Development Reports (NHDRs) with a view to tackling certain problems particular to their respective countries. The NHDRs that are published either at the regional or national level have been used as a basis for policy making in the countries concerned because the reports provide estimations of overall conditions of human development and help identify obstructions to furthering the same in each country. African country reports, for example, suggest, based on factual analysis, that a main obstacle in achieving human development in that region is none other than HIV/AIDS.

The subjects of about 450 reports published by approximately 130 countries, indeed, show that the reports closely depict the conditions of the countries and the regions concerned. While the first reports tended to describe the countries' overall conditions and situations, the second and further ensuing reports present in-depth analyses on particular

issues. For example Table 2.9, Eastern European countries' main issues are related to national building and the cohesions and dissolutions of their societies. On the other hand, the issues facing the

stresses that, in order for the political support to generate greater impact, it needs to give consideration not only to the socio-economic and cultural contexts but political context as well.

We grant that the note has gained political support as it provides a viable framework for gender analysis. Nevertheless, it is our view that, in order for the note to gain greater political support, it needs to provide for more attention to country-specific socio-economic conditions, cultural mores and political environment.

To be more specific, chapter one of the guidance note suggests conceptual works on the relationship between gender and human development, from a perceptual stage to a practical stage, and provides methods of analysis for it. In chapter two, it deals with how to reflect gender-sensitive perspective in the concept development and planning stages. The gender-related objectives in NHDR is to make firm the position of gender equality within the overall human development paradigm, to study urgent gender and development issues and provide specific policy recommendations as to how gender equality can be achieved, and to demonstrate and advocate gender mainstreaming. In addition, the note stipulates that analysis on the GDI, GEM, HDI, and GDP introduced in the HDR provides an important evidence that the level of national economy is congruent with the level of gender equality.

In chapter three, it elaborates on the kinds of indices that can be used to check gender inequality and the issues that have to be taken into account in various specific sectors. The following is an example of tables that present indices to be used to check how deeply gender inequality is rooted in societies. Since the indices suggested in the table is so broad that we choose only some those that are applicable to Korea and examine them intensively. The ones chosen are gender-sensitive indicators on political participation, time use for household and management among family members and sex discrimination in the labour market.

Table 2.9 Publication of NHDR in Regional Level

Region	Number of Publication	Main Subjects
East European and CIS Countries	157	Nation building, Social solidarity/ Isolation Decentralization
Africa	106	HIV/AIDS, Poverty, Development, Environment
Latin America & Caribbean	63	Role of Nation, Governance
Asia, Pacific	50	Gender, Democracy, Participation
Arab Countries	26	General Report

Asia/Pacific countries are about gender, democracy, human rights, poverty and other related issues.

The NHDR team, a subgroup under UNDP, encourages individual countries to take initiative in the publication of NHDRs and help them to use the outcomes of those reports as knowledge base in policy making. Some of the specific activities include distributing, through the Internet, manuals on how to prepare and launch NHDRs in individual countries and granting awards and financial support to the best NHDR publications. Further, the NHDR team organizes international seminars designed to infuse the HDR perspectives and initiatives into national policy making by inviting experts in relevant sectors to the seminars and workshops, which are held biannually.

## B. Guidance Note for NHDR on Gender

The NHDR headquarter located in New York issues guidance notes in order to facilitate country efforts in preparing the NHDRs with due attention to gender issues.<sup>21</sup> The purpose of this note is to provide NHDR researchers with theoretical background and practical guidance on how to effectively examine the issues related to gender equality. This work recognizes that NHDR receives political support and has a role as an analytical framework and

## 4. Conclusion

In this chapter, we explored the significance of gender equality in the context of the human development paradigm that is championed by UNDP. We then examined the functions of GDI and GEM in measuring gender equality. Country-specific characteristics were captured based on their respective rankings and, as a result, it was found that GEM is less related to the level of a country's economy than GDI is and that, in some countries, their GEM rankings are considerably lower than their levels of economy and human development.

The outcomes, therefore, argued for the governments of those countries to take well-targeted national actions for enhancing women's status. It

was also suggested that NHDR can be a proper tool for identifying key gender issues and evolving specific strategies for addressing them.

Korea is one of the countries with a low GEM score despite its relatively high ranking in HDI, GDI and GDP. Korea and other countries in similar predicament such as Japan and Italy must therefore take the matter of their low GEM status seriously as they formulate future gender policies. Only through an examination of the factors underlying the low GEM could the importance of women's participation in core decision-making positions in the economic and political fields be spotlighted.

### **Ⅲ . Women's Policy in Korea : with focus on GDI and GEM**

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1. Development of Women's Policy in Korea
2. Gender Equality in Korea by GDI and GEM
3. Conclusion



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## 1. Development of Women's Policy in Korea

Over the past several decades, Korea has made a remarkable progress in the field of women's policies. On the back of improved level of women's education, increase in women's economic power and active women's movements, various institutional mechanisms and laws were introduced to enhance gender equality.

The most representative cases in point are the enactments of the Women's Development Act and Equal Employment Act in (1995) and (1987) respectively. These Acts signified practical realizations of the concept of equality stipulated in the constitution of the Republic of Korea.

Furthermore, the national machinery for the advancement of women's status has been reinforced. In the early 1980s, there was only one governmental organ that addressed women's issues, *vis*, the Women's Welfare Division within the Ministry of Health and Welfare, which was mainly responsible for policies for women in need. In 1988, the Ministry of Political Affairs (II) was newly established as well as the Presidential Commission on Women's Affairs under the Office of the President, which, in due course, evolved into the Ministry of Gender Equality. With the establishment of ministry-level organs that deal with gender equality, the government became a key player in all actions directed toward strengthening the position of women in the country.

In this chapter, we first introduce the development of women's policies in Korea over the past two decades with focus on enactments of laws and the establishment of related organs. We then go on to examine the characteristics of women's policies in terms of their achievements and constraints, especially those of the preferential actions taken to redress existing inequities, which have triggered

hard line debates as well as produced great impact.

### A. Enactment of Laws for Gender Equality

#### ◎ The Women's Development Act

The Women's Development Act was passed by the Korean National Assembly in December 1995 for the purpose of realizing in true life gender equality and the improvement of women's status stipulated in the constitution providing the grounds for policy building on women's issues.<sup>1)</sup> The Act, enacted as a result of the Fourth World Conference on Women held at Beijing in 1995, stipulates the duties of the government and local governing bodies as follows:

1. Preferential actions for the elimination of conditions disadvantageous to Korean women (Article 6)
2. Extension of women's participation in political affairs and decision-making (Article 15)
3. Extension of women's positions in public offices (Article 16)
4. Reinforcement of equal employment (Article 17) and maternity protection (Article 18)
5. Reinforcement of gender equality in the school education, social education, and home education. (Article 19, 20, and 21)
6. Enhancement of women's welfare (Article 22)
7. Improvement of child-care facilities (Article 23)
8. Establishment of equal relationship among family members (Article 24)
9. Prevention of domestic violence and sexual abuse (Article 25)
10. Monetary evaluation of household chores (Article 26)
11. Promotion of women's participation in international cooperative actions (Article 27)

12. Actions to tackle gender discrimination through mass media (Article 28)

In accordance with the provision of Article 7, stipulating that government should set up basic plans for women's policies every five year, the Ministry of Gender Equality has developed the second Basic Plan for Women's Policies (2003-2007), which is in effect now.

◎ Equal Employment Act

In order to realize gender equality in the labour market, the Equal Employment Act was legislated in December 1987. The purpose of this law is to guarantee equal opportunities and treatments to both sexes in the labour market on the back of the principle of equality stipulated in the constitution, and to make a contribution to improving women's welfare and socio-economic status by advocating maternity protection and helping them develop vocational capability. As a result of the enactment of the law, the principles of gender equality and maternity protection in the labour market came to be advocated and any gender discrimination detected in the stages of recruitment and appointment became regulated according to the law.<sup>25</sup>

Although the Equal Employment Act is significant because it provides legal grounds for equal employment practices, its actual observance at business/industrial establishments has been in question. The law was therefore revised four times. The major changes in the third revision was to introduce the concept of indirect discrimination and sexual harassment within organizations, while the major change in the fourth revision was the expansion of organizations subject to this law and provision of detailed stipulations concerning the indirect discrimination.<sup>26</sup>

◎ Other Gender Related Laws

The Gender Discrimination Prevention and Relief Act is another gender related law deserving atten-

tion.

The Act was legislated in 1999 with a view to achieving gender equality in all sectors of the Korean society by prohibiting gender discrimination in employment, education, access to both monetary and material resources, facilities and services, and in the implementation of laws and policies, including proper safeguards to protect the rights of victims.<sup>27</sup>

In addition, for preventing gender discrimination within organizations, there are the Labour Union and Labour Relations Coordination Act, the Employment Security Act, the Employment Policy Act and the Act on the Protection of Dispatched Workers, among others. The Education Act also includes provisions that promote gender equality in education, and the Broadcast Act, legislated in 2000, prohibits gender discrimination in the mass media.

In another aspect of legislative actions designed to achieve gender equality, certain components of several existing laws were revised. For instance, the discriminatory provision on family leave in the Regulation for National Civil Service Employees was eliminated. In 2000, by the decision of the Constitution Court, the practice of granting advantage to war veterans in the process of personnel recruitment and promotion in all business establishments and organizations was banned in December 1999 because that practice has been serving as a primary cause of gender discrimination in employment.<sup>28</sup>

With the amendment of the Military Academies Act in 1995, female students were allowed to enter the military academies of all categories.

The National Pension Act was revised in 2000 to delete the provision whereby the daughters and granddaughters, upon marriage, would lose the right to the benefit accorded to the surviving family members of the deceased pensioner. In other words, the system in which women's marital status determined their entitlement to the survivors' benefit was abolished by this revision.<sup>29</sup>

Thanks to the legislation and revision of laws

related to gender equality over the past two decades, the grounds for gender discrimination in the legal context have largely been removed. And, under that circumstance, Korean women's policies have begun to stress achieving substantial gender equality through efficient and practical application of the laws legislated.

B. National Machinery for the Enhancement of Women's Status

In 2000, the National Assembly passed the revised Government Organization Act, which abolished the existing Presidential Commission on Women's Affairs (February 1998-January 2001) and newly established the long-awaited Ministry of Gender Equality. The major tasks of the Ministry include: planning and coordinating women's policies; gender analysis and evaluation on the effects of policies; women's human resource development; extension of women's social participation; management of child-care services; prevention of prostitution and protection of its victims; prevention of domestic violence and sexual abuse and sheltering of the victims; prohibition of gender discrimina-

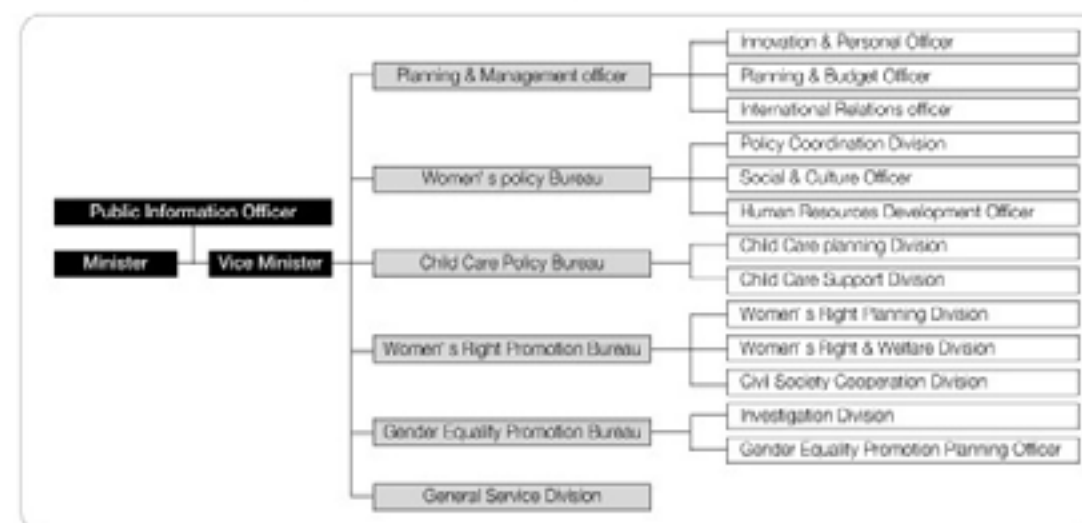
tion in all areas of national life and taking necessary countermeasures in that connection; and international cooperation at all levels. The following figure shows the organizational structure of the Ministry.<sup>30</sup>

◎ Women's Policy Units in Six Ministries

With the establishment of the Presidential Commission on Women's Affairs, Women's Policy Units were established in six ministries for the purpose of facilitating the Commission's coordination function vis-a-vis the line Ministries concerned, namely the Ministry of Justice, the Ministry of Government Administration and Home Affairs, the Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development, the Ministry of Health and Welfare, the Ministry of Labour, and the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry. An extension of the coordination mechanism into other ministries is currently under consideration.<sup>31</sup>

Within the Ministry of Justice, the officers of the Women's Policy Units are to set up "Comprehensive Plans to Prevent Domestic Violence for the Punishment and Prevention of Crimes against Women; to conduct a survey of domestic violence and develop corrective programmes for the per-

Figure 3.1 Organizational Map of Ministry of Gender Equality



Source: Internet homepage, Ministry of Gender Equality

petrators; to devise measures to prevent prostitution and stocking to study nurturing specialists on investigation of women-related crimes.

In the Ministry of Government Administration and Home Affairs, the officers of the Women's Policy Unit are involved in expanding the quota system for women's employment and seeking ways to facilitate women's advance into managerial level public posts. The Women's Policy Unit in the Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development is involved in strengthening the function of career or vocational counseling centers within the school system and developing career education programmes for female middle and high school students. In order to spread the principle of education for gender equality, it eliminated the discriminatory elements in the textbooks and is carrying out researches for the development of education to diffuse gender equality principle.

The major task of Women's Policy Unit of the Ministry of Health and Welfare is to implement a mainstreaming project whose purpose are: to reconsider gender equality reflected in policies and institutions related to welfare and health; to enhance understanding of the gender equality of those involved in related sectors; to improve women's representative power; to expand women's social participation. Precise goals of this project are to improve women's health by expanding medical services in accordance with women's life cycle, to enhance women's autonomy through measures of helping their self-supports, to strengthen women's economic power by securing a certain level of incomes, to improve women's rights by expanding service into isolated women, and to raise women's status by encouraging women's social participation.

The Ministry of Labour that deals with women's policies at the level of bureau titled Equal Employment Bureau, formerly Women's Labour Policy Bureau, covers women's policy matters such as gender equality in employment, employment of disabled persons, including of course disabled

women, and equal wage for equal work issues. The Ministry's major tasks are to set down policies bearing on workingwomen, unemployed women, sexual harassment at places of work, etc.

The policy goals of the Women's Policy Unit of the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry are: to realize the ideal of healthy rural family and to support female agricultural workers pertinent expertise, thus to contribute to the vitalization of rural communities that, at present, suffers the problems of population aging and labour shortage.

#### ◎ Women's Policy Units in Local Self-Governing Bodies

For implementing the Basic Plan for Women's Policies, local self-governing bodies established the Division for Women's Policies whose main task is to facilitate cooperation with the national level organs in charge of women's policies, especially with reference to project planning and evaluation of project outcomes and regarding women's participation in government committees.

### C. Special Measures for Women and Their Impact

Article 6 of the Women's Development Act provides that the government and local governments may take temporary special measures of reasonable nature to promote women's participation in fields where women's participation have hitherto been notably low. The following are such special measures in effect now.

#### ◎ Quota System for Women's Employment in the Civil Service

From 1998, a quota system was introduced for recruiting women in high ranking public posts in view of the relatively few women who pass the administrative and diplomatic civil service examinations and the open recruitment test for the 7th rank positions in the administration, public safety, and

foreign affairs fields. The quota target for women was initially set at 10 percent in 1996 and was readjusted to 20 percent in 2002. Further, this system, introduced on a temporarily basis in the year of 2000, was extended into 2002 because the impact of the measure was highly successful in that it aroused great interest among women to enter public life. The number of women in high-ranking public offices increased radically as a result. The number of women passing certain civil service examinations even surpassed the quota target, also as a result. In more specific terms, the percentage of women who apply for positions in the public sector rose from 31.6 percent in 1995 to 40.1 percent in 2001, and the percentage of women who actually pass the examinations was increased from 23.8 percent in 1995 to 43.3 percent in 2002.<sup>98</sup>

Accordingly, the Ministry of Government Administration and Home Affairs developed the quota system into a recruitment quota system for gender equality, which is applicable to sectors where one gender accounts for less than 30 percent of the total number of positions.

#### ◎ Increased Women's Participation in Government Committees

To raise women's decision-making power in the political sector, the government launched a project that stimulates women's participation in government committees. This project succeeded in generating a strong momentum in 1998 and was earnestly implemented providing for a 30 percent quota target. The project, presently being carried out by the Ministry of Gender Equality, has produced tangible result: the percentage of women appointed to government committees increased from 8.1 percent in 1989 to 31.6 percent in 2003.<sup>99</sup>

According to quota targets by year, female lawmakers are strongly encouraged to participate in committees through the quota system that has set a 40 percent target for 2007 as compared to 2003's 32 percent.

#### ◎ Quota System in Women's Employment as Professors

The Ministry of Education and Human Resources Development, being aware of seriousness of low representative power of women in colleges, introduced the quota system in women's employment as professors in 2003. This system, under which if national or public colleges appoint women as new professors, they are endowed with financial supports, has adopted a remarkable approach that aims to increase female professors by 200 in 2003.

In 2004, this system was developed as a stipulation of Gender Equality Committee for College Faculty Recruitment, which calls for systematic efforts for the increase of female professors.

#### ◎ Quota System in Nomination of Female Candidates in Elections

Lawmakers in Korea are composed of ones elected from national constituency and ones elected from electoral districts. Each party nominates those with intelligence and eminent reputations as candidates running in national constituency and ranks them. How many seats each party obtains through runs in electoral districts determines the number of

Table 3.1 Females who have passed Civil Examinations in 1996 and 2002 Under the Quota System for Women

Civil Examination	1996			2002		
	Number Passed	Females Passed	Women Passed under Quota System	Number Passed	Females passed	Women Passed under Quota System
Total	3,334	885(26.5)	190(6)	3,856	1,671(43.3)	832(2)
Administrative Civil Exam	192	190(9)	2	257	73(28.4)	11
Diplomatic Civil Exam	41	40(9)	1	35	10(45.7)	
Technical Civil Exam	48	2(4.2)	Not applicable	50	3(6.0)	
Local Civil Exam	88	1(1.1)	-	26	10(38)	
7th Rank Civil Exam	500	41(8.2)	16	623	165(26.5)	14
9th Rank Civil Exam	2,467	818(33.1)	Not applicable	2,915	1,416(48.6)	58

Source: Informative Local Decentralization Committee 2004.

seats available under national constituency. As a result, candidates running in national constituency are elected according to their ranks. In the 17th general election, the percentage of female candidates nominated by parties under national constituency was 50 percent. Therefore, female elects accounted for 50 percent of those elected through national constituency. On top of that, such actions triggered new trends in runs of electoral districts. While female candidates, in the past, had to face

disadvantages only because they are women, in this election, their gender played a favorable role in election campaigning. Boosted by such results, women's group and women-related government departments are promoting the introduction of this quota system not only in national assembly elections, but also in local assembly elections.

Table 3.2 Women's Participation in Government Committees (2003)

	Unit: Person, %		
	Number of Appointed Members	Number of Female Members	Ratio (%)
Total	16,113	5,006	31.6
Central Committees	4,523	1,237	27.3
Local Committees	11,590	3,768	38.3

Source: Ministry of Gender Equality 2004.

Table 3.3 Quota Targets for Women's Participation in Committees by Year

Year	2003	2004	2005	2006	2007
Quota Target	32%	34%	36%	38%	40%

Source: Ministry of Gender Equality 2004.

## 2. Gender Equality in Korea by GDI and GEM

### A. Korea's Ranks in GDI, GEM

Korea's GDI and GEM ranks and scores serve as objective barometers of the degree of gender equality achieved in Korea over time. The details are shown in the following table.

The figures in the table indicate that Korea maintained a similar level of HDI and GDI ranks both of which stood at around the 30th places, indicating that, in Korea, achievements in human development closely paralleled economic development, or vice versa, and that there is little gap between the sexes in terms of human development indicators such as health, education, et cetera.

The figures also show that compared to the HDI and GDI, the GEM is in the lowest range. In 2002, Korea's GEM ranked 61st among a total of 66 countries and, in 2003, it was 63rd among 70 countries, indicating that Korean women, are excluded from major decision-making processes in the political and economic sectors although they have been quite active in the social sector. The wide differential between the GDI and GEM statuses show that despite a great deal of investment for the development of women's capability, the society failed to reap fruits from that investment. From another perspective, there has been considerable waste in human resources. Worldwide, the countries showing a wide gap between the HDI and GEM are Japan, Korea, and U.A.E.

### B. Analysis of Korea's GEM Components

In this section, we will focus on examining the reason why Korea's GEM is so greatly lower than its GDI. In doing so, the specific GEM components will be first analyzed in relation to those of other

countries, and an analysis of the ratio of seats in parliament held by women, female legislators, senior officials and managers, which are particularly low on the indicators, will follow.

#### 1) Comparison of Korea's GEM Components with those of Other Countries.

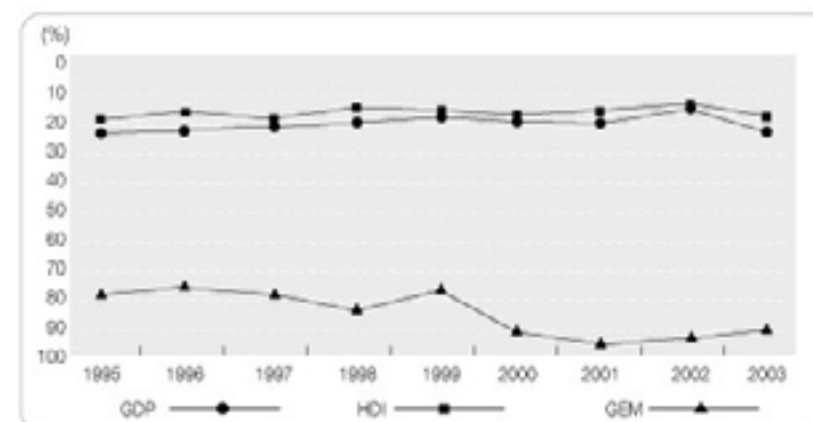
Table 3.5 shows the GEM ranks of 30 top ranking HDI countries as published in Human Development Report 2003 and other related indicators. In general, Western European countries with high ranks in HDI

Table 3.4 Korea's Ranks on Women-related Indicators

Year	Unit: %, Rank (Total Number of Targeted Countries)			
	GDP	HDI	GDI	GEM
1995	38(174)	31(174)	37(130)	90(118)
1996	38(174)	29(174)	31(137)	78(104)
1997	37(175)	32(175)	32(146)	73(93)
1998	36(174)	30(174)	37(163)	83(102)
1999	33(174)	30(174)	30(143)	78(102)
2000	35(174)	31(174)	30(143)	63(70)
2001	32(162)	27(162)	29(146)	61(64)
2002	28(173)	27(173)	29(146)	61(66)
2003	37(175)	30(175)	30(144)	63(70)

Source: UNDP each year.

Figure 3.2 Percentile of Korea's Ranks of Women-related Indicators



Note: Data was adjusted since the number of surveyed countries is different according to years.  
Source: UNDP each year.

Table 3.5 HDI, GDP and GEM rankings of Top 30 HDI Countries'

GEM	HDI Rank	GDP Rank	GEM Rank	Seats in parliament held by women(%)	Female legislators, senior officials and managers(%)	Female professional and technical workers(%)	Ratio of estimated female to male earned income
Norway	1	5	2	36.4	20	48	0.65
Sweden	3	18	3	45.3	30	49	0.68
Australia	4	12	11	26.5	25	45	0.70
Netherlands	5	8	6	33.3	26	48	0.53
Belgium	6	11	15	24.9	19	50	0.44
United States	7	2	10	14.0	46	54	0.62
Canada	8	9	9	23.6	35	53	0.63
Japan	9	14	44	10.0	9	45	0.45
Switzerland	10	7	13	22.4	24	43	0.50
Denmark	11	6	4	38.0	21	51	0.71
Ireland	12	3	16	14.2	28	49	0.40
United Kingdom	13	19	17	17.1	30	43	0.60
Finland	14	17	5	36.6	28	57	0.70
Austria	16	10	7	30.6	29	48	0.50
Germany	18	13	8	31.4	27	50	0.57
Spain	19	24	14	26.6	32	45	0.44
New Zealand	20	26	12	29.2	38	53	0.66
Italy	21	16	32	10.3	19	44	0.45
Israel	22	26	23	15.0	27	54	0.53
Portugal	23	30	21	19.1	32	50	0.53
Greece	24	31	40	8.7	25	47	0.45
Singapore	28	21	26	11.8	24	43	0.50
Slovenia	29	32	27	12.2	31	54	0.62
Korea, Rep. of	30	37	63	5.9	5	34	0.46
Poland	35	52	25	20.7	32	60	0.62
Hungary	38	42	41	9.8	34	61	0.58
Slovakia	39	44	24	10.3	31	61	0.65
Uruguay	40	59	43	11.5	37	52	0.52
Chile	43	53	52	10.1	24	50	0.38

Source: UNDP 2003.

also have high ranks in GEM. Yet Asian countries such as Japan, Korea, and Singapore, despite their high ranks in HDI, show low GEM ranks. On specific GEM components also, Korea shows disappointing scores.

Figure 3.3 shows a comparison between HDI and GEM values of Norway, Japan, Korea, and the Philippines. The closer the values are to 1, the higher the values are. Therefore, the steeper the slope of lines connecting HDI and GEM, the bigger the gap between the HDI and GEM. Even though the two values are not absolutely comparable, the comparison like this helps us see correlation between human development and gender equality in a simple way.

While, in 2003, the gap between Norway's 1st

place HDI score (0.944) and Korea's 30th place HDI score (0.879) was not that wide, in terms of GEM, Korea's score of 0.363 seriously lagged behind Norway's 0.837. Japan, which belongs in the same Asian cultural block, stood at the 9th place in HDI (0.932) but in the 44th place in GEM (0.151). On the other hand, the Philippines, whose HDI ranking is the 85th (0.751), holds the 35th GEM ranking (0.593), which is considerably higher than those of Japan and Korea. These outcomes show that while the relationship between HDI and GEM in the advanced Western countries are closely and positively interlinked, their relationship in Asian countries, including Korea, varies depending on their socio-cultural and historical contexts. As a result, women's status in Japan and Korea, where the Confucian cultural mores still prevails, can be low.

Figure 3.4 shows a distribution of the values of GEM components,

In 2003, Norway ranked 1st in GEM among all the relevant countries and Singapore, ranking 26th, was at the top among the Asian countries. Comparing Korea with the countries with high GEM rankings, it becomes clear that the former stands low with respect to all the elements that constitute the pertinent index. The situation is particularly glaring in terms of the rate of female administrators/managers and parliamentarians and the level of earned income.

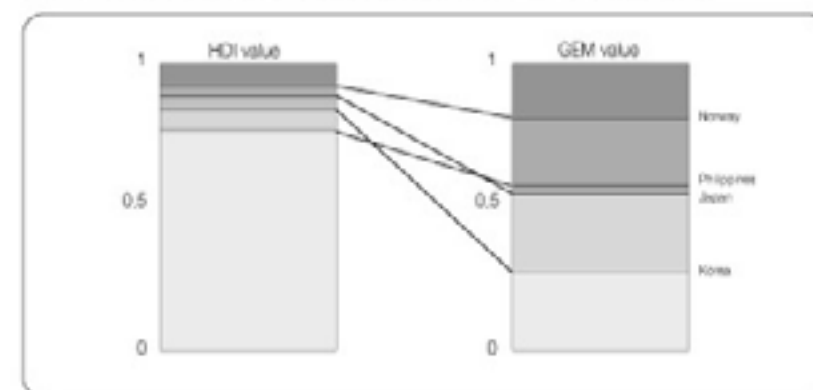
Women in Asian countries have low status in general compared to women in continental Europe and other Western countries, regardless of the economic levels measured on HDI and GDP. The fact that the ratio of female lawmakers and the ratio of women's earned income as measured against the men's are relatively low in Korea compared to the values of other indicators can be attributed to cultural factors such as Confucianism prevalent in those countries. For example, Singapore is 26th in the GEM ranking although its level of economy is very high partly because it has a low ratio of female lawmakers and the ratio of women's income as against men's income is lower than in other countries.

## 2) Analysis of Korea's GEM Components

In the foregoing, it was indicated that the ratio of female lawmakers in Korea is extremely low. Figure 3.5 shows how much efforts would be needed when Asian countries with low GEM ranks, such as Korea, Japan, Singapore, and the Philippines, attempt to increase the ratio of female lawmaker to a higher level.

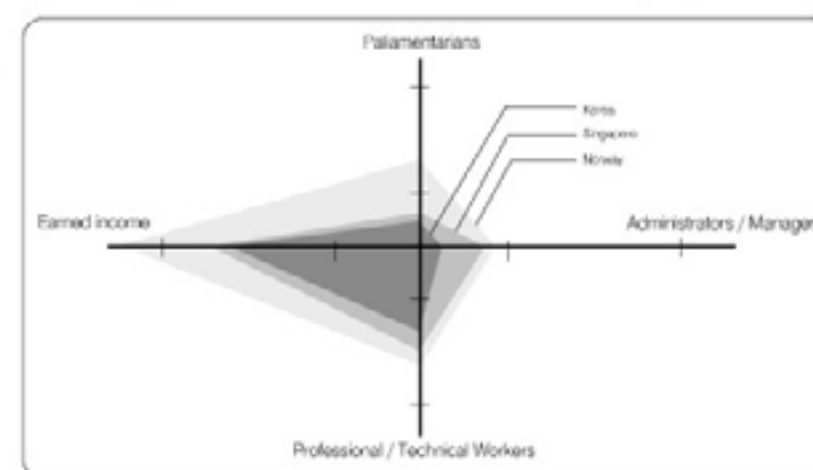
The ratio of female lawmakers recommended by the UN is 30 percent. In the figure, which presents the changes in the ratios of female lawmakers in the countries just cited over the past eight years (from

Figure 3.3 Comparison of Countries' Values of HDI and GEM (2003)



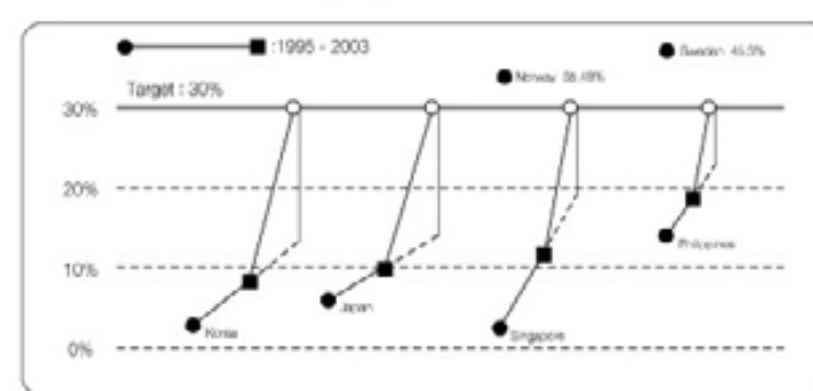
Source: UNDP 2003.

Figure 3.4 Comparison of Detailed indicators of GEM in Each Countries (2003)



Source: UNDP 2003.

Figure 3.5 Comparison of Changes in the Ratio of Female Lawmakers in Selected Countries (2003)



Source: UNDP 2003.

**Table 3.6 Korea's GEM**

	1995	1996	1997	1998	1999	2000	2001	2002	2003
GEM rank (Total Number of Nations Surveyed)	90(116)	78(104)	73(93)	83(102)	78(102)	63(70)	61(64)	66	63(70)
GEM value	0.255	0.282	0.302	0.292	0.336	0.323	0.358	0.378	0.363
Ratio of seats in parliament held by women	1	2	3	3	3.7	4	5.9	5.9	5.9
Ratio of female legislators, senior officials and managers	4.1	4.2	4.2	4.4	4.2	4.7	5	5	5
Ratio of female professional and technical workers	42.5	45	45	31.9	45	31.9	31	34	34
Ratio of estimated female to male earned income	0.28	0.37	0.38	0.41	0.45	0.46	0.45	0.45	0.46

Source: UNDP each year.

1995 to 2003), the triangle areas signify how much efforts the countries concerned would need to make in order to attain the 30 percent level within 10 years as recommended by the UN on the basis of the change pace of the previous eight years. The Philippines' area of triangle is the smallest and Korea's the largest. The Philippines' case is very unique because, despite its low HDI and GDP levels, the level of women's empowerment stands quite high, which is attributable to its distinct national characteristics such as the fact that persons belonging to certain families with strong influence on local communities over generations are highly likely to be elected in the election. Therefore, the ratio of females elected from local communities is higher than that from major cities. This has been a key factor underlying the high ratio of female lawmakers in the Philippines. As for Korea, Figure 3.4 makes it clear that greater efforts would be needed to meet the recommended 30 percent ratio of female lawmakers in its National Assembly.

Table 3.6 and Figure 3.6 provide Korea's GEM rank and its scores on the various GEM components. Even though the GEM rank tends to hover on the lower range of the ranking scale in general, it has been increasing slowly. Nevertheless, the ratios of seats in parliament held by women and female legislators, senior officials and managers remain conspicuously low. Further, estimated

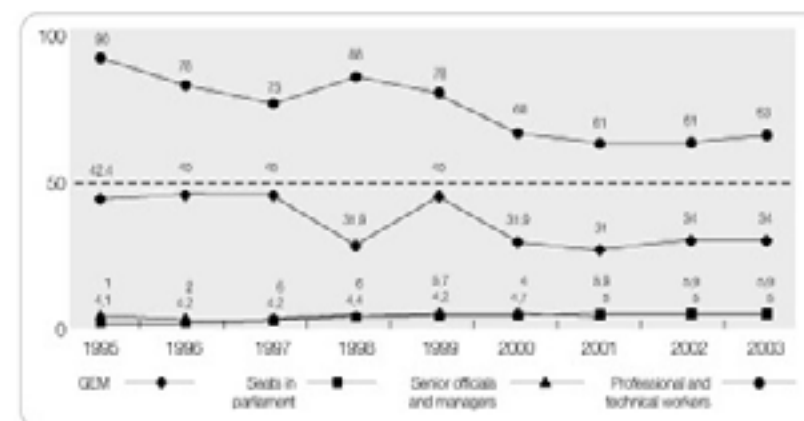
female income, even though it has been increasing gradually since 1995, is still lower than half of estimated male income. (In the table, male income is set as 1.) Moreover, the low ratios of seats in parliament held by women and female legislators, senior officials and managers are more serious because they mean women are excluded from national level decision-making.

What makes the situation worse is the fact that there has been no increase in the ratios of seats in parliament held by women and female legislators, senior officials and managers since 2000. To boot, evaluating women's status based on statistics about female professionals and technical workers are not that reliable because each country has different standard in sorting occupational categories and classes. However, given the low ratios of seats in parliament held by women and female legislators, senior officials and managers, it was only to be expected that Korea would have extremely low women's participation in its political sector.

Moreover, the fact that the ratios of female legislators, senior officials and managers in charge of the country's administrative works are also low contributes to its low GEM ranking. To go by Korea's occupational classification system, legislators, senior government officials, administrative managers and general managers are categorized together into an administrative/managerial group. In other words,

this group encompasses not only legislators, but also ministers, vice-ministers, other high-ranking government officials, and CEOs of private companies. Given this system of classification, the fact that the ratio of women included in this group is only five percent indicates that women's participation is limited not only in the political sector but also in the private and voluntary sectors as well.

**Figure 3.6 Korea's GEM**



Source: UNDP each year.

### 3. Conclusion

In the foregoing chapter, we examined the significance of GDI and GEM, indicators that are used to measure the level of gender equality in various countries and discussed how the quantitative indices are arrived at. Then, we analyzed the Korean situation by comparing its indices with those of other countries. Based on an analysis of GDI and GEM in relation to GDP, an indicator showing the level of economy, and HDI, an indicator showing the level of human development, it was found that GDP, HDI, and GDI are positively correlated (0.9) but that the correlation of the first two indices with GEM is relatively low (0.7). That outcome meant that even though human development and economic growth can serve as preconditions for gender equality within the human development paradigm, in order to promote women's empowerment, especially in political terms, policy actions specifically designed to address the issue are necessary.

Compared to 1995 when GDI and GEM were first introduced by UNDP, the overall scores of each country on those indices, as they currently stand, are higher. Noteworthy in that regard has been the varied paces of progress made by GDI and GEM, the former rising more rapidly than the latter. Interestingly, however, during the past eight years, the GEM values have been rising faster than GDI. This was because women equipped with adequate education and better knowledge strove to take more active part in core positions of decision-making in both the political and socio-economic sectors,

Comparing the Korean situation with the situations of other Asian countries, it was found that, while Japan and Korea enjoy high GDI levels along with low levels of GEM, the Philippines enjoys high level GEM along with a relatively low level of GDI. Singapore, which might be an ideal case in the Asia-Pacific region, stands 28th in the GDI and 26th in the GEM scales. To compare Korea with Singapore, both countries are at a similar GDI level: Singapore holding the 28th rank and Korea the 30th rank. Yet, when it comes to GEM, Korea lags far behind Singapore: Korea is at the 63rd place while Singapore is at the 26th. Singapore, among five Asian countries, has made the greatest advance in the GEM ranking since 1995 when the index was first introduced. It is safe to assume that such outcome was a result of Singapore's national policy initiative.

The gap between Korea's GDI and GEM ranks is the greatest worldwide, and it is attributable to the low percentage of women in the parliament, female legislators, senior officials and managers put together. In order to narrow the gap between two indicators, it is essential that stronger emphasis is placed on gender equality in the political and economic sectors in addition to the health and education sectors. In a general election held in 2004, a much higher ratio of female candidates than hitherto was guaranteed, as was the case in public and private corporations, which will help women ladder up to high-ranking positions in the country's hierarchy of power as well as on UNDP's GEM scale.

## IV. Korean Women's Economic Activities and Human Development

1. Comparison of the GEM across Countries
2. Korean Women's Economic Participation and Empowerment
3. Conclusion

In terms of advancing human capacity, an essential feature of human development and women's development alike, Korea has performed well throughout the past decades. In terms of transforming human capacity into effective participation and purposive empowerment, Korea has a considerable distance more to go as yet. In this chapter, by focusing on the components of the GEM (gender empowerment measure) related to economic participation, we will attempt to identify the obstacles to gender equality in Korea. More specifically, by looking at the gender ratios in the occupational categories of 'professionals/technicians', 'administrators/senior officers and managers', and that of female 'earned income' vis-a-vis the male's, we will identify the improvements needed to achieve balanced development through women's economic

participation.

For a start, we will compare the female to male ratios in the indicators of the GEM that are related to economic participation, viz, the ratios of women 'professionals and technicians' and 'administrators, senior officers, and managers' and that of female 'earned income' as a proportion of male 'earned income' in Korea with those in other countries. This comparison will give an objective view of Korea's situation. We will then move on to examine the reality of Korean women's economic participation in order to arrive at an estimation of the level of Korean women's economic status. Finally, we will consider the reasons underlying the low state of women's empowerment in the economic sector.

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## 1. Comparison of the GEM across Countries

Finding out whether progress made in women's capacity has led to women's participation in decision-making is very important not only to individual women but also from the perspective of national human resource management. Korea is a prime example of the countries that enjoy highly qualified human resources but are backward in terms of women's empowerment. This becomes clear in a comparison of the percentages of women's shares in the occupational categories of 'professionals/technicians', 'administrators/senior officers and managers', and in 'earned income' across countries. To do so, we will first examine the logical link between the various indexes relevant to human

development.

As mentioned before, the human development index (HDI) is measured based on three sub-ordinate indexes: life expectancy, level of education and standard of living. As such, HDI is a much broader concept than GDP which is used to measure the level of economic development. The calculation of an income in HDI is based on the premise that achieving a respectable level of human development does not imply earning an infinite income. Furthermore, whereas HRD (human resource development) emphasizes practicality in raising efficiency and productivity through development of human capacity, developing human capacity is the main



purpose of HDI as its explicit function is to enhance the quality of human life. In 2003, Korea ranked 30th among 175 countries in the HDI scale that is based on arithmetic calculations of life expectancy, adult literacy rate, combined gross enrollment ratio for primary, secondary and tertiary (including junior colleges) level schools, and real GDP per capita (Purchasing Power Parity).

The gender-related development index (GDI) is a composite index measuring average achievement in the three basic dimensions captured in the human development index - a long and healthy life, knowledge and a decent standard of living - adjusted to account for inequalities between men and women. By accounting for gender inequalities, GDI measures the degree of realization of gender equality in the human development index. In 2003 Korea ranked 30th among 175 countries in GDI, the same ranking as in HDI. Accordingly, we can at least conclude that human development and women's development go hand in hand in Korea. The levels of Korean women's education and health life were never far behind those of Korean men. However, a closer look at the GEM components, a relatively high level of women's capacity development did not necessarily lead to any significant increase in women's participation and empowerment. GEM is a composite index measuring gender inequality in political and economic participations, which is derived from three key areas of concern and four variables.

The first key area aims to measure women's economic participation and decision-making and is measured by two variables, the female and male shares of 'administrators/senior officers and managers' and 'professionals and technicians'. The second key area aims to measure women's political participation and decision-making and is measured by the female and male shares of 'parliamentary seats'. The third key area is concerned with power over economic resources and is measured in the same manner as for GDI. The GEM value is calcu-

lated by taking a population-weighted average of an equally distributed equivalent percentage (EDEP) of each of the three areas. Korea is a prime example of countries that rank considerably low in the GEM value as compared to the HDI and the GDI values. Especially, in the percentages of women's shares of parliamentary seats, administrators, senior officials and managers, Korea ranked much lower than other countries.

However, after the 2004 General Election, the percentage of women's share of parliamentary seats has rapidly increased from 5.9% (in 2003) to 13%. That accords with a claim that introducing a quota system for women in parliament will enhance women's share of parliamentary seats. Thus, Korea provides a good example of how affirmative action helps to raise the level of women's empowerment. Nevertheless, women's share of parliamentary seats in Korea is still short of the world average, which is 15%, thus women's participation in politics still needs much improvement.

In this chapter, we will examine women's shares of 'economic participation', 'administrators, senior officials and managers' and 'professionals and technicians' and their estimated earned income which are the GEM variables related to women's economic participation. In order to assess the reality of women's economic participation,<sup>11</sup> and decision-making in Korean society and to find ways of enhancing those aspects of gender equality, it would be useful to compare three development indexes mentioned above across countries. By comparing Korea with other countries that have similar HDI rankings (Korea's HDI ranking is 30th in 2003, same as its GDI ranking; hence, only the countries with similar HDI rankings will be considered for comparison), we will demonstrate not only how poor the state of Korean women's empowerment is but also the fact that human development and women's development do not guarantee advancement in the empowerment of women. Moreover, by comparing countries with higher HDI

rankings with Korea's GEM value, it might be possible to evolve visions for Korean women's participation in decision-making and their empowerment. Comparisons of other OECD countries and neighboring Asian countries will also be useful in understanding the situation of Korean women and their GDI and GEM statuses.

First of all, as shown in Figure 4.1, we have compared countries with similar rankings in HDI and GDI. In general, Singapore is the lowest in the gender ratio of economic participation. Korea is a little higher than Singapore but lower than Czech Republic and Slovenia.<sup>12</sup> Based on a comparison with other countries with similar HDI and GDI ranks, we can conclude that Korean women's economic participation is low. Moreover, as far as the female to male ratio in economic participation is concerned, Korean women's shares of professional positions stood the lowest in 2003. In Singapore, women's share of economic participation is lower than in Korea, yet women's shares of comparably higher occupational statuses such as professionals have increased rapidly during 1999-2003. By contrast, the percentage of women's share of professionals in Korea dropped during the same period. However, this was a misrepresentation associated with the change in ILO's international job classification codes. With the error corrected,<sup>13</sup> the percentage of Korean women's share of professionals was 35% rather than 45% in 1999. This represents an almost identical value as the 34% recorded in 2003.

Comparing the ratios of female administrators, senior officials and managers in the countries with GDI rankings that are similar to that in Korea, it was found that the ratio of Korean women's participation in those positions is extremely low. Their share of administrators, senior officials and managers was 4.2% in 1999 and still no more than 5% in 2003. Compared with the 30 percent shares in Singapore, Slovenia and Czech Republic, Korea has much room for improvement that can be attained only through resolute policies such as an 'employment

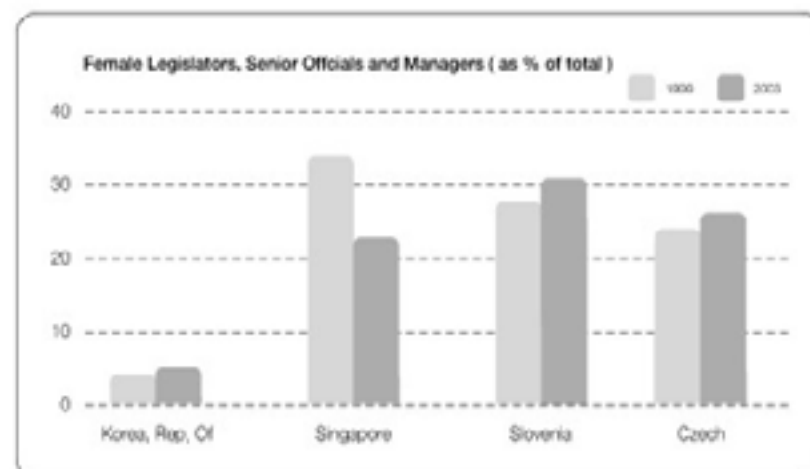
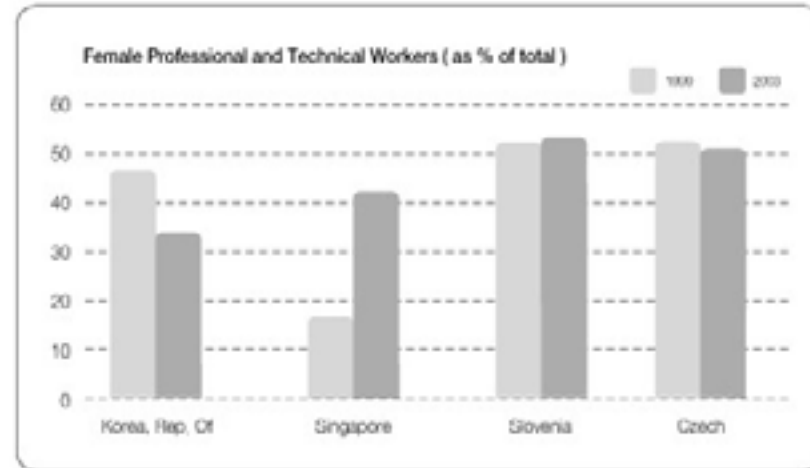
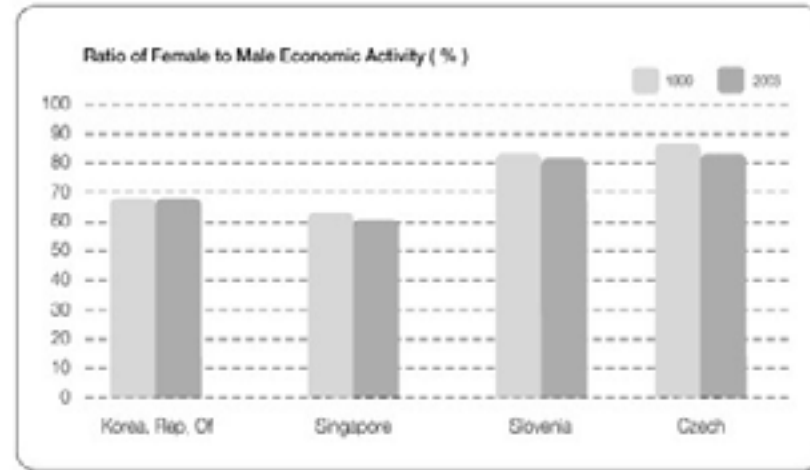
promotion system for women' applicable for the senior civic service and managerial positions.

Presented in Figure 4.2 are the female to male ratios in estimated earned income among countries with similar HDI and GDI rankings. In the case of Korea, the ratio is very low, not more than 50%. In Singapore the same ratio is no less than 50% and, in Slovenia and Czech Republic, they are a little over that of Singapore. As the female shares of earned income are low in all these countries, the problem of income gap between female and male is yet to be solved. As for Korea, there are more problems left unsolved still.

Compared to the 4 countries with top HDI rankings, Korea's level of women's economic participation is strikingly low. As to be seen in Figures 4.3 and Figures 4.4, Korea is next to the Netherlands in terms of low economic participation by women. Yet, in the Netherlands, the gender ratio in earned income is higher than in Korea, indicating that financial outcomes of women's economic participation can differ depending on the quality as well as the quantity of economic opportunities available to them, which is to say that the situation relating to women's economic participation needs to be looked at through both quantitative and qualitative approaches. Elsewhere, such as in Norway or Sweden, the percentage of women's economic participation is very high at 90%. Furthermore the female to male ratio in earned income in Sweden was over 80% in 1999, which seems to show that a considerable degree of substantive gender equality has been achieved in the country's economic sector.

There is a wide difference in the percentages of women's shares in 'administrators, senior officials, and managers' among the four top rank HDI countries. As was the case with the GDI comparison, Korean women's share of mere 5% in 'administrators, senior officials, and managers' represents a stark contrast to the 30% level attained in other comparable countries.

Figure 4.1 Comparison of Countries with Similar HDI and GDI Ranking



Source: UNDP 1990, 2003.

A comparison with OECD countries as shown in Figure 4.5 and Figure 4.6, the very weak economic status of Korean women becomes clear. Among the 28 OECD countries (except France and Luxembourg for lack of data), Korea has the lowest percentage of women's share of 'professionals and technicians'. Although Mexico, Austria, Belgium, and Turkey are countries with lower percentages of women's economic participation than Korea, women in those countries are employed in higher occupational positions than is the case for Korean women. Further, among the OECD countries, Korea has the lowest percentage value in terms of women's share of 'administrators, senior officials, and managers'. The percentage of Korean women engaged in economic activities hovers around or just below the mid-level among the OECD countries. However, the percentages of Korean women's share of 'professionals and technicians' and 'administrators, senior government officials, and managers' are very low. This again points to the need for a more definitive action toward empowering women in the economic sector as much as the need to expand their economic participation as a whole.

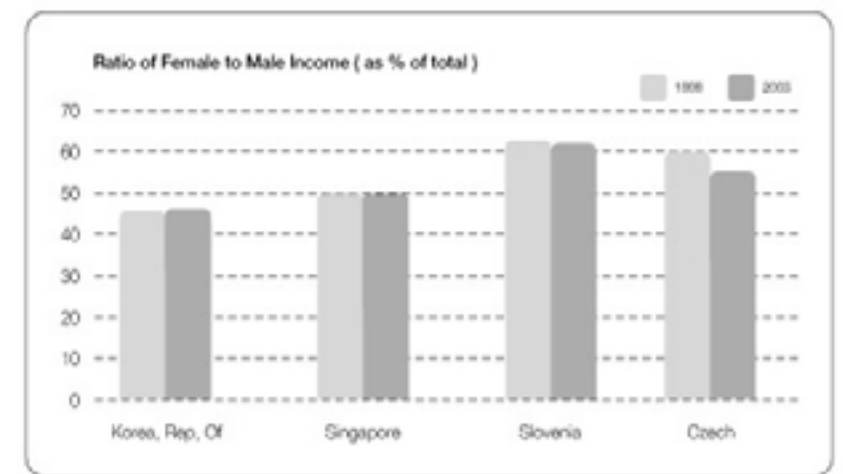
Although Korean women's such reality as just discussed improved considerably of late, Korea still belongs to a group of countries with low economic participation by women, indicating that capacity-building of Korean women did not lead to their empowerment.

At this point, it would be pertinent to make a comparison of the Korean situation with those of its neighboring countries. Regrettably, there is no data for China, so that only those of Japan, Malaysia, Philippines and Korea are used as shown in Figure 4.7 and Figure 4.8. First of all, an observation of note is the preeminence of the Philippines in the subject area. For example, in the Philippines, the female to male earned income ratio has sharply increased from 1995, hence reaching 60% in 2003. By contrast, Korea, Japan, and Malaysia failed to

reach 50% in their female to male earned income ratios even in 2003.

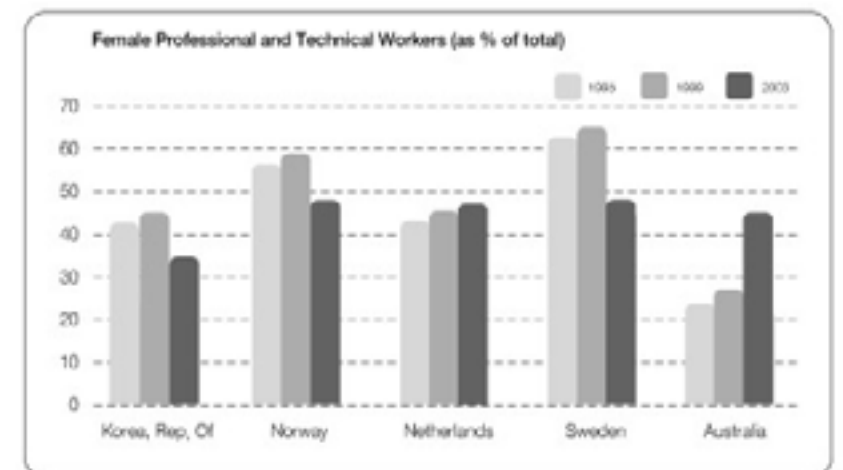
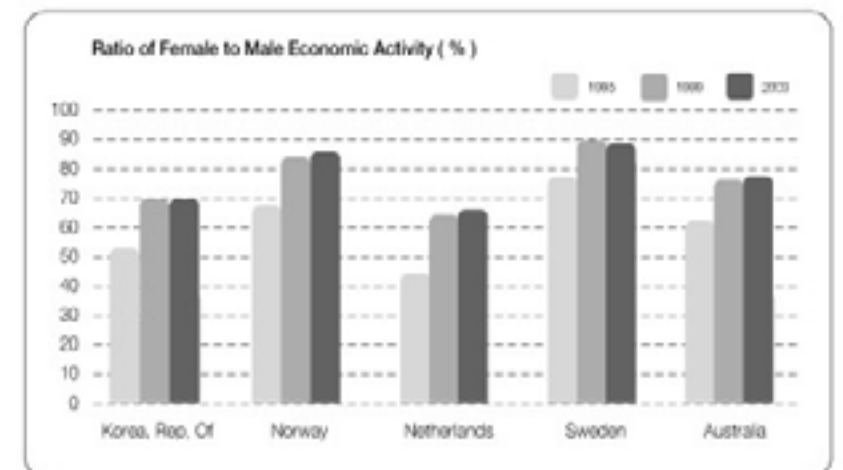
Compared to the Philippines, Korea, Japan and Malaysia as a whole stand very low in the percentages of women's shares of 'professionals and technicians' and 'administrators, senior officials and managers'. In Korea and Japan, especially, women's shares of 'administrators, senior officials and managers' were terribly low. This comparison gives support to the argument that, to enhance women's economic empowerment in the Asian region, radical changes in such cultural norms as the Confucian tradition are urgently required.

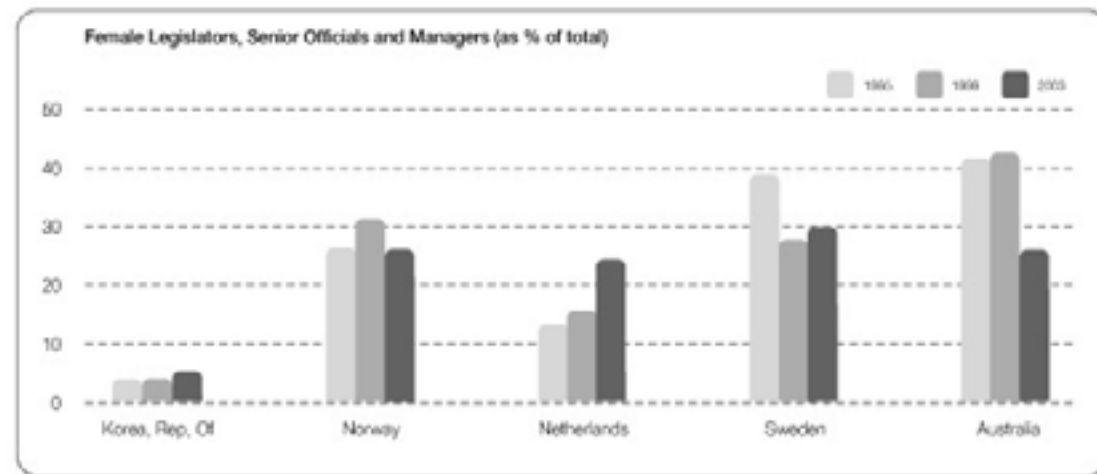
Figure 4.2 Comparison of the Ratio of Female to Male Earned Income among Countries with Similar HDI and GDI Rankings



Source: UNDP 1990, 2003.

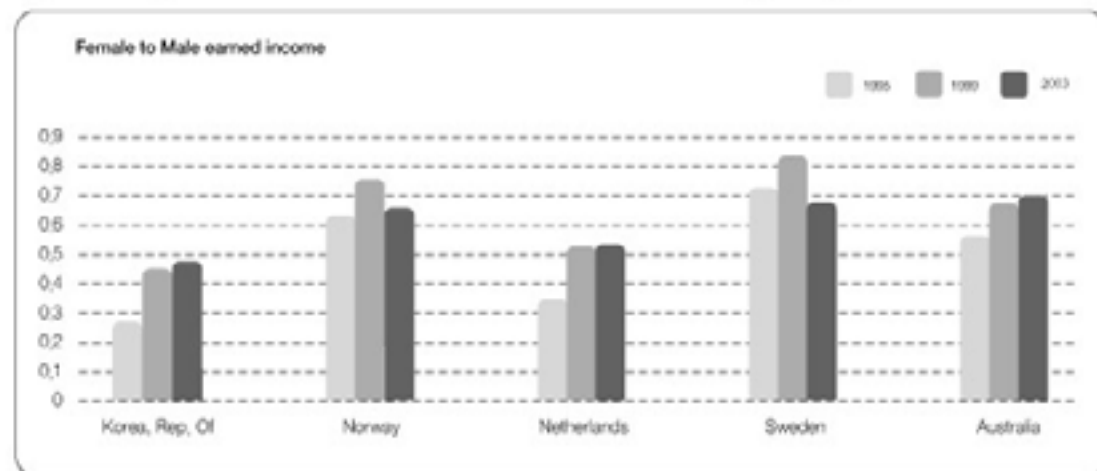
Figure 4.3 Comparisons among the Top 4 Countries in the HDI





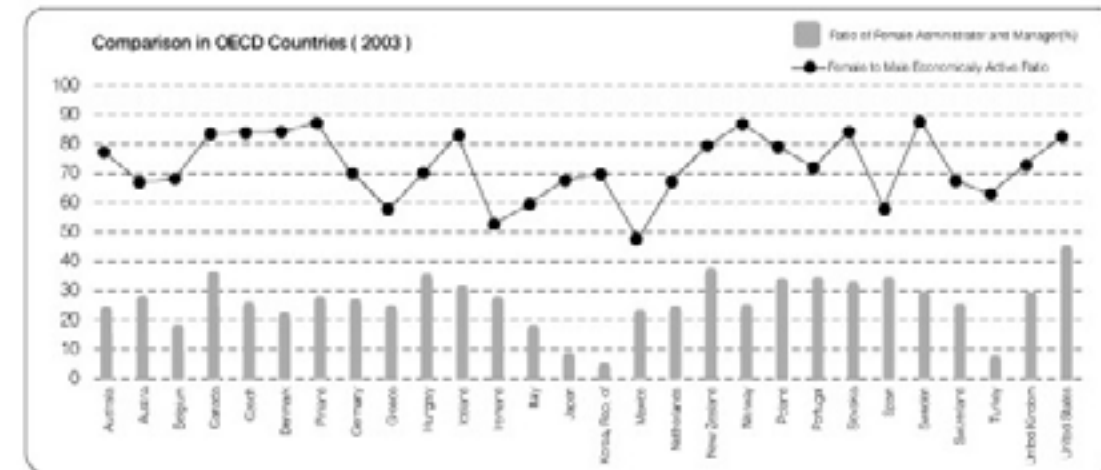
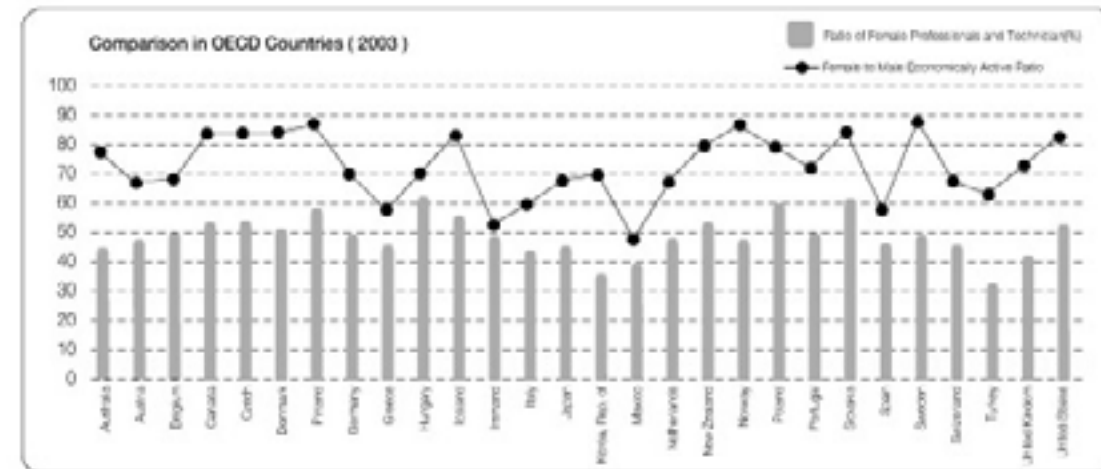
Source UNDP 1995, 1999, 2003.

Figure 4.4 Comparison of Ratio of Female to Male Earned Income among the Top 4 Countries in the HDI



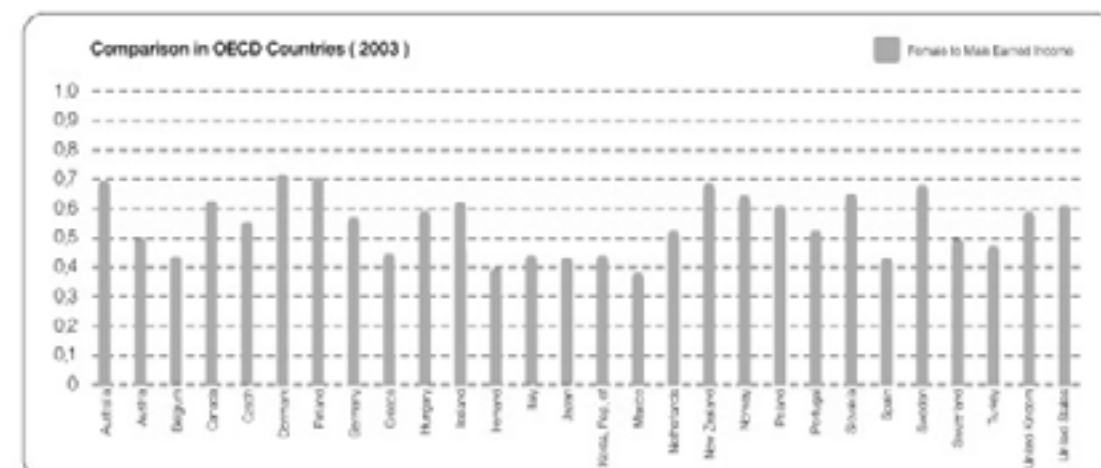
Source UNDP 1995, 1999, 2003.

Figure 4.5 Comparison in OECD Countries



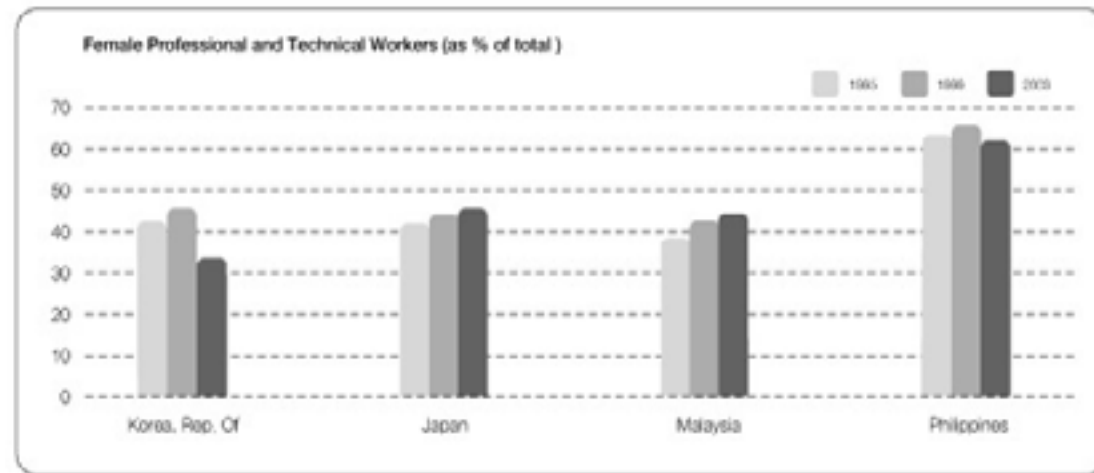
Source UNDP 2003.

Figure 4.6 Comparison of Ratio of Female to Male Earned Income in OECD Countries



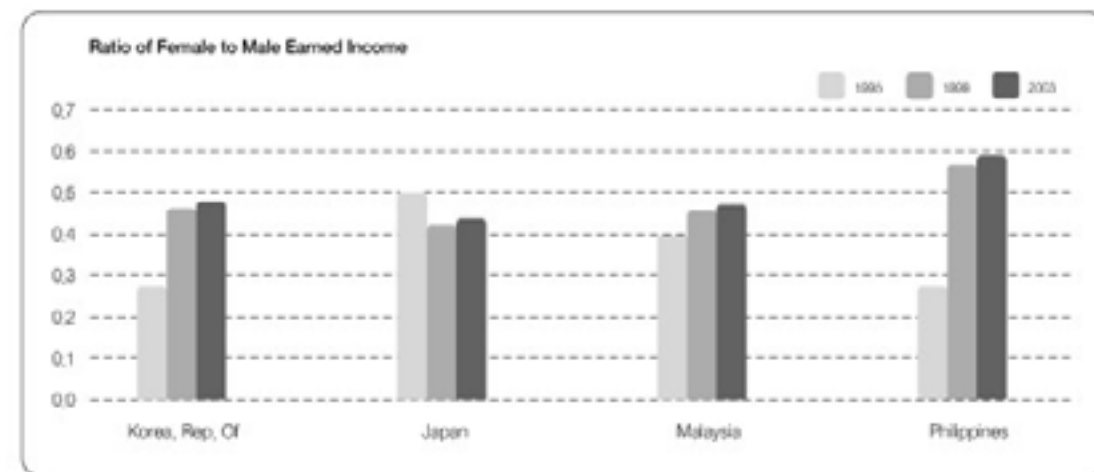
Note: France and Luxembourg are excluded by the lack of data.  
Source UNDP 2003.

Figure 4.7 Comparison between Neighboring Countries



Source: UNDP 1995, 1999, 2003.

Figure 4.8 Comparison of Ratio of Female to Male Earned Income among Neighboring Countries



Source: UNDP 1995, 1999, 2003.

## 2. Economic Participation and Empowerment of Korean Women

Of the indicators used to calculate GEM, women's shares of 'professionals and technicians' and 'administrators, senior officials, and managers' are indicative of the level of women's participation in decision-making. We will therefore use those two indicators to examine the level of Korean women's professionalism and decision-making power in the economic sector. Also, the female to male earned income ratio will help gauge how women's economic contribution has been evaluated. In that connection, GEM's economic indicators, such as the female to male earned income ratio and women's shares of 'professionals and technicians' and 'administrators, senior officials, and managers', will be used to illustrate Korean women's economic status.<sup>4</sup> Based on consideration of possible reasons why Korean women's professionalism, decision-making power, and labour values are underestimated, some basic steps to enhance their economic empower will be proposed.

In Korean society, a deeply discriminatory gender division has existed for a long time and Confucian patriarchal norms remain as fundamental guiding principles to date. Such principles have hindered the enhancement of women's professionalism and fair recognition of women's labour values. With the use of diverse intermediary concepts and ideas, Confucian patriarchal system, an all embracing socio-economic and cultural infrastructure, was developed and reinforced, steadily weakening Korean women's status, not only in the economic sector but in all spheres of life. It is in that context that an attempt will be made to reconstruct the reality of Korean women's economic participation through the use of a concept of 'discrimination'.

In general, economic discrimination can be distinguished into two categories, direct discrimination

and indirect discrimination. 'Direct discrimination' means a person is discriminated according to his or her objective characteristics, such as gender, race and place of origin even though there is no difference in their respective productivity or as human capital. 'Indirect discrimination' is when a person is discriminated in developing or making human capital because of his or her objective characteristics.

Specifically, women are directly and/or indirectly discriminated in the following process. To begin with, women are socialized to accumulate lower human capital than men through the process of their education and upbringing even prior to entering the labour market. Then, women are doubly discriminated since their already low level human capital is underestimated in labour market.

In this section, how women are not considered as full economic participants in Korea will be shown by examining the process of human capital development prior to entering labour market and the discriminatory personnel practices at places of employment.

### A. Pre-labour market: development of women's capacity

'Human capital theory' is used to explain how women participate in economic activities and how women's wages or promotions are determined after employment. Human capital signifies a level of labour productivity of a supplier of labour power. In general, it is expressed in various terms like 'official education, job training, work experience, health, and willingness to move'. Among the types of human capital, education and work experience are the most important factors.

Among the OECD countries, Korea has the lowest percentage of highly educated women participating in economy. To understand this phenomenon, we need to consider not only the supply side of labour but also its demand side. In this paper, we will approach this problem by questioning what 'educational background' means to Korean women. In many societies including Korea, women's education as a means to build-up their human capital was not directly responsive to the kind of human capital required in the labour market. Rather, it was more geared to the kind of human capital sought in their marriages to men of high socio-economic status. Moreover, women's educational background does not necessarily correlate with their actual economic roles. Rather, it often has the effect of contributing to their spouses' promotion or income increase. Table 4.1 shows expected returns or effects of education by 'gender' and 'region'. As for the expected returns of education, 'to get a good job' ranked the highest overall. However, when the responses are separated by gender, there was a difference between women and men: 41.9% of the men answered 'to get a good job' while only 33.5% of the women answered so. Considered by region, this gap grew even bigger, 47.9% (the highest) of the men living in rural area answered, 'to get a good job' whereas only 32.0% (the lowest) of the women living in the urban area did so. To 'develop natural aptitude' received the highest percentage in

women's expected return of education. Therefore, unlike men, expected return of education for women is less likely to be a direct return such as getting a good job.

Each country has its own expected gender role model based on each society's customs. In Korea, a traditional stereotyped image of women as 'wise mother and good wife' still remains in modernized division between public and private spheres. In the still prevalent social norm, men are the breadwinners and various institutions in every part of the society support and reinforce this role model. Although the level of women's economic participation rose steadily in modern Korea, women's economic and social participations do not break away from the established image of women as 'in-house' care giver to family members.

Table 4.2 shows a distribution of college majors by gender. According to the Table, there is a clear difference between men and women in their choices of major fields. While 48.9% of the women chose liberal arts and social sciences, 52% of the men chose natural sciences. In another breakdown, only 8.9% of the men were in liberal arts while 20.8% of the women were in the same field. In arts and physical education (which include dancing) and in teacher training, the percentage of women was drastically higher than that of men. Looking at the gender ratios in various major fields in 2003, it is clear that women are concentrated in liberal arts, medical sciences, arts and physical education, and teacher's education. As shown in Table 4.1, the strongest expected return that women seek from her education is developing their natural aptitudes. To develop natural aptitude means to become well-cultured women. Accordingly, women with college or higher education degrees are concentrated in liberal arts, known as a discipline devoted to nurturing cultivated people, as far as Korea is concerned. In another aspect, there is a high concentration of women in the fields of medical science, education,

and teacher training. 50.8% of the students majoring in medical sciences are women and most of them are in nursing. Although it is classified as medical sciences, there is a hierarchical difference by gender as they approach the labour market.

In the above distribution of majors by gender, the predominance of women in the teaching field, 73.6%, is striking. In Korea, a teachers' college is an institution dedicated to training elementary, middle, and high school teachers. Indeed, such a gender disparity, the predominance of women teachers in elementary schools, is a social problem in Korea. Teachers' colleges are overcrowded with women to the point where the school authorities are obliged to work out a sort of quota system for men. Why are women concentrating so in teachers' colleges? First, although the situation is improving, men do not consider teaching as a proper job because of the low wage it carries and poor career prospect. Second, women prefer teachers training because it guarantees employment after graduation and it has a high job security. Third, in a broad sense, there is

a widely accepted perception in the Korean society that women are best fit as teachers. Such a perception prevails because teaching is looked at as a continuation of care taking of which they are responsible. Similar gender divisions exist within medical sciences where hierarchical gender disparities are conspicuous, such as male predominance in the faculties of medical schools, which is in contrast to the situation of elementary schools where females predominate.

As examined so far, women's expectation of educational returns influences their choices of major fields in universities, and their majors, in turn, influence their economic participation. Table 4.3 shows the employment rates for different majors by gender. The results are similar to those in Table 4.2. Looking at the numbers in 2002, 60.7% of the women majoring social sciences (the most popular choice of major for women) have been employed, while for men majoring natural sciences (the most popular choice of major for men) the employment rate was 65.5%.

Table 4.1 Students' Purpose for Pursuing Education by Area in 2002

		Unit: Percent						
		Total	Good job	Self-Development	Expectation Of Others	Social Advantages	Cultural Development	Others
Whole Country	Total	100.0	37.9	37.3	3.9	11.5	9.0	0.4
	Female	100.0	33.5	39.3	3.0	13.0	10.6	0.5
	Male	100.0	41.9	35.4	4.7	10.0	7.8	0.3
Urban	Total	100.0	36.7	38.5	3.9	11.2	9.3	0.5
	Female	100.0	32.0	40.6	3.0	12.8	10.9	0.6
	Male	100.0	40.8	36.5	4.7	9.8	7.9	0.4
Rural	Total	100.0	44.9	30.8	4.2	12.8	7.1	0.1
	Female	100.0	41.6	32.1	3.3	14.3	8.7	-
	Male	100.0	47.9	29.7	5.0	11.5	5.7	0.1

Source: UNDP 2002.

Table 4.2 Undergraduates by Sex and Major Field of Study in 1985, 1990, 1995, 2000, 2003

		Unit: percent/persons							
		Total	Humanities	Social Science	Natural Science	Medicine & Pharmacology	Arts & Physical Ed.	Teaching Profession	Junior Teachers' College
2003	Total	100.0(1808539)	13.3	27.4	42.3	3.7	9.3	4.0	23552
	Female	100.0(865259)	20.8	28.1	25.7	5.1	13.6	6.7	17324
	Male	100.0(1143280)	8.9	27.0	52.0	2.9	6.8	2.4	6228
	% F	36.8	57.5	37.7	22.4	50.8	53.9	61.5	73.6
2000	Total	100.0(1665398)	13.5	26.7	43.7	3.7	8.3	4.0	20907
	Female	100.0(596389)	21.2	26.7	27.0	5.0	13.1	7.1	15032
	Male	100.0(1069009)	9.2	26.7	53.0	3.0	5.7	2.3	5875
	% F	35.8	56.1	35.8	22.1	47.8	56.3	62.8	71.9
1995	Total	100.0(1187736)	14.0	25.8	44.0	3.8	7.1	5.3	19560
	Female	100.0(378418)	22.9	20.7	28.6	4.6	12.5	10.8	14687
	Male	100.0(809317)	9.8	28.2	51.3	3.4	4.6	2.7	4963
	% F	31.9	52.1	25.5	20.7	38.8	55.7	66.4	74.7
1990	Total	100.0(1040166)	15.0	27.6	40.4	3.9	6.6	6.5	15960
	Female	100.0(296129)	24.5	17.2	27.0	4.8	13.2	13.2	10290
	Male	100.0(744037)	11.2	31.7	45.7	3.5	4.0	3.9	5670
	% F	28.5	48.5	17.7	19.1	35.4	56.8	57.6	64.5
1985	Total	100.0(931884)	16.1	27.7	36.1	5.7	4.2	10.2	18174
	Female	100.0(250088)	25.6	14.6	19.9	13.2	5.2	21.5	13247
	Male	100.0(681796)	12.6	32.5	42.1	3.0	3.9	6.0	4927
	% F	26.8	42.6	14.2	14.8	62.0	32.8	56.8	72.9

Source: Ministry of Education 1985, 1990, 1995, 2000, 2003.

Table 4.3 Employment Rate of college and University Graduates by Sex and Major Field of Study in 1985, 1990, 1995, 2000, 2002

		Unit: percent(Persons)							
		Total	Humanities	Social Science	Natural Science	Medicine & Pharmacology	Arts & Physical Ed.	Teaching Junior/Teachers' College	
2002	Total	66.4(120414)	63.4(117672)	62.5(34771)	63.9(48740)	91.8(3064)	60.4(11906)	65.0(7261)	97.1(4729)
	Female	63.7(62332)	61.9(12118)	60.7(15972)	60.8(15757)	91.7(5311)	60.0(7850)	64.4(5334)	94.6(3438)
2000	Total	66.9(67082)	67.1(5554)	64.1(18779)	65.5(32993)	92.2(3753)	76.8(4056)	66.8(1927)	95.7(1291)
	Female	56.9(104371)	51.0(14270)	54.0(28393)	55.6(39284)	86.2(7212)	58.6(90300)	54.4(6182)	99.7(5185)
1995	Total	53.3(48639)	49.1(9521)	52.5(12182)	51.2(12645)	85.5(3752)	55.0(5912)	53.0(4827)	99.8(4090)
	Female	58.6(55732)	55.5(4749)	55.3(16211)	57.9(26639)	87.0(3460)	66.8(3118)	58.9(1555)	99.5(1095)
1990	Total	60.7(97290)	62.6(13144)	70.5(25374)	72.7(30673)	84.1(5067)	65.2(8634)	61.3(8078)	91.9(2705)
	Female	59.3(34663)	57.4(7658)	59.6(6464)	55.7(9314)	87.8(2372)	60.8(4460)	58.5(4395)	92.8(2408)
1985	Total	77.2(82527)	71.7(5486)	75.0(19910)	80.2(30359)	81.1(2715)	74.9(2474)	69.7(1683)	87.0(387)
	Female	61.8(79975)	51.4(11313)	64.1(22973)	65.5(29004)	89.9(5298)	54.1(4654)	53.4(6773)	97.4(4883)
1980	Total	47.3(22876)	41.6(5368)	43.2(3374)	43.8(4602)	86.7(2330)	49.9(3037)	49.8(4165)	98.8(2962)
	Female	70.5(57000)	65.4(5045)	60.9(10508)	72.2(24402)	92.7(2538)	64.5(1607)	60.3(2608)	95.0(1721)
1985	Total	63.9(48552)	52.9(6153)	71.5(12879)	71.0(17431)	93.9(3293)	49.4(2607)	47.5(6188)	87.6(1192)
	Female	41.5(12732)	37.5(2568)	31.9(1230)	34.8(1870)	96.8(1493)	43.8(1916)	42.2(3676)	92.8(1078)
1985	Total	79.1(35820)	74.8(3585)	82.4(11640)	81.2(15561)	91.8(1830)	76.1(891)	58.2(2513)	57.7(116)
	Male								

Source: Ministry of Education 1985, 1990, 1995, 2000, 2003.

In 2002, women's employment rate is 3.2% lower than men's. Although the gap is minute, a detailed analysis focusing on the employment rates by major indicates that the gap is increasing. As mentioned above, aside from the majors that support a high rate of employment such as medical sciences, education and teacher training, the gaps between the majors are somewhere around 4% to 10%.

In conclusion, expected social roles for women in Korea are extensions of their domestic roles. And this is fairly evident in women's education. In societies where gender roles exist, women and men enter the labour market following years of already gendered education/training processes. In other words, women and men build up disparate human capitals through gender discriminatory education prior to entering the labour market.

In the previous sections, it was pointed out that, through a discriminatory education prior to entering labour market, women tend to build up disparate human capitals than do men. It was also pointed out that while some fields such as medical sciences and teacher training are conducive to securing professional employments, women majoring in liberal

arts and social sciences are not favorable labour suppliers in the market. The economic participation rate of Korean women with higher education is peculiarly low, a very unusual phenomenon among OECD countries. According to Figure 4.9, the female employment rate of the 'college degree and over' group is similar to the 'high school' group in Korea while, in other countries, that rate is much higher for the 'college degree and over' group than for the high school group. In Korea, the percentage of employed women with higher education is quite low compared with the overall employment rate among women aged 30-44. In 1995, the female employment rate of the 'college degree and over' group was more than 70% in most of the OECD countries. There are many countries with rates more than 80% or 90%. However, in Korea, the rate is no more than 49%.

### B. Women's economic status after entrance into the labour market

It was stipulated in the foregoing that, in terms of human capital build up prior to their entry into

labour market, women usually receive the kind of education that is disadvantageous to them as they try to pursue a career. Women get absorbed into the labour market with somewhat 'degraded' socialization experiences. In this part, the causes and actual conditions that enter into the underestimation of their professionalism and their abilities to create economic values that are accountable in the labour market.

### D. Female economic participation rate

The economic participation rate of Korean women is shown in Table 4.4. As indicated earlier, men's economic participation rate has slightly decreased from 76.4% in 1995 to 74.6% in 2003 while women's economic participation rate has slightly increased from 48.4% to 48.9% during the same period. Nevertheless, women's rate is still very low compared to those in many of the Western countries. Women's economic participation rate

can increase when social conditions encouraging such participation exist and policies supporting it, such as provisions enabling women to pursue both a career and a family life without undue stress, come into being.

It will be useful to examine the actual condition of women's economic participation by the level of education in coming to grips with the overall characteristics of women's economic participation. As shown in Table 4.5, education, one of the indicators that closely bear on the characteristics of women's economic participation, appears to have a rather different impact from the presupposition of the human capital theory.

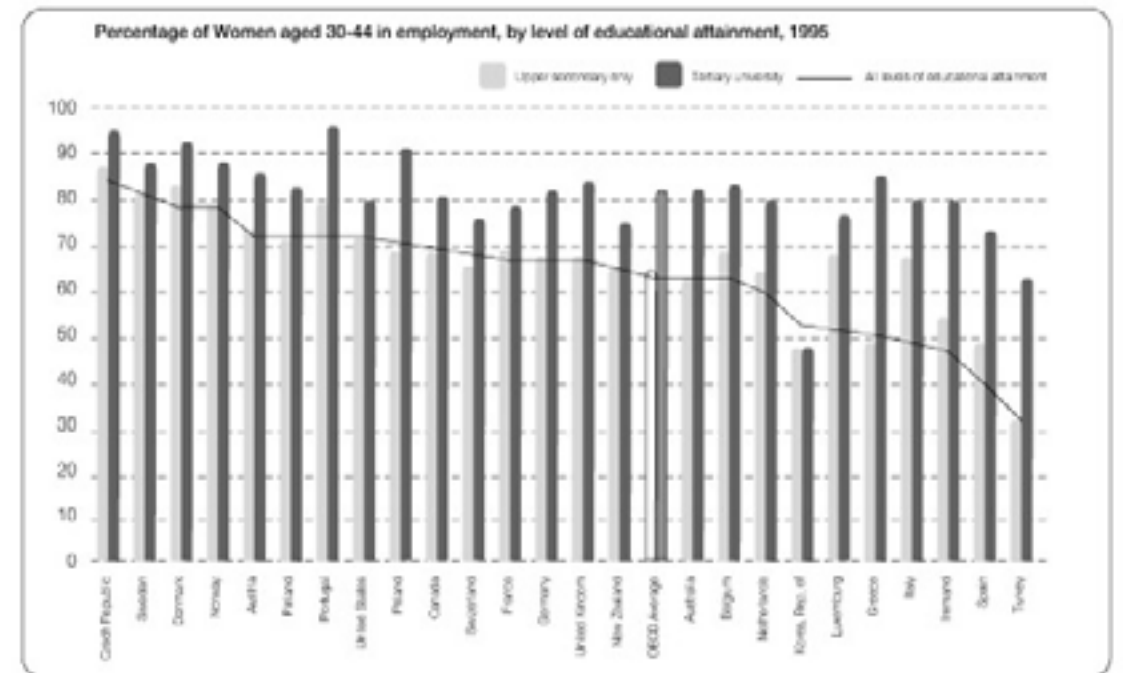
Considering the rate of women's economic par-

Table 4.4 Economic Participation Rate in 1995, 2000, 2003

Participation(%)	1995	2000	2003
Total	61.9	61	61.4
Male	76.4	74.2	74.6
Female	48.4	48.6	48.9

Source: National Statistical Office 1995, 2000, 2003a.

Figure 4.9 Percentage of Women aged 30-44 in Employment by Level of Educational Attainment



Source: OECD 1995.

Table 4.5 Economically Active Population by Educational Attainment and Sex in 1990, 1995, 2000, 2002

	Economically Active Population		Participation Rate		Unemployed Population		Unemployment Rate	
							Unit: Persons, Percent	
	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male
2002								
Total	9466	13411	49.7	74.8	241	467	2.5	3.5
Middle Sch. & Under	3507	3047	43.1	57.3	50	89	1.4	2.9
High School	3887	6317	51.4	78.2	120	238	3.1	3.8
Junior College	884	1108	66.4	92.6	39	54	4.4	4.9
College & Over	1187	2940	59.1	88.4	32	86	2.7	2.9
2000								
Total	9000	12950	48.3	74.0	233	597	3.3	4.6
Middle Sch. & Under	3821	3315	43.6	57.8	61	151	2.1	4.6
High School	3518	6034	49.4	78.5	149	304	4.2	5.0
Junior College	686	903	64.4	91.9	36	57	5.2	6.3
College & Over	974	2898	57.8	87.3	27	84	2.8	3.1
1995								
Total	8363	12433	48.3	76.5	139	280	1.7	2.3
Middle Sch. & Under	4003	3775	41.6	62.3	25	60	0.6	1.6
High School	3254	5833	50.2	81.2	77	149	2.4	2.6
Junior College	424	655	63.5	94.2	20	23	4.7	3.5
College & Over	682	2169	57.9	93.9	17	47	2.5	2.2
1990								
Total	7509	11030	47.0	74.0	133	321	1.8	2.9
Middle Sch. & Under	4497	4398	45.6	63	25	75	0.6	1.7
High School	2371	4883	47.5	80.0	74	166	3.1	3.5
Junior College	231	420	66.2	93.5	10	19	4.3	4.5
College & Over	49	1530	53.1	93.2	24	61	5.9	4.0

Source: National Statistical Office 1990, 1995, 2000, 2002.

participation by degree of education in 2002 (see Table 4.5), the 'junior college' group shows the highest rate of economic activity while the 'middle school and under' group does the lowest. The 'college degree and over' group of women stands lower than the 'junior college' group for both the economic participation rate and unemployment rate. As for the unemployment rate, the junior college group has the highest rate of 4.4%. And the college degree and over group's rate is lower than the high school group's. Unlike men, in general, women as labour suppliers show a high probability of switchover to non-economic status immediately after their withdrawal from the labour market. Rather than remaining as unemployed seeking job, women take a non-economic status. To consider the supply side of labour first, women unable to bear the 'dual burden' originated from the notion of gender division of labour choose to withdraw from the labour market during a certain period of life-cycle either volun-

tarily or non-voluntarily. From the demand side of labour, barriers such as lack of labour market fit for women and discrimination against women in employment have left women discouraged and unemployed. In the end, women tended to withdraw from the labour market entirely.

Such state of Korean women with higher education due, in part, to sexual discrimination in the labour market represents not only a waste of human capital resources at the national level, but also a waste of life and work experiences of the individuals concerned. There is a clear difference between such state of things and the situation that prevails in the United States where the long economic boom during 1980-1998 is attributed to active recruitments of women resources. Until the end of the 1970s, Korea was faced with over-employment of male workers and employers never felt strong need to hire female workers, especially, married women with higher education. Rather than face the

poor working conditions resulting from lack of a proper market for highly educated women, most of them chose to stay home. Furthermore, owing to strong social norms that reinforce gendered division of labour in both the domestic and external employment contexts, women were forced to accept traditional employment practices such as 'marriage bar'. And thus the prejudice of considering women's labour as secondary and temporary continued.

## 2) Occupation of women: 'professionals and technicians' and 'administrators and managers'

Table 4.6 shows a distribution of various occupations held by men and women. Given the distribution, there is no question that Korean women and men are absorbed into a divided labour market upon employment and that the segments of the divided market are mutually exclusive. Among the occupations, 'sales and service workers' and 'unskilled workers' show higher concentration of women as compared to men. However, the ratio of female employees falls abruptly when it comes to high status occupations such as 'legislators, senior officials and managers'. It is this ratio that is used by UNDP in calculating the GEM value. The combined proportion of women's shares in those categories of occupations was merely 5.9% in 2003. That meant men held more than 94% of the positions for administrators and managers, indicative of an extreme gender inequality.

Women's share in the category of 'professionals, technicians and associate professionals', however, was higher than in the case of the immediately preceding one. We used the percentage for 'professionals, technicians and associate professionals' when calculating the 'professionals and technicians' rate for GEM. In this occupation, women's share was 39.2% in 2003. Thus, women's shares in the professional and technical occupations seem high compared with that in the administrators and

managers category. However, a closer look reveals a different picture. That is, considering that associate professionals like teachers and nurses, who are seen as secondary and subsidiary, are mostly women, the prospect of women's advancement into professional fields seems not so optimistic.

Nevertheless, the most serious problem related to Korean women's economic empowerment is the

Table 4.6 Workers by Occupation and Sex

	Unit: 1,000 Persons (Percent)	
	2000	2003
Total	21166	22139
0. Legislator, Senior Officials & Managers	466(2.20)	697(2.70)
1. Professionals	1403(6.63)	1702(7.69)
2. Technicians & Associate Professionals	2074(9.80)	2140(9.67)
* Professional, Technical, Adm. & Managerial Workers	3942(18.63)	4440(20.06)
3. Clerks	2512(11.87)	3172(14.33)
4. Service Worker	2675(12.64)	2735(12.35)
5. Shop & Market Sales Worker	2829(13.38)	2835(12.81)
* Service & Sales Workers	5600(26.00)	5570(25.16)
6. Skilled Agri. and Fishery Workers	2116(10.00)	1834(8.28)
7. Craft & Related Trade Workers	2688(12.71)	2407(10.87)
8. Plant and machine Operators & Assemblers	2292(10.83)	2387(10.78)
9. Elementary Occupations	2107(9.96)	2329(10.52)
* Craft, Plant, Machine Operators & Elementary Workers	7087(33.50)	7123(32.17)
Male	12367(58.45)	13031(58.86)
0. Legislator, Senior Officials & Managers	442(3.57)	562(4.31)
1. Professionals	787(6.36)	926(7.10)
2. Technicians & Associate Professionals	1487(12.00)	1412(10.84)
* Professional, Technical, Adm. & Managerial Workers	2717(21.93)	2890(22.25)
3. Clerks	1227(9.91)	1676(12.86)
4. Service Worker	860(6.94)	883(6.78)
5. Shop & Market Sales Worker	1277(10.31)	1301(9.98)
* Service & Sales Workers	2137(17.25)	2184(16.76)
6. Skilled Agri. and Fishery Workers	1131(9.13)	1005(7.71)
7. Craft & Related Trade Workers	2066(16.67)	1972(15.13)
8. Plant and machine Operators & Assemblers	1987(16.04)	2082(15.98)
9. Elementary Occupations	1124(9.07)	1213(9.31)
* Craft, Plant, Machine Operators & Elementary Workers	5176(41.79)	5267(40.42)
Female	8799(41.45)	9108(41.14)
0. Legislator, Senior Officials & Managers	23(0.26)	35(0.38)
1. Professionals	616(7.01)	777(8.53)
2. Technicians & Associate Professionals	587(6.63)	728(8.00)
* Professional, Technical, Adm. & Managerial Workers	1226(13.98)	1541(16.92)
3. Clerks	1285(14.65)	1496(16.43)
4. Service Worker	1815(20.70)	1852(20.33)
5. Shop & Market Sales Worker	1549(17.60)	1535(16.85)
* Service & Sales Workers	3464(39.36)	3387(37.19)
6. Skilled Agri. and Fishery Workers	984(11.22)	829(9.09)
7. Craft & Related Trade Workers	623(7.10)	435(4.78)
8. Plant and machine Operators & Assemblers	305(3.48)	305(3.35)
9. Elementary Occupations	983(11.21)	1116(12.25)
* Craft, Plant, Machine Operators & Elementary Workers	1911(21.73)	1866(20.38)

Source: National Statistical Office 2001, 2003a.

Table 4.7 Women Workers in Public Enterprises (March 2000)

		Unit: Persons (Percent)										
		Official	Staff								Temp/Excepted Service	Total
			1st	2nd	3rd	4th	5th	6th & Under	Others			
Invest Agency	Total	166	602	1,957	6,449	14,900	1,070	19,396	10,090	8,015	62,735	
	Male	156	602	1,955	6,402	14,569	885	18,744	9,485	3,844	56,642	
	Female	10	0	2	47	421	185	652	605	4,171	6,093	
	% F	6.0	0.0	0.1	0.7	2.8	17.3	3.4	6.0	52.0	9.7	
Financing Agency	Total	94	421	1,518	6,238	14,929	16,722	12,022	1,350	4,615	57,909	
	Male	94	420	1,507	6,075	13,637	13,207	10,941	1,056	2,421	48,667	
	Female	0	1	11	163	1,292	3,415	1,081	295	2,194	9,242	
	% F	0.0	0.2	0.7	2.6	8.7	20.4	16.5	21.9	47.5	16.1	

Source: Kim Young Ok 2000.

very small proportion of female administrators and managers for the following reason,

Consider the case of female managers in public enterprises, for example, As shown in Table 4.7, the total number of employees in 214 public enter-

prises and government-funded institutions is estimated to be just over one million, or about 10% of the total number of employees in public enterprises and institutions. Scrutinizing the distribution of ranks held by women in public enterprises, one finds that the percentage of women in "general manager" positions (level 3) and up is only 0.5% while that in temporary and excepted service positions is 52.0%. As for the positions with office rank level 6 and down, women's share is 90% as compared to 56.8% men's share, revealing a poor employment structure for women. In the case of Korea Electronic Power Corporation (KEPCO) with a total 34,247 employees, the number of female employees is 2,826 (8.3%) and, of the female employees, 2,132 (75.4%) are assigned to subsidiary office works which carry poor promotion prospect and job insecurity.<sup>51</sup>

Moving on to the situation in the private sector, one finds, as shown in Table 4.8, that over 5.75 million workers are in companies with more than 5 employees. Of them, 1,765,000 (30.8%) were women as in 2000. However, women with an managerial rank are only 5.9% as compared to men's 25.2%. Women holding the positions of chief clerk,

department head, manager or executive took up 17.8%, 6.8% and 5.3%, respectively. Table 4.9 shows a distribution of employees with university degrees by office ranks, which can be used to find out the employment structure of women with higher education. In 2000, among the women workers with university degrees, those occupying positions with office ranks stood at 12.4%, which was higher than the total rate of employment for women. However, compared to the 39.0% share held by men with university degrees, it is still very low. Women's shares of chief clerks, departmental heads and general managers were 12.7%, 6.0% and 5.3%, respectively, indicating that the higher the office rank the lower the women's share.<sup>52</sup>

As mentioned above, Korean women's share of managers is the lowest among the countries compared,

### 3) Earned income ratio of women

The wage gap between women and men is another indicator of Korean women's low economic status. As shown in Table 4.10, the female to male earned income ratio is increasing steadily but still lags behind male earned income. Also, the female to male earned income ratio differs by occupation level. The higher the occupational status the lower the wage gap between female and male. However, due to a very low density of women employed in high positions, the collective remuneration for women is less than half the men's. Furthermore, the gap between the average wages of men and women increases by tenure, which implies that women's work experience is never considered as 'veiled job training or an extension of official education' and hence, not transferred to women's human capital.

## C. Cause of Korean women's inferior economic status and possible solutions

Inferior economic status of Korean women is well demonstrated by the low percentage of women's shares of administrative and managerial jobs and the low female to male earned income ratio. This being the case, what then is the main reason of Korea being a country with the world's lowest women's shares of administrators and managers?

Table 4.10 Average Monthly Wage<sup>1)</sup> by Occupation and Sex and Female-to-Male Ratio in 1985, 1990, 1995, 2000

		Unit: Thousand Won, Percent			
Occupation		Female(A)	Male(B)	% (A/B)	
2000 <sup>2)</sup>	All Occupation	1167	1855	62.9	
	Legislator, Senior Officials & Managers	2289	2890	79.2	
	Professionals	1695	2613	64.9	
	Technicians & Associate Professionals	1370	2013	68.1	
	Clerks	1183	1812	65.3	
	Service Workers & Shop & Sales Workers	987	1414	69.8	
	Skilled Agricultural & Fishery Workers	736	1409	52.2	
	Craft & Related Trade Workers	908	1631	55.7	
	Plant & Machine Operators Workers	962	1556	61.8	
	Elementary Occupations	775	1041	74.4	
1995 <sup>3)</sup>	All Occupation	790	1361	58.0	
	Legislator, Senior Officials & Managers	1889	2271	83.2	
	Professionals	1257	1753	71.7	
	Technicians & Associate Professionals	907	1489	60.9	
	Clerks	845	1390	60.8	
	Service Workers & Shop & Sales Workers	792	1124	70.5	
	Skilled Agricultural & Fishery Workers	673	1032	65.2	
	Craft & Related Trade Workers	645	1203	53.6	
	Plant & Machine Operators Workers	685	1198	57.2	
	Elementary Occupations	595	856	69.6	
1990	All Occupation	388	727	53.4	
	Prof. & Technical	602	962	61.6	
	Adm. & Managerial	1197	1305	91.7	
	Clerical & Related Workers	444	792	56.1	
	Sales Workers	364	647	56.3	
	Service Workers	355	497	71.5	
	Agri., Fishery & Forestry	-	509	-	
	Production Workers	330	668	49.7	
	1985	All Occupation	180	360	50.0
		Prof. & Technical	401	585	68.6
Adm. & Managerial		785	805	97.5	
Clerical & Related Workers		224	447	50.1	
Sales Workers		178	393	45.3	
Service Workers		172	269	64.1	
Agri., Fishery & Forestry		201	343	58.7	
Production Workers	149	291	51.2		

Note: 1) Average Monthly Wage = Monthly Wage + (Annual Special Wage 1/12)

2) Includes Establishment with 5 workers or more.

3) Includes Establishment with 10 workers or more.

Source: Ministry of Labour 1985, 1991.

Ministry of Labour 1995, 2001.

Table 4.8 Employees by Position and Sex in 2000

	Sex		Unit: Persons (Percent)
	Male	Female	
			% F
Total	3,970,067(100.0)	1,765,006(100.0)	30.8
Executive	190,903(4.8)	17,844(1.0)	8.5
Department Manager	183,724(4.6)	10,203(0.6)	5.3
Head of Department	363,039(9.1)	26,552(1.5)	6.8
Chief	149,503(3.8)	32,332(1.8)	17.8
Foreman	114,553(2.9)	16,576(0.9)	12.6
Other else	2,968,346(74.8)	1,661,499(94.1)	35.9

Source: Ministry of Labour 2001.

Table 4.9 University Graduates Employees by Position and Sex in 2000

	Sex		Unit: Persons (Percent)
	Male	Female	
			% F
Total	1,110,443(100.0)	253,640(100.0)	19.2
Official	103,832(9.3)	7,268(2.8)	6.6
Department Manager	92,141(8.3)	6,173(2.0)	6.3
Head of Department	174,540(15.7)	11,121(4.2)	6.0
Chief Clerk	58,497(5.3)	8,496(3.2)	12.7
Chief Workman	4,337(0.4)	488(0.2)	10.1
Non-Position	677,996(61.0)	200,992(87.6)	25.4

Source: Ministry of Labour 2001.



This section will examine the cause of Korean women's inferior economic status and will suggest solutions.

As earlier mentioned, women with higher education are economically underdeveloped in Korea. Coupled with this phenomenon, culture-based discrimination against women in employment still prevails in the labour market. In general, economic researches analyzing the cause of discrimination have focused on the demand side of labour. Causes of discrimination against specific groups may be diverse, but in a broad sense, three kinds of discrimination may be assumed.

First is preferential discrimination, discrimination on the part of some members of the mainstream against fellow members who are communicating with non-mainstream members. In other words, if an employer, a fellow worker, customer, etc., shows a preference or a prejudice against women, for example, any disability incurred by such preference (or prejudice) upon employing a woman should be compensated.

Second is statistical discrimination on the part of employers due to incomplete information on skills and experiences of non-mainstream member, viz, women, in this case. As educational background, school ties, training licenses or certificates, etc. are used to evaluate an individual's level of "capitalization" including productivity, an employer might base his or her evaluation of an applicant on the average norms of the group to which he or she belongs. Based on such statistical assessment, a person from an inferior group is likely to suffer discrimination during an employment process irrespective of that person's actual ability.

The third category of discrimination applies when a labour market is structurally divided on account of diverse demarcations such as 'first labour market' vs. 'second labour market', oligopoly vs. competitive enterprise, internal vs. external, etc. Relying on their dominant market power, first labour market, oligopoly, internal, etc. will have motives to raise

barriers and to keep discriminatory customs to sustain their superior status.

Why then the companies in Korea do not employ women? To explain Korean women's inferior economic status, it is necessary to apply all three categories of discrimination mentioned above. Moreover, coupled with the discrimination trioka is the patriarchal social order, which is based on gender division and services as one of the fundamental causes of Korean women's degraded economic status. The patriarchal social norms influence women as labour supplier, business enterprises as labour user, and the whole social system which mediates the first two, and thus hinders proper assessment of women's professionalism and obstructs their economic empowerment.

Business corporations in Korea restrain women's economic capacity through both preferential and statistical discriminations. It is said that Korean corporations undervalue women's capacity because of their high turnover rate. They downgrade women's in-service training, in part, for that reason and, consequently, exercise male-centered personnel policy in recruitment, promotion, and appointment. Along the similar line, qualities such as lack of professionalism and inability to concentrate on work, which corporations frequently attribute to women, have also been known to underlie corporate bias against women in recruitment. However, such logics are untenable for two reasons. First, women's frequent turnover, lack of professionalism, and inability to concentrate well on work are groundless claims that typically represent statistical discrimination. Moreover, Korean women's labour hours are known to be the longest in the world. Second, we must not forget that female workers have a dual burden to carry, namely domestic labour and market labour. It would be wrong to consider victims of discrimination as persons to be blamed for the problems of inequality. Considering women as persons with low human capital and discriminating them in the labour market on that basis while

imposing to them the burdens of production and reproduction to keep the society going is unjust to say the least from any point of view.

That Korean women have been dual burden carriers comes through clearly in Table 4.11, in which labour hours by gender and by market sector (market and non-market) were compared with those in top three HDI countries.

Korea's long working hours are well known. Even so, Korean women's long work hours exceed the country's national average. In the case of the market labour in 2003, Korean women's working hours were about half of men's. This figure is not so different from that of Norway (60%), the Netherlands (40%), and Australia (50%). However, comparing Korean women's non-market labour hours with those of the top three HDI countries, the result is astonishing. To take the year 2003 as the base year, Norwegian women's non-market labour hours were 1.7 times more than that of men, Dutch women worked 2.4 times more than men and Australian women worked 1.8 times more than their men in non-market labour. On the other hand, Korean women's non-market labour hours were 4.6 times longer than their men's. This figure shows that Korean women are in the worst situation compared not just with the top ranking HDI countries, but also with the top ten OECD countries according to an analysis using time-use data. In fact, a 1999 analysis of time-use data shows that dual-income women have suffered from the effect of

dual burdens and that their absolute working hours per day was surprisingly 553.2 minutes (9 hours and 13 minutes). By reducing her leisure time and performing self-exploiting labour, Korean women in a dual-income family have been enduring the heavy loads of the dual burden for their families.

Examining the distribution of work hours by market and non-market labour, it is possible to infer the Korean social principles that define women's profession and economic contribution. Although women's economic participation has steadily increased in Korea, the characteristic of a very low rate of employment on the part of highly educated Korean women is explicable by the rather strict custom of labour division by gender and the culture-bound prescription that women be exclusively responsible for domestic work.

Moreover, while Korean women strive to exist in spite of the dual burden of productive and reproductive labour, social support systems helping women to cope with both a career and family life are almost non-existent. Daycare facilities at workplaces must be provided and managed by employers to support the employees' childcare under Article 21 of the Gender Equality Employment Act and Article 7 of the Childcare Act. Any workplace with over 300 female workers have to provide a childcare facility as a compulsory requirement and in the case of not being able to provide one due to unavoidable circumstances, the employer must sub-

Table 4.11 Comparison Time Allocation by Sex with other top HDI ranking countries.

Nation	Year	Work time (min)	Market Labour(%)			Non-Market Labour (%)		
			Male(A)	Female(B)	B/A	Male(A)	Female(B)	B/A
			Unit: Minutes, Percent					
Korea	1995	488	56	34	0.6	44	66	1.5
	2003	431	88	45	0.5	12	66	4.6
Norway	1995	445	68	37	0.5	32	63	2.0
	2003	445	64	38	0.6	36	62	1.7
Netherlands	1995	377	52	19	0.4	48	81	1.7
	2003	308	69	27	0.4	31	73	2.4
Australia	1995	443	61	28	0.5	39	72	1.8
	2003	438	62	30	0.5	38	70	1.8

Source: UNDP 1995, 2003.

sidize more than 50% of the costs entailed in utilizing alternative childcare facilities. However, among the 225 workplaces under compulsion by law, only 46 companies (17.8%) managed to provide childcare facilities. It is largely because the existing social support system for women with the dual burden is highly inadequate that women workers are usually forced to terminate her wage work or live on overburdened lives. This phenomenon induces a vicious cycle where employers perform statistical discrimination based on their observations and hence women suffer again. It is high time for Korea to pay attention to Western experiences where much more consolidated family support policies have resulted in a higher participation of women in the labour market leading to increased corporate competitiveness.

Without an adequate social childcare system, it would be very difficult for women to demonstrate her ability and succeed in passing through corporate recruitment and promotion processes properly and

to move up the corporate ladder to administrative and managerial positions. In Korea, the issue of maximizing women resources is more than just a human rights issue. Indeed, there are many foreign companies in Korea that have succeeded in business by employing competent women resources.<sup>7)</sup> More surprisingly, maximizing the use of women resources did not cost much. The reason why world's leading companies are promoting women resources is not because of law or policy. It is because in this knowledge-based society they recognized that employing competent women resources is directly connected to the company's competitiveness, hence they voluntarily improved their human capital management systems. In Korea, we are at a point where a fair evaluation on socio-economic costs of discrimination against women and socio-economic effects of using women resources is urgently needed. In order for a society to be sound, the practices of statistical discrimination based on prejudices against women must come to an end.

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### 3. Conclusion

Korean women have not achieved the level of economic empowerment that corresponds to the level of their contribution to the economy. On all the three economic indicators of GEM, i.e. the female to male 'professionals and technicians' ratio, the female to male 'administrators and managers' ratio and the female to male earned income ratio, Korean women's status is quite low. Besides the gender division within professionals and technicians, the percentage of women among administrators and managers is the lowest among the GEM ranking countries.

A major characteristic of Korean women's labour is poor utilization of highly educated women, which is due to the fact that discrimination against women in employment still prevails in Korean society despite an increase in Korean women's desire to hold a job. Korean women's low share of administrative and managerial jobs is only to be explained given the fact that such positions require the longest period of work experience. Moreover, as the cultural norms on gender roles remain effective, women who are often denied access to inside information of a company and, therefore, are likely to be disadvantaged in the employment context, especially in Korea where an internal labour market is highly developed and with influence.

In the preceding, discrimination against women in employment was explained using concepts like preferential discrimination and statistical discrimina-

tion. In addition, it was pointed out that one of the basic grounds for such discriminatory practices originated from Korean patriarchal norms. Enhancing Korean women's inferior economic status will never be easy when women's share of administrators and managers is strikingly low. But why is it so? First, since most of the administrative and managerial positions are in private companies, it is not easy for the government to implement its affirmative action. Second, promotion to positions of administrators and managers will also never be easy for women because their careers are frequently interrupted on account of their dual burdens, including their productive and reproductive functions.

In order to remedy the situation, it will be necessary to introduce and implement active and consistent policies of social support for women to manage a career and a family concurrently. Moreover, all potential employers as well as Korean society as a whole must come to understand the importance of women's participation and contribution in their business activities, which will not only enhance women's confidence as individuals but also increase corporate competitiveness, which, in turn, will greatly add to national wealth and stability. Until such awareness becomes widespread and accepted, not only individual women but also the government must take every necessary action to turn the existing trends contrary to women's empowerment around.

## **V. Korean Women's Political Participation and Human Development : from 5 to 13**

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1. Introduction
2. Korean Women's Participation in the National Assembly
3. Women's Participation in the 17th National Assembly
4. Conclusion

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## 1. Introduction

From the cradle, Korean women have received unequal social support and still remain as the dispossessed. While women's social participation has succeeded in every sector of the society, political, social, economic and cultural constraints on women still exist due to Korean patriarchal family and social systems. Korean GNP increased to an astonishing degree, from \$75 in the 1960s to \$100,000 in 1995, and it was coupled with rising levels of women's participation in education and economic activities. These positive and remarkable trends notwithstanding, women's participation in the political field in general and the parliament in particular had remained no more than 3% until the late 1990s.

In that context, endeavors to enhance women's political participation proceeded adopting as its base the principle of democracy. As politics focuses itself on how to distribute national resources equally and women make up 50% of the entire citizenry, it was only a common sense that women's representation in politics should be at least 30%. For those who are accustomed to the socio-economic structure in which women are mostly in the private sector and the public political sector dominated by men, women willing to participate in public decision-making can be a challenge and a threat to the status quo favouring men. However, women's

political participation is not only an issue for empowering women but also a democratic cause that cannot be by-passed in the development process of a society as a whole.

Today when women's franchises became a norm in most countries, their empowerment in politics depends on how many women are participating in national decision-making. Hence, the seats in parliament held by women becomes a critical concern.

Until the 17th National Assembly of the Korean National Assembly that commenced in 2004, the parliamentary seats held by women did not quite reach 5%. At the start of the 17th National Assembly, however, the seats increased to an astonishing 13.0%. The world paid attention to such a change because parliamentary seats for women represent a crucial indicator of women's empowerment. In this chapter, the focus is on how the change in the gender distribution in the parliamentary seat has come about in Korea.

In part one, the very dismal condition women politicians faced up to the 16th National Assembly of the Assembly will be delineated. In part two, the new situation and its underlying causes will be examined. Finally, based on the preceding analyses, recommendations for further studies and policies will be presented.

## 2. Korean Women's Participation in the National Assembly

### A. The situation of women National Assembly members (Until the 16th National Assembly),

Seats in the Korean National Assembly are of two distinctive categories: those for the representatives drawn from National Constituency and those for the representatives drawn from Local Constituency. In the National Constituency, the Proportional Representation System has been in effect since the 6th National Assembly, recruiting representatives from every class and level of people. The number of seats from the National Constituency is always subject to change while, in the Local Constituency, in which the Single Member with Majority Votes System is applied, the number of seats is fixed. The most important but difficult procedure for women in running for election is getting a nomination from a political party. In terms of laws and regulations as stipulated in Article 31 of the Political Party Act on candidate nomination, a democratic recommendation is the basic principle and other specific procedures and methods on recommendation are entrusted to the political parties. Since the 2002 General Election, all candidates running for office are elected through a competitive process, even for the presidency.

Article 31 of the Political Party Act stipulates a system of nomination of female candidates for the parliament, such as requiring more than 50% quota for women under the Metropolitan Council Proportional Representation system and, as a recommended provision, more than 30% of women in the Metropolitan Council Constituency. As increasing number of voters consider the political parties as central agents in elections, the role of political parties became critically important. Consequently,

nomination by a political party from the party's base area, coupled with deep-rooted regionalism, became a crucial factor in winning elections. As political parties tend to nominate women only in areas with high chances of winning and as municipalities became increasingly unfavorable to women, political parties are reluctant and quite passive in scouting, developing, nominating, and supporting female candidates and her election campaigns. In the Local Constituency, from the Constituent National Assembly to the 16th National Assembly, there were a total 179 female candidates (1.2% of the total candidates) and 24 female members of the National Assembly (0.8% of the total winners). Among the elected members, only 110 (61.4%) women candidates have been nominated from political parties and even the number of women candidates nominated by the first and second largest political parties with high chance of winning were merely 46, or 41.8% of the total 110 party nominated candidates.<sup>1)</sup>

Similar to the cases of Sweden and Germany, the introduction of the Proportional Representation System in the National Constituency represents, in part, the trend toward a slow increase in the number of female members of the National Assembly (hereafter MNA). However, political parties are still passive in nominating women candidates. A small change was made by the introduction of the 30% quota for women in the nomination for the Proportional Representation System under the Political Party Act passed for the 16th National Assembly. However, since the 30% quota was not a compulsory provision, only the Democratic Party observed the Act. Hence, the number of women MNAs increased two fold to 5.9% from the 15th to the 16th NAs.

Table 5.1<sup>2)</sup> shows the percentage of women MNAs from the 1st National Assembly until the 17th in 2004. According to the table, the number of women MNAs was very low until the 8th Assembly and seems to have increased just a little to 12 members in the 9th Assembly and 9 members in the 11th, then dropped down to 2% in the 13th. We can explain that the number of seats of the NA held by women have increased comparatively during the periods of military regimes and decreased after democratization. This was because, during the military regime, many women members were elected by the Proportional Representation System, but under the civilian governments not many women could be elected through the free competitive election system. After introducing the Proportional Representation System for the National Constituency in the 16th National Assembly in the year 2000, the number of women MNAs increased 10 times to 39 (13.0%) in the 17th in 2004. The election result for the 17th National Assembly will be reviewed in next chapter.

Table 5.2 is a comparison of the female to male MNA ratios from the 6th Assembly to the 17th covering the National and Local Constituencies. Aside from the 17th Assembly, women's share of the parliamentary seats was very low with 6% for the Local Constituency and 5% for the National Constituency. This is very insignificant. However, in the general election for the 16th National Assembly, women's share of candidates for the National Constituency rose to 22.8% owing to the introduction of 30% quota for women in nomination. Nonetheless, women's share of MNAs was only 10.7%. Comparing the two constituencies, women's share of candidates and MNAs from the Local Constituency is far lower than that from the National Constituency, which shows that exclusion of women from politics is more serious at the local level. The percentage of women's share is very low not only for the Local Constituency sector of the National Assembly but also in municipal councils

Table 5.1 Seats in the NA held by Women since the 1st National Assembly

	Total parliaments	Unit : Person, %	
		Female parliaments	F %
1st (1948)	200	1	0.5%
2nd (1950)	210	2	1.0%
3rd (1954)	200	1	0.5%
4th (1958)	233	3	1.3%
5th (1960)	175	2	1.1%
6th (1963)	175	2	1.1%
7th (1967)	202	3	1.5%
8th (1971)	204	5	2.5%
9th (1973)	219	12	5.5%
10th (1978)	221	8	3.6%
11th (1981)	276	9	3.3%
12th (1985)	276	8	2.9%
13th (1988)	290	6	2.0%
14th (1992)	299	6	2.0%
15th (1996)	299	9	3.0%
16th (2000)	273	16	5.9%
<b>17th (2004)</b>	<b>299</b>	<b>39</b>	<b>13.0%</b>

Source: MOGAM, 2003.

and governments.

In the election for local councils, the Single-Member Constituency System was the basic principle and the Proportional Representation System was combined for the metropolitan councils. Until the 16th National Assembly, the seats of Proportional Representatives were no more than 10%. In the 17th, with the revision of the Election Act, that category seats increased to 18.7%, adding 10 more seats. To take into account the Korean women's participation in local councils, the Proportional Representatives, at 36.5%, was much higher than the 2.3% of the Local Constituency candidates in 1998.

Table 5.3 shows the figures for women's participation in municipal elections. Korean Municipalities have gone by an integrated election system since 1995 and have carried out three elections. The Municipalities are composed of 16 metropolitan Shi/Do (similar to city and province) councils and 232 local Shi/Gun/Gu councils (similar to city, county, and district). Governors and council members in 16 metropolitan Shi/Dos and 232 local Shi/Gun/Gus hold office for four years. As shown in Table 5.3, women's participation in local coun-

Table 5.2 Comparison of the Female to Male Ratio of Candidates Winning the Election

	Unit: Persons, %											
	Local Constituencies						National Constituencies					
	No. Of Seats	Male candidates	Male winners(%)	Female candidates	Female winners(%)	%of female candidates	No. Of Seats	Male candidates	Male winners(%)	Female candidates	Female winners(%)	%of female candidates
6th	131	843	130(15.5)	4	1(25)	0.4	44	151	43(28.5)	3	1(33.3)	1.9
7th	131	698	130(18.6)	4	1(25)	0.6	44	115	42(36.5)	4	2(50)	3.4
8th	153	575	153(26.7)	2	0	0.3	51	114	46(40.4)	7	5(71.4)	5.8
9th	146	337	144(42.7)	2	2(100)	0.6	73	77	64(83.1)	10	9(90)	11.5
10th	154	468	153(32.7)	5	1(20)	1.1	77	78	70(89.7)	7	7(100)	8.2
11th	154	625	183(29.3)	10	1(10)	1.8	92	213	84(39.4)	15	8(53.3)	6.5
12th	184	433	182(42)	7	2(28.6)	1.6	92	162	86(53.1)	9	6(66.7)	5.3
13th	224	1032	224(21.7)	14	0	1.3	75	160	69(43.1)	13	6(46.2)	7.5
14th	237	1031	236(22.9)	21	1(4.8)	2.0	62	138	55(39.9)	16	7(43.8)	10.4
15th	253	1368	251(18.3)	21	2(9.5)	1.5	46	139	39(28)	22	7(31.8)	13
16th	227	1005	222(22.1)	33	5(15.2)	3.2	46	108	35(32.4)	32	11(34.3)	22.8
17th	243	1109	233(21.0)	66	10(15.2)	5.6	56	99	27(27.3)	91	29(31.8)	47.9

Source: The Central Election Management Committee Website (www.nec.go.kr)

cils is very low. Specifically, in all three elections, there was no women governors elected for the Broad Local Self-Government chief while four women were elected to Basic Local Self-Government chief and a little over 2% of the members in the metropolitan and local councils are women.

Data on specific cities and provinces have not been examined in detail in the present context because numbers can be meaningless unless

summed up (see appendix for local data in detail). From central to local, the situation of women's participation in politics becomes progressively worse. Even though, in recent times, the rate of women's participation has increased in small numbers, the fact that no women was ever elected to metropolitan governorship and local councils is a very telling problem. Furthermore, the rate of women's participation is dropping in Gun(similar to district and county) more than in metropolitan cities. In the GEM evaluation, only the female seats in the NA were considered, but it should be extended to include female seats in local governments and councils that take charge of substantial local policies. Should this were to be done, Korea's GEM value would probably decrease even more.

Table 5.4 presents the number of female party executives in the main political parties in 1993, 1997, 2000, and 2002. In Korea, with more or less a two-party system, a low women's share of party executives in the ruling party and the opposition party is another big problem. Even worse, with a little increase in women's share of MNAs and administrators and managers, we do not see any particular

Table 5.3 Women's Participation in Municipalities

	Unit: Persons, %			
	Total	Male	Female	% F
3rd Broad Local Self-Government Chief(2002)	16	16	0	-
2nd Broad Local Self-Government Chief(1998)	16	16	0	-
1st Broad Local Self-Government Chief(1995)	15	15	0	-
3rd Basic Local Self-Government Chief	232	230	2	0.9%
2nd Basic Local Self-Government Chief	232	232	0	-
1st Basic Local Self-Government Chief	243	241	2	0.8%
3rd Broad Unit Local Assembly	609	596	14	2.3%
2nd Broad Unit Local Assembly	616	602	14	2.3%
1st Broad Unit Local Assembly	875	862	13	1.5%
3rd Basic Unit Local Assembly	3485	3408	77	2.2%
2nd Basic Unit Local Assembly	3489	3433	56	1.6%
1st Basic Unit Local Assembly	4145	4095	50	1.2%

Source: The Central Election Management Committee Website

trend of increase in women's share of high-ranking party executives. Moreover, considering the fact that the percentage of women's share of district leaders is far lower than that of political affairs committee members, once again we are face to face with the fact that women's political participation at the local level is unacceptably poor.

With the exception of the 17th National Assembly in 2004, women's political participation in Korea has been very dismal throughout. In recent times, scholars and women's groups have been raising questions to address the situation: why is women's participation so low? How can we solve this problem? etc. As a result, 13% share of the seats in the 17th National Assembly for women was achieved. But this cannot but just a beginning and there are so many other problems that need to be tackled. For that reason, it would be salient to examine the reasons why the level of Korean women's political participation has been so low prior to the 17th National Assembly and go on to elaborate on some substantial progress achieved since and what the driving force behind it has been.

### B. The reasons for women's low participation in politics

As discussed so far, Korea's low GEM score is due to the unequal social structure in which women suffers few opportunities for socio-economic and political participation and their wages are low compared to men's even when the work performed are the same in quantity and quality. The low percentages of women's shares of MNAs, administrators and managers are the result of unequal social structure. Indeed, because of discriminations against women found in every corner of society, finding a way to enhance women's participation is far from simple. Nonetheless, it is possible to identify three major reasons for women's low participation, namely Confucian and patriarchal consciousness,

authoritarian political behavior, and legal and institutional biases against women. Of course these three factors are inseparably linked.

Korean women have remained in nonpolitical areas while a deep-rooted consciousness that politics is only for men is widespread in Korean society. Women existed not as a political agent, but as a political object. Women have been excluded from politics because no social system to fairly evaluate women's capacity exists. Coupled with division in gender roles, women are considered to belong in private sector with family and a group indifferent to politics. There is a dominant perspective in politics, which views politics as the conquest or seize of power, with its male-centered origin such a view is undesirable. However, this perspective has influenced in institutionalizing male-centered political organizations. Indeed, closed political organizations have deprived women's political participation from the very beginning, but false consciousnesses such as a deep-rooted thinking that men dominates over women and a disapproval of female politicians also played a role. Since men have monopolized economic rights for a long period, there are not much economic power and political funds left for women to utilize. Furthermore, women have been alienated from independent life through socialization. In

Table 5.4 Number of Female Party Executives in the Main Political Parties (2002, 2000, 1997, 1993)

	Unit: Persons, %				
		Government party		the 1st opposition party	
		Committees	District leaders	Committees	District leaders
2002	Total	98	227	63	227
	Female	5	3	5	3
	%	5.1	1.3	7.9	1.3
2000	Total	41	225	55	225
	Female	6	6	5	5
	%	14.6	2.7	5.5	2.2
1997	Total	60	253	-	-
	Female	3	2	-	-
	%	6.0	0.8	-	-
1993	Total	47	237	65	222
	Female	2	2	3	1
	%	4.3	0.8	4.6	0.5

Source: Each Party

other words, women failed to internalize aggressive and independent attitudes.

In addition, a responsibility-nexus for women taking charge of house works and mothering restricts women from getting away from family life, thus limits women to have political interests and participation. Women are in need of opportunities to learn and debate on political issues and of times and free spaces to express their political interest from one's childhood. Perhaps because of such an unequal socialization, women have been excluded from the politics.

Similar views are also suggested by foreign scholars. As Welch argued that the different rates of political participation between women and men are a result of a structural cause.<sup>51</sup> Heiskanen also commented that social structure combining class relation with patriarchy hinders women's political participation.<sup>52</sup> In reality, women are shackled by housework responsibility hence unable to properly compete with men in public political arena under equal condition.<sup>53</sup> In this connection, there was an interesting case study that showed women who have to take care of children demonstrate lower political participation. In 1974, among 27 women MPs, only two had children under age 10, and the same in 1983. Similarly, in European surveys including Norway, most of the women actively involved in politics had no children or did not need to take care of them.<sup>54</sup> We cannot conclude that the burden of childcare is the most crucial element associated with low level women's participation in politics, but it is very clear in Korea that women's low participation in economy and politics are due to such burden. Due to patriarchal ideology, vote buying election customs, and socio-cultural background that inhibits women's active political participation, the level of Korean women's political participation is very poor. And at the institutional level, regulations concerning the pre-election the election itself, the Political Party Act and other regulations also hinder women from political participation. The pre-election

was introduced to ensure a democratic bottom-up nomination and free competition process. However, throughout the Korean election history, votes were bought to produce block-voting by using money and power. In such context, the pre-election served as a window dressing for superficial democracy that only fulfill the intentions of district party chairs. With insufficient resources to fund the group voting, the so-called democratic institution of pre-election turned into merely a perfunctory political procedure as far as women were concerned.

The Municipality system, introduced in 1990, and the quota system for nominating female candidates, implemented in 1999, served as a watershed in Korean women's political life. However, in the case of the quota for women, indeed there was no institutional support for their participation in the political parties and promoting them to higher positions in the party hierarchies, nor considerations as to who can fully represent women's rights and interests or how to fulfill women's policy lines in the context of party politics. Hence women's under-representation in the political process, leads to distorted and unbalanced decision-making, impairment in the country's political development and waste of human resources.

As discussed earlier, poor political participation on the part of women at the local level is far more serious than at the national level. There might be a supposition that, compared to the big power-centered national level politics requiring huge sums of money and strong organizations, local politics are more favorable to women because women's concerns and abilities have more relevance for agendas directly bearing on people's every day life. However, through several elections, women's participation in the local-level elections has not been as high as that for the metropolitan level ones, or even worse. Thus, unless some crucial changes are made in the Korean election system in which decisions are made based on party affiliation, money and organization than by personal qualities and election

pledges, women's position in local politics, too, will continue to be confined.

For the above reasons, seats of parliament held by women were very few until the 16th National Assembly, but increased in the 17th (2004). The change was remarkable considering that Korea's ratio of women in the parliament was the lowest in the world. Hence, it will be worthwhile to consider the factors associated with the change and what further tasks lie ahead for improving the situation, hopefully to the point of doubling the number of women's seats by the time of next general election.

### 3. Women's Participation in the 17th National Assembly

#### A. Condition of the 17th National Assembly

In the 17th National Assembly election held in April 15, 2004, a total of 299 members (243 Local Constituencies and 56 Proportional Representatives) were elected and 39 among them were women (10 from Local Constituencies and 29 through the Proportional Representative System). As indicated, the number of women represented 13.0% of the total number of Assembly Members elected and signified more than doubling the number of women in the 16th Assembly. This was the highest rate ever in Korea's election history. Although the rate is still lower than the UN recommended 30%, it meant a notable improvement for the country in more ways than just politics.

The causes of the change were as follows: 50% female Quota system among the party candidates inducted through the Proportional Representative system under the revised Political Party Act; efforts of political parties to strategically nominate women even at local levels; change in the voter awareness in keeping with the socio-cultural changes in the country at large; and continued efforts made by

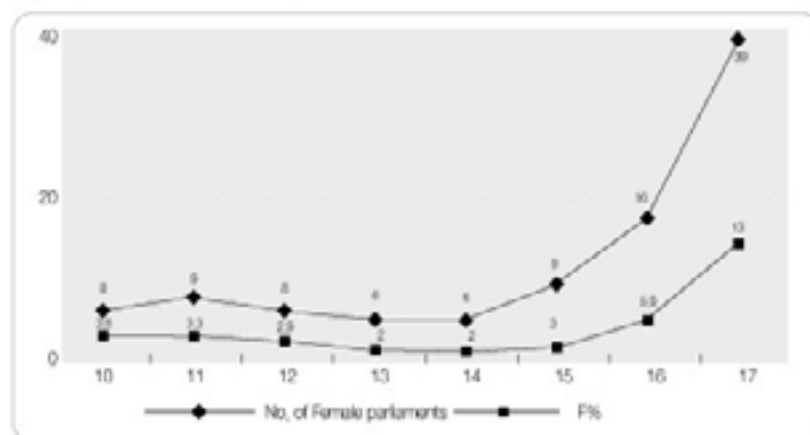
women's organizations.

Figure 5.1 shows the number of National Assembly seats held by women and the percentages from the 10th to the 17th National Assembly. Until the 15th National Assembly, women's share of seats was no more than 10, to increase to 16 in the 16th Assembly, and then to 39 in the 17th!

Under the influence of the presidential impeachment<sup>7</sup> set in motion by the 16th Assembly that roused supporters of the incumbent President, the Uri Party unexpectedly became the majority party in the aftermath of the general election for the 17th National Assembly, and the support for the New Millennium Democratic Party plummeted even in Jeolla Province, its home ground. The number of voters had increased as the presidential impeachment process unfolded just before the election. Unlike in the past elections, leading women politicians (such as Park Geun-hye and Chu Mi-ae) played conspicuous roles during the campaign, which also contributed toward voter increase. The election result was anybody's guess even to the time of vote counts.

In this unpredictable situation, the majority Uri Party and the Grand National Party, the largest opposition party, have nominated women in their leading electoral districts abiding by the 50% quota for women in the Proportional Representative system. In the Uri Party, thrice elected Lee Mi-gyeong and twice elected Kim Hui-seon, Han Myeong-suk, and Jo Bae-suk, assigned to the districts with high chances for winning, were duly elected. Also due to efforts of searching for new faces, Kim Seon-mi won for the first time in Gyeonggi Province. Women now hold a total of 5 seats on behalf of the Local Constituency.

Figure 5.1 Seats and Percentages of Women in the NA



Source: The Central Election Management Committee Website.

The Grand National Party nominated 8 women for the Local Constituency and third-time elected Bak Geun-hye (Daegu, Dalseong) and twice reelected Jeon Jae-hui (Gyeonggi, Gwangmyeong Eul) and Kim Yeong-seon (Goyang, Ilsan Eul) won. Yi Hye-hun (Seoul, Seocho Gap), and Kim Hui-jeong (Busan, Yeonje) at age 33, the youngest member, won for the first time.

As for the New Millennium Democratic Party, due to the backwash of the impeachment it has led, a likely winner, Chu Mi-ae, lost by 4,990 votes and Kim Wan-ja came in 2nd place.

The Korean Democratic Labor Party soared up gaining 13.0% in party votes and won 4 women seats through the Proportional Representatives system, but none of the 12 candidates for the Local Constituency did so, unlike in other parties. However, five of the party's candidates were in 3rd places.

In sum, the number of women candidates for the 17th National Assembly, whether nominated from the political parties or ran as independents in the Local Constituency, numbered 66 in total representing 7% of the total 951 candidates, excluding non-affiliated candidates. This was still short of 30% stipulated by the Political Party Act. To increase the percentage, every effort will be needed, such as improving institutional systems, searching and developing women candidates and activating women's groups even further.

Table 5.5 shows women's share of seats in the

16th and 17th National Assemblies. On it, one notes a marked increase in the number of women Proportional Representatives. It was 23.9% in the 16th Assembly but jumped to 51.8% in the 17th. For the Local Constituency, the number doubled, though still insignificant. Thus, it can be concluded that the percentage of women's share in the NA has increased because of the increase in the number of women Proportional Representatives.

Table 5.6 shows a classification of women MNAs by political party. Elected women MNAs were 50% of the total elected MNAs owing to most parties abiding by the 50% quota for women in the Proportional Representation system. Yet, just five women each of the candidates nominated by the Uri Party and the Grand National Party respectively won the election. Furthermore, those ten members ran in districts with high chances of winning, which means that the competitive power of women candidates in the Local Constituencies is still very weak. Specifically, the Korean Democratic Labor Party was allotted eight Proportional Representation seats by coming in 3rd in the party-based balloting for those

Table 5.5 Seats in Parliament Held by Women

	Unit: Persons, %					
	17th Assembly			16th Assembly		
	Total	Female	%F	Total	Female	%F
Total seats	299	39	13.0%	273	16	5.9%
Proportional representation	56	29	51.8%	46	11	23.9%
Local district representation	243	10	4.1%	227	5	2.2%

Source: The Central Election Management Committee Website.

Table 5.6 Numbers of Women MNAs by Political Party in the 17th National Assembly

Parties	Unit: Persons, %						
	Local constituencies			National constituencies			
	Total candidates	Female candidates	Female winners	Total candidates	Female candidates	Total winners	Female winners
The Uri Party	243	11(4.5%)	5	51	26(51%)	23	12(52%)
The Grand national party	218	83.7%	5	43	21(48%)	21	11(52%)
The Millennium Democratic Party	182	84.4%	0	26	15(57%)	4	2(50%)
Democratic Labour Party	123	129.8%	0	16	8(50%)	8	4(50%)
The United Liberal Democrats	123	7(5.7%)	0	15	5(33%)	0	0
Others	386	20(5.2%)	0	39	16(41%)	0	0
Total	1175	66(5.6%)	10(15.2%)	190	91(47.9%)	56	29(51.8%)

Source: The Central Election Management Committee Website.



seats. However, from among the 12 women candidates who ran in the Local Constituency election (the largest number among the parties), none came out the winner.

The miniscule numbers of women elected from the Local Constituencies of each party are a problem, but even more serious a problem is the fact that only 5.6% (66 members) of the total 1,175 Local Constituency members are women.

Nonetheless, the result of 39 women MNAs (13.0%) is really a surprising achievement compared with the average of six or less women MNAs in the past Assemblies. Supposing that the quota in the Proportional Representation system will be observed in the future, the remaining task will be increasing the number of female nominations and the number of elected women. Furthermore, not only increasing the numbers but also demonstrating how important women MNAs' roles are in dealing with state affairs and how much ability they can show in that regard are the crucial challenges. Their performances will affect the evaluation of future women MNAs.

In the following, we will move on to examining women's substantive participation inside the parliament.

The National Assembly is composed of 19 Committees, each with different agendas. Being a legislative body, its main works are carried out by the committees. How women members participate in the committees is therefore a very important issue. Participations of women MNAs are presented in Table 5.7. Each committee has its specialty and is composed of a chairperson, secretaries and members.<sup>85</sup> Similar to the rate of women's participation in the NA, women's participation rate in the committees is 13.9% and, with the exception of four committees, at least one or more women take part in each of the committee proceedings. The exceptional committees are the Agricultural, Forestry, Maritime Affairs and Fisheries Committee, the Construction and Transportation Committee, the Information Committee, and the Special Committee on Ethics. In the Legislation and Judiciary Committee and the Commerce, Industry and Energy Committee, only one woman MNA is participating. And in the Special Committee on Budget and Accounts, there are only two women MNAs among a total 50 members, leaving something to be desired for women.

Women MNAs hold the position of chairperson in three of the 19 committees, viz, the National Policy Committee, the Culture and Tourism Committee, and the Women's Affairs Committee. It is notable that a woman MNA (Kim Hui-seon, Uri Party) is in charge of the National Policy Committee that deals with overall state affairs. Begun as a special committee for women in 1994 and newly organized as a standing Committee on Women's Affairs under the Ministry of Gender Equality in 2002, the CWA is composed mostly of women MNAs and deals with main women's issues such as childcare, abolition of the Family Registration System, problems of irregular labour, etc. Examining the legislative activity of the Committee on Women's Affairs in the 16th

National Assembly, one notes that it has played positive roles, such as the revision of the Anti-Gender Discrimination Act and legislation of the Sexual Violation Act and the Support for Women Scientists and Technicians Act and demanding a resolution on gender sensitive budgets and data submittals. Those accomplishments contributed to the increase in the number of women Members in 17th Assembly. It is expected that not only the Committee on Women's Affairs but other committees would also actively develop women sensitive legislations.

## B. Reasons for the increased seats held by women in the NA

The sharp 13% increase of women's seats in the 17th National Assembly may be explained by three categories of factors: institutional change, change in the political and social milieu, and positive actions on the part of women's organizations. Multiple elements may have played the role, but most people agree on the quota system for women as the most crucial element. That is, the institutional change was the most important factor.

In detailing the change process, the purpose of the quota system for women and the process of debate around the quota system will be briefly examined first. Next, the contents of institutional laws and regulations related to the election system for the National Assembly will receive attention and, lastly, the pre-election implemented by the main political parties will be considered. Suh Hyeon-jin, in her research (2004), concluded that the decisive element in the increase of women's share of parliamentary seats was 'whether or not [the women candidates] had party nomination'. It means that in winning the election, party nomination and party support are more important than a candidate's personal ability or background. The pre-election is one of the most important institutions for increasing women's seats in the NA for that reason.

### 1) Institutional factors

The quota for women was introduced with the following rationale:

*It is recognized that low political participation of women today may lead to the makings of distorted and unequal policies and hinder any chance of women to contribute to the society thus to the social development the country resulting in a waste of human resources. Therefore, the introduction of the quota system for women in candidate nomination is to establish gender equality and democratic political development through equal participation of men and women.*<sup>86</sup>

In other words, the quota system for women is a means to reduce existing discrimination against women and to give priority to the membership of specific gender until their quotas reach a certain level.

The quota for women is a worldwide trend in attempts to improve women's low political representation and also a national agenda mandated by law and national policy. Nevertheless, the subject has not been widely publicized and, due to lack of social consent, there is a dissenting opinion accusing it as a reverse discrimination. Unlike enhancement of women's status in other areas, there is still a strong belief that politics is men's business and, therefore, women's political participation is improper. Hence arises the importance of creating a consensus on the quota for women and efforts to back it up with institutional arrangements. Another background related to the introduction of the quota is the empowerment of women. In every democratic decision-making process, a 'significant number' of people is crucial in arriving at decisions to deal with the agenda. Prior to the 3rd local elections in March 2002, 50% female quota (1 for female out of every 2 slots on the ordered list) in the nominating of Proportional Representatives for the National Assembly and 30% female quota in the nomination

Table 5.7 Numbers of Women Participating in the NA committees in the 17th National Assembly

Committees	Capacity	Unit: Persons	
		Female Participation	%F
House Steering Committee	21	1	19.0
Legislation and Judiciary Committee	15	1	6.7
National Policy Committee	22	5	22.7
Finance and Economy Committee	25	4	16.0
Unification, Foreign Affairs & Trade Committee	26	3	11.5
National Defense Committee	18	3	16.7
Government Administration & Home Affairs Committee	24	3	12.5
Education Committee	19	4	21.1
Science, Technology, Information & Telecommunication Committee	20	3	15.0
Culture & Tourism Committee	23	4	17.4
Agriculture, Forestry, Maritime Affairs & Fisheries Committee	22	0	0
Commerce, Industry & Energy Committee	22	1	4.5
Health & Welfare Committee	20	6	30.0
Environment & Labour Committee	16	2	12.5
Construction & Transportation Committee	26	0	0
Intelligence Committee	12	0	0
Women's Affairs Committee	16	12	75.0
Special Committee on Budget & Accounts	50	2	4.0
Special Committee on Ethics	15	0	0

Source: The Central Election Management Committee Website.

of the Local Constituency candidates for the same were stipulated in the Political Party Act. In local councils, the 30% female quota in the nomination of the Metropolitan Council Constituency candidates was also introduced, but as a recommendation with the proviso of incentives to political parties observing the recommendation. The related Act, party laws and regulations will be further discussed below.

#### ● Acts

Article 15 of the Basic Act for Women's Development Related to Policy Decision-making and Political Participation is based on the following rationale: "through various means, the government and the municipalities must do their best to support the enhancement of women's political participation". Based on this Act, various budgets for women's political participation have been secured. Educational programmes to raise people's awareness and collaboration with women's groups to search for women candidates and to educate voters have been carried out. From 2001, managing and supporting leadership programmes to develop future women leaders received attention.

Three specific laws that pertain to the National Assembly election are: the Political Party Act, the Election of Public [Officials] and Electoral Fraud Prevention Act (hereafter, the Election Act) and the Act Related to Political Fund (hereafter, the Political Fund Act). One can safely argue that the amendments of those Acts in March 2004 have contributed to the increase of women elected to the NA. The purpose of the amended Political Party Act was to completely abolish the regional branches of the political parties to change the high-cost and low-efficiency party structure and to achieve higher women's participation in the NA. The main contents of the amendment are to "recommend the 50% quota for women in the nomination of Proportional Representatives and additional subsidy provision when the recommend 30% quota for

women candidates in the Local Constituency of the National Assembly is observed (the fourth and sixth clauses of Article 31)". This was the "quota system for women" legislated prior to the 3rd local elections in March 2002, the 50% quota for women candidates (1 for female out of every 2 slots on the ordered list) in the nomination of Proportional Representatives of the National Assembly and the 30% quota for women candidates in the nomination for the Local Constituency. However, those were just recommendations, thus failed to achieve concrete results. It was in 2004, at the time of the general election for 17th National Assembly that the 50% quota for women Proportional Representatives was realized.

The amendment of the Election Act was to make the election process more democratic and clean. The number of MNAs was increased to 299 and the number of Proportional Representatives rose by 10 from 46 to 56. As for the quota for women Proportional Representatives, an increase in the total number of Proportional Representatives has led to increasing the number of women nominations. In the election campaigns, the internet and mass media were utilized as the primary modus operandi, reflecting the country's prevalence toward media oriented election activities. As for the election expenses, changes in the high-cost election structure and transparency in election expenditures were introduced. Significance of the amended Election Act lies in the relatively convenient political conditions for women's participation.

The amended Political Fund Act was to foster individuals' political donations and to promote cleaner election mores and practices through transparent processes. Hence, similar to the amended Election Act, it has made women's political participation easier, especially by banishing past malpractices of vote buying and block-voting.

#### ● Party rules and norms

Party rules and norms are important because they

serve as the very base for women politician's empowerment in nomination, pre-election, and organizational structure of the party. In terms of the party rules and norms related to women, the Uri Party once posted a notice titled "the Uri Party revised rules and norms related to women" on their internet homepage in the late 2003 before the 17th general election. The method of electing female central committee members was revised as to meet the purpose of representative system by local councils, hence elect in the 16 City/Provincial electoral conferences respectively, ensuring that 30% of those elected are women, the number of votes they receive determining the order of their priority.

It meant electing 30% (23 members) of women in the 51 Local Constituencies; there was no such quota for women before. For "the management of Fund for Women's Political Development, 10% of party support and state subsidy must be used for Women's Political Development fund", hence to help and support women politicians to a substantial extent. And also a new clause was added: "to develop, train, and educate women politicians and to research on policy development using the Fund for Women's Political Development and create Women's Political Leadership Center under auspices of the National Women's Committee." This was one of the campaign pledges of the Uri Party in the 17th general election. Accordingly, the long time demand for the training of women politicians within the political party was met. Finally, in the "nomination rule on women candidates", a 50% quota for women in 30% of the Local Constituencies was prescribed. In the pre-election for the municipalities, the party revised its rules to give an additional 20% of the votes received to women candidates.

As for the election results, the Uri Party had a total of 243 candidates in the Local Constituency and only 11 (4.5%) were women. Yet, considering that five women were elected out of the 11 female candidates, the Uri Party strategy of nominating

women in districts with high chances of winning can be regarded effective.

To turn attention to the women-related rules and norms of the Grand National Party, two points stood out. One was the stipulation that "the party chairperson must organize and manage fund for women's political development within the party to enhance women's political participation and [for] searching, training and supporting women leaders". The other was the provision that "among the candidates nominated for the Local Constituency election, 30% quota must be given to women". Similar to the case of Uri Party, in the Local Constituencies, women candidates were only 8 (3.7%) out of the 218 candidates in total. Again five women out of the eight were elected, showing that the Grand National Party strategy of nominating women in districts with high winning chances reaped results also.

The two parties had set up "women committees" to expand party support for women and to make and effectively put forward comprehensive plans for expanding women's political participation and strengthening their power. The question at this point is whether the rules and norms have substantiality or binding force. It seems that political parties are trying. All the above-mentioned Acts and political party rules have targeted 30% quota for women in the NA. Yet to gain substantial results, not just political parties but women politicians, voters and women's organizations need to make continuous efforts.

#### ● Pre-election system

Because changing the election system tends to arouse uneasiness among the polity, more definitive efforts are called for from political parties if women were to be given better chances in it. In that connection, at least two observations of note emerge from the past experiences. One is that political parties are the most effective institutions in recruiting female candidates on account of their tangible and intangible resources for political education and

training. The other has to do with the fact that whether women candidates can win or not depends on nomination from the main parties and assignment to the electoral districts with high chance of winning.<sup>99</sup>

Korea's main parties, such as the Uri Party, the Grand National Party and the New Millennium Democratic Party, selected their candidates via 'bottom up' nomination procedures such as the pre-election. In February 8, 2004, the Uri Party carried out a fully open pre-election for the first time in the country's political party history. For candidate nominations, the Party formed a screening committee. Of the 18 judges, three were women. Among the 51 candidates for the Proportional Representatives, 26 were women, and of the 243 candidates for the Local Constituencies, 11 were women. In the pre-election, voted on by party members and a pre-agreed proportion of non-party members, women candidates bidding not for the Proportional Representatives but for the Local Constituencies all campaigned on their parliamentary performance for citizens. They also stood on their own opinions on matters pertinent to the issues of the time drawing from their respective expertise fields. Without pre-election, four women were nominated as singular candidate and three were elected. Of five candidates nominated for strategic considerations,<sup>100</sup> only one woman was elected. Out of the total 9 candidates nominated through the pre-election, only two women passed the competition and finally only one woman was elected.

The Grand National Party had also appointed a certain number of women to the candidate screening committee, which nominated 21 out of 43 aspiring candidates for the Proportional Representatives and 8 out of the total 218 aspiring candidates for the Local Constituencies. For the Local Constituencies, women were strategically nominated to run in districts with high winning chances, hence the winning rate was as high as 62.5%(5 out of 8).

As for the New Millennium Democratic Party, the candidates to be nominated were selected via the pre-election with voters in the ratio of 5 party members to 5 non-party members. As this method has made block-voting more difficult, it turned out to be advantageous for women.<sup>101</sup>

Since fairness in the nomination process was assured to a certain extent by the bottom up nomination system, it is important for women politicians to base their activities at the local level and, so, gain local recognition and support needed to strengthen their political competitiveness. As useful and advantageous the pre-election is for women, an ideal pre-election, where candidates are fairly and rigidly evaluated, was not that easily realized. Also, the practice of strategically nominating a small number of women candidates carries its own problem that needs addressing.

## 2) Environmental elements: changes in political and social background

The total number of voters in the 17th general election was 35,607,296 and that represented a voter increase of 2,124,909 (6.3%) over the number in the 16th general election. Women voters, numbering 18,109,889 (50.9%), were a little more than men voters that numbered 17,497,407 (49.1%), making the gender difference of 612,480 (1.8%) voters. The voter turnout was 60.6%, which was 3.4% higher than that (57.2%) for the 16th general election. That outcome was a rebound considering the trend of voter decrease observed from the 13th to the 16th general elections when the turnout dropped down to the 50% range. The voter turnout by sex was estimated to be 63.6% for men and 57.8% for women by the Media Research that expolled 170,000 voters on the Election Day. These numbers were slightly higher than the corresponding distributions of 58.7% and 56.5% in 2000.

An existing theory has it that "women are passive in politics, show a low level of participation, are

conservative preferring the ruling party, do not support women candidates, and have a voting tendency to follow [family] opinion".<sup>102</sup> It was therefore widely accepted that women voters are responsible for the scant number of women politicians in Korea. However, through extensive research in the aftermath of the 16th general election, that theory was proved untrue. Based on a time lineal analysis of women's political behavior in the 1990s, Kim Hyeon-hui (1999) pointed out that the gender gap between men and women in traditional political behavior is narrowing. Also, according to a KWDI research in 2001, "women not voting for women" was just a guess in that 90% of the women voters answered "Yes, if she is competent" to the question "would you vote for women in the next general election?", and 80% of the women answered "I will vote independently regardless of my [family opinion]."

By scrutinizing the above-mentioned theory, O Yu-seok (2000) found that "conservative tendencies [among] women are not homogeneous. And the crucial variable affecting women voters in deciding their choice is not 'gender'. Hence, it is difficult to generalize women's conservative tendency and preference [for] the ruling party." Due to the increase in women's educational level and social participation, we can conclude that awareness of gender equality has expanded and more reliable women politicians have emerged.

As the level of women's education rises, the level of their economic activity also rises and the pattern of their participation in society becomes more diverse. In such context, it would be surprising if women's participation in the political sector, though once a "no women's land", does not come to face an increasing demand. Along the similar vein, political parties and candidates for the NA election, regardless of sex, have now become sensitive to women voters. As mentioned, awareness on the part of politicians has moved away from the misconception of women as poor participants in

politics and toward a sense of accountability to voters, especially women, who have come to pay increased attention to campaign pledges. Indeed, examining the campaign pledges of the main political parties prior to the 17th general election, campaign pledges for women voters were found considerably more substantial as well as substantive compared to the ones in previous elections.

First, campaign pledges<sup>103</sup> of the Uri Party for women included specific articulations of women-related goals and objectives that spanned the economic, industrial, welfare sectors and other pertinent fields. The pledges were varied, from the 'goal system' of promotion for the public-sector women workers, creation and precipitation of women's jobs, strengthening professional women's power and enhancing the welfare of women farmers to supporting poor women, etc. Part of the pledges on expanding women's political participation laid out a scheme for supporting women's advancement into managerial positions so as to strengthen their influence and leverage in decision-making. The scheme included other items bearing on women's empowerment such as the use of 10% party subsidy for the 'Fund for Women's Political Development', recruiting women leaders by establishing the 'Center for Women's Political Leadership', according to women the posts of ministers and vice-ministers of the central government and governorships and vice-governorships of the Municipalities, enlarging women's share of managers at the levels of 5 and higher, implementing the 'goal systems' for women to advance them to the positions of public school principals and vice-principals and to increase the ratio of women professors in national and public universities, etc. Stemming from the women's policies that had already been operational, the pledges ranged from extending the system of posting women's policy officers down to the local government level to introducing gender sensitive budget plans.

Although not as comprehensive as the Uri Party'

s, the campaign pledges of the Grand National Party have also focused on issues related to women. As women have experienced tough time finding jobs despite the rise in their educational level, pledges concentrated on solving that difficulty. Faced with declining birthrate, other pledges were related to solving childcare problems and providing more childcare facilities within workplaces.

Announcing its top 10 pledges, the New Millennium Party presented a family policy titled "gender equality and social integration policy", plans to expand women's social participation, eradicate violence against women, etc. Women related policies were also included in other campaign pledges. On the issue of women's political participation, its pledges were similar to that of the Uri Party.

No doubt, the parties will have a tough time in trying to live up to their pledges during the initial sessions of the 17th National Assembly. It is however important that the political parties and all would-be members of the National Assembly have become sensitive to women voters. And, at the least, the minimum necessary condition to fulfill the pledges and to implement the pertinent policies has been fulfilled by the increase in the absolute number of women MNAs and far more influential positions held by women in the current National Assembly.

Besides the changes in the voter misconception regarding women politicians, on-going institutional changes such as mentioned also had fostered a political climate favourable to women candidates, especially with reference to the block-voting or vote buying. With the realization of a transparent and money-saving election process, block-voting schemes, money centered campaigns, and male-centered political conditions are beginning to wither away. In addition, as media election becomes crucial due to the development of information and telecommunication technologies, women candidates are gaining more advantages than before. Moreover, with the demand for new figures in poli-

tics by the voters thoroughly disgusted by the corrupt politics of yesterday, women candidates became icons of good and clean politicians, if only for the reason that there were not many women politicians to have any serious roles in the politics in question.

With increasing empowerment of women and their social participation in diverse fields, voter's stereotypical biases such as "how dare women participate in politics?" have diminished to a large extent. Although their number was few, superior parliamentary activities of women MNAs in the past National Assemblies deserve credit for having implanted good images and gained credibility on behalf of all women MNAs. An evaluation by the Citizens' Coalition for Economic Justice<sup>10</sup> on the 16th National Assembly ranked Jeon Jae-hui (the Grand National Party) 4th and Kim Jeong-suk (the Grand National Party) 5th, and the grades for women MNAs overall were high. Included among the top 20 MNAs of the 16th Assembly were 5 women MNAs out of the total 16 women MNAs and women MNAs' average ranking of was 103rd, which was higher than the average of the entire Assembly Members.

### 3) Activities of women's groups

It is not an exaggeration to say that the legislation of the quota system for women was achieved by eighty-six women's groups which corroborated in pressing the government to that end from 1994 onward.<sup>10</sup> Due to many case studies on the experiences of the advanced countries with regards to the quota system, the efficacy of the quota system in enlarging women's political participation had become widely known. International organizations also consistently pressed the Korean government to implement 'the 30% quota for women' in all relevant fields. That having been the case and with measures taken in political circles, civic groups and/or women's organizational networks, it was

inevitable that women's political participation will gain support.

Through the local election in 1995 and the 15th General Election in 1996, women's groups actively started to make a powerful case for women's politics. The Women's Political Network was organized in 1996 by the Korean League of Women Voters, the Korea Institute for Women and Politics, Korea Women's Political Caucus and the Institute for Women's Politics, and they, jointly or respectively, launched a movement for the 'empowerment of women in politics'. 79 of the women's groups gathered in 1997 to organize Women's Alliance for the Quota System and started a large-scale movement for women's political participation.

Combining diverse activities from each of the groups in the network, 'Women's Alliance for the Quota System' was formed in 1994 and called for solidarity actions for expanding women's participation in the 15th and 16th General Elections and the local election of 1998. With the full introduction of the pre-election by then, women's groups united and held press conferences precipitating nominations of women in the 2002 local election.

As a result, the 50% quota for women candidates in the 1998 local election and the 30% quota for women candidates in the 2000 General Election have been legislated. With reference to the 17th General Election, representative women's solidarity groups that have actively involved themselves in the general election process include the 'Women's Alliance Ready for the 17th General Election' and 'Clean Politics Network of Women'.

Prior to the 17th general election in 2003, women's groups held two seminars under the theme of 'Women and the 17th General Election' organized by the Women's News and suggested to launch an alliance of all women's groups. And in August 2003, 'a preparatory committee for the women's alliance for the 2004 General Election' was formed. With the diverse national level women's groups gathered for joint action providing

a framework, three consensus forging processes were set in motion and two working-level meetings were held. Through that action, in which 321 groups with diverse background participated, the 'Women's Alliance for the 17th General Election', with representations from varied regional and occupational groupings, began mobilizing itself. Scanning its activity details, one finds that it had focused on institutional improvements and on creating binding rules such as the 50% quota for women in the nomination of candidates for the Proportional Representatives and the 30% quota for women in the nomination for the Local Constituencies. The strategic aim of Women's Alliance was to increase women's seats in the Proportional Representatives sector. Its demand of changes in the institutional arrangement of the political structure was positively reflected in the 2004 General Election resulting in increased number of women MNAs. Besides the activities just cited, Women's Alliance carried out such activities as attitudinal evaluations pertaining to women's issues, identifying potential women candidates, providing basic guidelines for them, and promoting women voter's understanding of the importance of their roles in the election and their actual participation in it as voters.

Subsequently, on November 6, 2003, the 'Clean Politics Network of Women', consisting of leaders of the women's groups, was established. Every member from any group with an interest in women's political participation took part in that Network. Its statement for launching the Network proclaimed 'the reason underlying the decades-long vicious-cycle shackling Korean politics to be male-centered political culture. Hence, women as vigorous political actors can create a brand new version of clean politics'. The Network's focal activity was to 'dispatch 100 women to the National Assembly'; accordingly, by way of concrete action, 102 women were nominated as candidates in reserve. The Network went on to recommend those candidates to the political parties and put pressure

upon them to accept. The Network undertook other activities as well, such as organizing the Recommendation Committee for Women Candidates, which provided standards in choosing women candidates, prepared open-recommendations and delivered the lists of women candidates to the political parties. It also demanded the nomination of their chosen women candidates and provided support for the latter, participated in election campaigns, created positive images of women politicians, and fund-raised for them. The Network held panel discussions and workshops on clean politics and gender equal politics several times to achieve those goals and made great efforts to secure substantial women's participation through Women's Declaration Relay Campaign which continued till the start of the 17th General Election.

Projects to search out competent women candidates were undertaken by the women's groups. At a public hearing on 'The Amendments of Acts Related to Politics in Providing Women's Political Representation' (organized by KWDI) held in the end of 2001, the representatives of each women's group called for a quota for women in the Local Constituencies and agreed upon the 50% quotas for women in the Proportional Representatives sector. With that, the most necessary remaining task was securing and training women candidates and establishing the support system for them.

To go beyond the current status of political participation by women, it would be necessary to scrutinize even more closely pertinent experiences of other countries and introduce projects and institutions applicable to the Korean situation.

Above mentioned institutional changes or changes in the political and cultural climate and positive actions taken by women's groups are closely inter-related and affect each other in enlarging women's political participation. Positive actions of women's groups brought about institutional changes such as the introduction of the quota system for women and the amendments of Election Acts that eradicated vote buying and block-voting election customs. Those changes, in turn, led to political changes in favour of women. With the increase of women's political participation, activities of women's groups will be strengthened and they would come to make further demands for institutional changes leading to a higher-level political participation by women. Increasing the number of women members in the 17th National Assembly might create a synergy effect toward further institutional changes, changes in the political environment as a whole, and on activities of women's groups.

It is undeniable that the increase in the number of women MNAs from 16 (5.9%) in the 16th National Assembly to 39 (13.0%) in the 17th represents a radical change, a truly notable event, in light of Korean women's past political history. We can appraise that Korean women have now laid a cornerstone for building up their political power. Nonetheless, given the fact that 29 women MNAs out of the 39 are Proportional Representatives who are the beneficiaries of the 50% quota and only 10 women MNAs were elected out of the 243 Local Constituencies, women's empowerment at the local level still falls far short of the optimum.

The percentage of women MNAs as in March 2004 lags behind the world average of 15.4% women's share of parliamentary seats and even further behind the UN recommended 30%. Efforts to

keep enhancing women's empowerment not only in the National Assembly, the Municipalities and higher governmental offices but also in local areas are needed. In this connection, it will be useful to briefly note deficiencies that appeared throughout the last General Election and present some strategic considerations for furthering women's political power.

#### A. Improvements in the election system

The observance of the 50% quota for women and increased numbers of women Proportional Representatives in the 17th National Assembly indeed stand out as achievements from the institutional changes discussed. But it is just a beginning. To empower women to a degree desirable and necessary for better balanced political development in country, further improvements in the election system would be a key requisite.

As noted earlier, the quota system for women is not just regulated by the party rules; it is stipulated in the Political Party Act. Nevertheless, for the reason that the system is not legally binding, it has not been properly observed in the nomination process for the Local Constituency election nor for the Municipality elections. The fact that there are no effective and substantive penalties for non-observance of the quota works against proper functioning of the system. Lack of detailed procedural regulations is another underlying factor. Indeed, without specific regulations for implementing the quota system and detailed guidelines for ground-level operations of concerned institutions, the revised Political Party Act and Election Act are just another pie in the sky. Thus more efforts will be needed to concretize the regulations for the 18th general election.

## 4. Conclusion

Even more fundamental is the need to reform the structure of political constituencies and to improve the system of party politics. Until now, women's groups have argued that the Medium and Multi-member Constituency<sup>10</sup> and Proportional Representatives were favorable to women. The Proportional Representatives system is now fairly well established and, due to the change in the existing Single-member Constituency into the Medium and Multi-member Constituency, the issue of introducing Women Metropolitan Council Constituency (WMCC) has come up for discussion. The Women Metropolitan Council Constituency is a women only nomination system and, in the metropolitan constituencies like Seoul or Gyeonggi Province, women can be nominated in several constituencies. That is, women can be nominated in any political party, even as an independent. According to interviews with the Heads of the three major political parties by the Women's Alliance for General Election and the Clean Politics Network of Women in February 12-13, 2004, the Democratic Party and the Uri Party fully intend to support the WMCC upon its adoption as an official party position while the Grand National Party has already adopted it as such. Thus, the remaining work for introducing women's national constituency is to take formal steps toward consensus within the Special Committee on Political Reform. Possibly to become the first ever introduced in Korea, 'the WMCC' will be a 'preferential treatment on a provisional basis' for women as in France and India.

To make WMCC genuinely advantageous to women, women's groups must examine what properties democratic institutions should possess and seriously consider the problem of under-representation of women in the parliament due to regionalism and vote buying practices in elections. Also to enhance women's bargaining skills, one must acknowledge and try to improve the current situation of data scarcity and information lack on politics and do so from a gendered point of view.

## B. Vitalizing the Local Constituencies

Among the 39 women MNAs in the 17th National Assembly, those elected from the Local Constituencies number only 10 or so. It is double the five women MNAs in the 16th Assembly. But in the Local Constituencies where the benefit of the quota system did not apply, women's share of seats is still very few. On this matter, there have been ongoing discussions and there is a general consensus that the condition could not be improved if such institutional measure as the quota for women in the Proportional Representatives system were the sole recourse. Moreover, as considered above, women's participation in the Municipalities is in a more serious situation. Many research analyses on local elections indicated that women's access to Municipal Councils is a crucial step in enhancing women's political participation and their access to the mainstream politics as well. That being the case, efforts to promote women's political participation must start with women's empowerment at the local and make it possible for those thus empowered to move up to the national level politics. However, in Korea, the local level situation is very poor. As the 50% quota for women has been systemized in the process of the last national level election, more discussions focused on vitalizing women's political participation at the local level is due well in advance of the next round of elections.

When the bottom up nomination system was introduced for the local election of June 13, 2002, the system was literally a democratic nomination system based on party primaries that did away with the closed-door nominations of the past. Nevertheless, the system proved to be a great obstacle for women who have less political training than men and comparatively small campaign funds and organizational capacities. The quota system for women was provided in the statutory laws and party rules, but, under those provisions, there was no valid justification for replacing male candidates

already elected through a democratic pre-election procedure for the local electoral districts.

Indeed, the major obstacle for women's participation in the Local Constituencies was the scant percentage of women nominated for the Local Constituencies. It is doubtful therefore that the existing quota system is fully democratic. The number of women challenging politics is steadily increasing, but most of them drop out in the nomination process for the Local Constituencies. It will be difficult for the quota system alone to achieve a desired level of women's political participation without solving the problem associated with the nomination for the Local Constituencies through pre-election. To what extent the parties are willing to observe the 30% quota system for women for the Local Constituency election and, even if they do, how well women will compete with male candidates are two important questions in need of addressing on priority basis.

With regards to the party primaries for the nomination of Local Constituency candidates, it seems that, with the introduction of overall political reforms of late, there is an implicit consensus between the ruling party and the opposition party concerning the utility of 'public management of election' and 'abolition of the regional branch offices of the parties' and that is likely to be highly advantageous to women and political rookies. Overcoming the vote buying and block-voting election practices of the past and establishing a transparent process of political fundraising will make it possible for women to compete under more fair conditions.

## C. Roles of the political parties

By and large, political parties have been far more responsible than voters for women's political under-representation in Korea. What is absolutely necessary to enhance women's participation in question is the support of the political parties in

searching for qualified women candidates, nominating and backstopping their election campaigns toward victory.

In longer terms, the limits of bottom up nomination and gendered quota system of the political parties should be supplemented with a system of recruiting women leaders into the parties and party activities. In Germany, although gendered quota system is regulated not by the statutory laws but by party rules, women's political participation is much higher than in Korea because they have concentrated on improving the election system and 'gender equality within the party'. In the same vein, every party regulated gendered quota system in all aspects of their party structure and management process, such as in the employment of paid party officials, internship, and volunteers and the composition of substantive committees, thus providing equal opportunities of political training for women from the very base.<sup>11</sup>

Regarding the Korean Local Constituencies, nominating women for the areas with high chances of winning is important. Even if women obtain nominations for the Local Constituencies according to the 30% quota system, their chances of entering the NA will still be low unless they are nominated for the areas with high chances of winning. Thus, without further substantive measures in favour of them, the quota system will just remain a show of benevolence from the political parties. The central offices of the parties must try their best to enlarge the pool of women candidates. How to provide specific regulations that maximize the efficacy of the quota system in the party rules and norms is another important task. In most advanced countries such as the U.K. (the Labour Party), Germany (the Social Democratic Party), and France (the Socialist Party), party rules and norms, viz. institutional measures, regulate women's political participation.

It must be acknowledged that achieving progress in the matter of women's political participation is indeed a daunting challenge; the key to meeting the

challenge is none other than 'institutional support'. Securing the nomination for political districts with high chances of winning is highly desirable but not enough. How the 30% quota system is filled is also a critical issue. It is incumbent upon the political parties to support efforts in searching and training competent women candidates.

Increasing women's participation in key national level party positions and committees has great relevance to the rate of women entering the NA. Scarcity of women in absolute numbers and preponderance of women in certain posts have hindered their influence on major official affairs of the parliament or those of the state, and their exclusion from the nomination for official positions all have hindered women from entering the NA. Needless to say, each party must observe or even extend the present quota for women in their official positions and committees in accordance with the party rules

they themselves have already adopted.

Through the quota system for women or the bottom-up nomination system, women's political participation will be invigorated. But there still remains the problem of women belonging to one or another of 'personal cliques' inside the party or the Local Constituency or those with better fundraising ability receiving prior consideration in candidate nominations. Rather than follow past malpractices or nominating persons only with high chances of winning, each political party must recruit qualified women politicians to its camp through transparent and democratic procedures for candidate nomination. The voters also need to show that they no longer distrust women candidates just because they are female; they should grow mature enough not to be influenced by regionalism or material compensation.

## VI. Policy Recommendations

1. Enhancing Women's Empowerment in the Political Sector
2. Furthering Women's Empowerment in the Economic Sector
3. Building the Right Milieu for Gender Equality

Women's lack of power to be adequately represented in major policy-making at all levels of national governance, which was reflected in the UNDP's low GEM ranking and is inconsistent with Korea's rapid economic development during the last decades, has made a great impact on the formation and implementation of women's policies in Korea. In fact, the influence of the ranking in Korea is such that what the press and all those directly or indirectly concerned with women's affairs pay most attention when UNDP's Human Development Report is published annually is its ranks in GDI and GEM.

Below table Table 6.1, showing comparison between Korea and other countries whose ranks are above 30th and 15th places in GEM, was designed to use as referential materials in setting a goal for the improvement of GEM in Korea. In order to increase the level of GEM into that of GDP and HDI (within 30th place), we demonstrate the average of related indexes in following table.

According to Table 6.1, for countries whose ranks are above 15th place in GEM, the average percentage of seats in parliament held by women is 30.2 percent; female legislators, senior officials and managers is 29.1 percent; and female professional and technical workers is almost 50 percent. The ratio of estimated female to male earned income is 0.60. In terms of top 30 countries, the similar results came out. The average percentage of seats in parliament held by women is 24.9 percent; female legislators, senior officials and managers is 31.0 percent, even

higher than that of the top 15 countries; and female professional and technical workers is 51 percent, Korea's average percentage of seats in parliament held by women is 5.9 percent; and female legislators, senior officials and managers is 5.0 percent, which is lower than even the half of average of the top 30 countries. Moreover, the average percentage of female professional and technical workers is extremely low.

Given such results, we can argue that, in order to improve Korea's GEM, we should focus on two sectors in particular. First, gender equality in political sector should be addressed as the top priority. In micro-perspective, actions that can directly increase the ratio of female lawmakers are needed, and in macro-perspective, enabling environment that can facilitate women's political participation is necessary. Secondly, gender equality in labor market is also important. We believe that this will be achieved by the increase of the number of economically-active female workers, consistent participation in economic fields of women with high education level, women's advancement into high-ranking positions such as CEO, and better availability of decent job to women.

The government, having taken note of Korea's low GEM rank in the Human Development Report, has since been on a scramble course to devise measures that will improve its standing in the said ranking. The Ministry of Gender Equality organized, for example, two ministerial-level meetings in February

Table 6.1 Differences in Indexes

	GEM	Seats in Parliament held by women (%)	Female Legislators, Senior officials and Managers (%)	Female Professional and Technical Workers (%)	Ratio of Estimated Female to Male Earned Income
Average of Top 15 in GEM ranks	0.777	30.2%	29.1%	49.9%	0.60
Average of Top 30 in GEM Ranks	0.700	24.9%	31%	51.0%	0.58
Average of all countries		14.4%	27.3%	48.9%	0.51
Korea (2003)	0.363	5.9%	5.0%	34.0%	0.48

Source: UNDP 2003.

Note: Seats in parliament held by women have increased into 13.0% after the 17th general election in 2004. The HDI (2003), however, doesn't reflect this data.



and March 2004 under the theme 'Measures for Improving the GEM Rank and Examination on Sources of GEM Variables'. The Prime Minister's Office for Government Policy Coordination also introduced a bill entitled 'Measures for the Improvement in International Evaluation Indices,' and, at a cabinet meeting in February 2004, 16 indices needing special attention were selected, GEM was one of them. The Ministry of Gender Equality, as the lead body in charge of matters pertaining to the GEM index submitted a plan for enhancing Korea's GEM to the Prime Minister's Office for Government Policy Coordination and assumed the tasks for monitoring and evaluating the

country's status on GEM.

However, to raise the GEM rank is not simple job. Gem indicators are so basic and comprehensive that all methods in political and economic area should be mobilized.

Given the above fact, policy recommendations will have to contain two categories of elements: those that will help increase particular variables in the GEM and those that will help enhance overall environments regarding GEM. In this section, therefore, policies directly related to the particular variables in GEM and policies that can improve fundamental, long-term conditions for GEM will be suggested.

## 1. Enhancing Women's Empowerment in the Political Sector

Among GEM variables, ratio of seats in parliament held by women is a representative index that determines the level of women's political participation. As indicated above, in order to increase the ratio, introduction of a direct policy measure such as a quota system will be effective in a short term. However, for long-term benefit, measures that can enhance women's overall participation in political sector must be considered.

### A. To Increase Seats Held by Women in Parliament

Among GEM variables, ratio of seats in parliament held by women is the lowest one. In order to increase the ratio, one single policy is not enough and, rather comprehensive long-term policy package is necessary to create enabling social environment in which women's political participation is encouraged. In regard to GEM ranks change caused by the increasing ratio of seats in parliament held by women, when female lawmakers account for 20 percent of available seats in the National Assembly, we can predict that Korea's GEM rank can rise up to 45th place out of 70 countries with GEM increasing to 0.503. Moreover, if female lawmakers account for 30 percent, Korea can be in the 34th place in GEM rank. Despite the fact that, in 2004 general election, the revision of law related election system made it possible for female candidates to be filled in the half of seats available under proportional representation, only 13 percent of seats in National Assembly were filled by women. Therefore, more attention is needed on how to support the campaign of female candidates in local constituency. We recommend policies for the increase of the ratio of seats in parliament held by

Table 8.2 Expected GEM Rank When Congresswomen Ratio Increases

Ratio of seats in parliament	GEM	GEM ranks (out of 70 countries)
5.9%	0.363	63
20%	0.503	45
30%	0.556	34

Source: UNDP 2003.  
Note: We produced GEM in above table with the application of existing GEM formula, and the ranks in table are decided in accordance with ranks of countries with similar GEM.

women as follows.

#### ① Reform of Election System

Even though the achievement in the 17th general election is attributed to the reform of the election system, under which the portion of seats to be filled through the proportional representation increased and 50 percent quota system was adopted, further reform is needed to develop the election system as a whole in favor of female candidates such as the medium or major constituency system that are once again being debated recently. One man and one woman can be elected in one area at the same time if the medium or major constituency system would be adopted.

#### ② Enhancement of Women's Participation in Local Constituency

The number of women elected in the 17th general election reached as many as 39. However, among them, those who were elected through the local constituencies were only ten. In order to increase women elected from the local constituencies, women's participation must be encouraged at the level of local self-governing bodies. In addition, one of the major factors that contributed to the considerable success was the effort championed by the government to eradicate corruption in the election processes. Considering the fact that women are relatively in weak positions to make use of their

respective parties' organizational culture and localism, fair and strictness election procedure must be in place for future elections so as to leave as little as possible to arbitrary decisions. Also, in order to prevent any disadvantage to women in the process of nomination in local constituencies, objective standards and transparent procedures must be introduced.

#### ◎ Promotion of Women's Power within Parties.

##### a) To increase the women's ratio in party's high ranking positions

Women's activities within parties are extremely weak. Even when nominating female candidates for proportional representation, parties tend to rely on outside figures rather than politicians inside. Considering that parties play a central role in nominating candidates and supporting their campaigns, the attitude of the parties is very critical. This trend is also found in other countries. Until now, parties' authorities show tendency of nominating female candidates in districts with low possibility to be elected or place female candidates in low ranks in proportional representation, just in order to meet the requirement of quota system. Under such circumstances, without the fundamental change of male-dominating hierarchical running mechanism within party, we cannot solve this problem. Therefore, to increase the number of female lawmakers at high-ranking positions within parties is very important.

Moreover, a task that female lawmakers usually carry out is to gain opinions of residents in districts or deliver materials to appeal people's support. Their role is secondary and simple, which is eroding their leverages within parties and making the increased number of female lawmakers meaningless. Therefore, we have to make a great effort to increase the number of female lawmakers at high-ranking positions which are strong enough to influence parties' decision making.

##### b) To development programs for women

In addition, it is very important for parties to develop programs that help foster qualified female politicians with long-term perspective. This initiative can be achieved by appointing female lawmakers at high-ranking positions within parties and employing female interns and voluntary workers.

#### B. To Increase Seats Held by Women in Local Assembly

##### ◎ Introduction of a Quota System

The ratio of seats held by women in the local assemblies is lower than 5.9 percent, the ratio of the 16th National Assembly. Such low ratio seems to owe primarily to stronger conservatism in local areas. In order for the ratio to increase over time, as many of experienced female politicians as possible must be nominated for the local assemblies.

As pointed out above, the increase of the ratio of women elected from 5.9 percent to 13 percent in the 17th national assembly election was attributable mainly to policy support and the introduction of the quota system that obliged political parties to assign 50 percent of the proportional representation slots to female candidates under the amended Political Party Law. The law has had a great influence on the political parties' nomination of candidates in the local constituencies.

It is therefore highly desirable that an even more progressive form of the quota system be introduced for the local assembly election scheduled to be held in 2006.

##### ◎ Introduction of Penalty / Incentive Scheme

Even though, facing 2006 local assembly election, individual parties have shown their intention of revising politics-related law, whether the revision can really take place is still under question. Considering that quota requirement in the last election was not met because it was not must-do, we should devise other measure to make it effective as well as push ahead with the revision of the law as

soon as possible. As seen in cases in other countries, legal action (like revision of related law) is not enough. Rather, parties' inside effort to meet the quota requirement is more important. For example, if parties fail to meet 30 percent nomination of female candidates, election funds cutting may be a possible penalty and, if parties do meet, some incentives can go to the parties. Therefore, the government should support the parties' effort by providing incentives or penalty in accordance with their results.

#### C. Improvement of Social Environment for Women's Political Participation

##### ◎ Education for improving voters' attitude

Education is undoubtedly important in changing people's attitude. However, since the outcome of education doesn't appear in a short time, long-term effort to enhance their attitude should be made. In fact, the focus of women's organization and women-related programs is placed on discovering promising female political figures and developing their capabilities. Education of voters, as a result, is relatively retarded, which calls for prompt actions that can activate professional education and consistent programs. However, financial support is prerequisite in implementing the education because financial pressure is a major obstacle, particularly in local areas. We first have to nurture professionals who can teach voters and then provide programs which are carried out at not only public or private organizations but also as a part of public education's curriculum. This will ensure the early establishment of voter's gender-sensitive perspective in political affairs.

##### ◎ Education and Training Program to Foster Future Female Politicians

Whenever election time approaches, it is often heard that qualified female candidates are extremely few. Even though there is a tendency to undervalu-

ing female candidates, it is also true that qualified female candidates do not come by in abundant supply in Korea due to a relatively low level of women's interest in politics. In order to tackle this problem, various training programs need to be developed. For example, for married women interested in political participation and for girl students with aspirations for future political leadership, political organizations such as national and local assemblies and parties should offer intern programs. Further, technical and financial supports are needed for women's groups to develop leadership programs for girls and do so in such a way as to see them through to continuous development over time from middle to high schools and to university level.

There are some organizations that are running programs for the education of female voters and are involved in identifying female politicians for the future: Korean league of Women Voters, Institute for Korea Women's Politics, Korean Institute for Women & Politics, Korea Women's Political Caucus, Institute for Women's Policy in Busan, Korea Women's Association United, Korea Women's Center, and Girl Scout in Korea. In addition to them, the ruling Uri Party and the opposition Grand National Party are also involved in programs for women politicians in recent years. However, more efforts are needed. First of all, in order to achieve the quota requirement, the parties have to take actions not only for identifying promising women politicians but also for fostering female political leaders. Therefore, the parties should pay more attention to providing systematic programs that support women politicians and the development of their capabilities. This can be more successful especially when the parties maintain alliance with relevant civic groups.

Basic Women's Development Act stipulates that the government and local self-governing bodies should make an effort to encourage women's political participation. Therefore, under the legal framework, the government should set up a center for

women through which it support the development of women's political power by providing programs related to women's political activities, such as women's monitoring in political affairs. In addition, through this program, the government can be directly involved in an effort for the education for women voters, candidates, and female further political leaders in the future. In order to make it practically effective, monitoring and evaluating must follow this action.

#### ⊙ Committee of Political Funds for Women's Political Participation

Parties' effort for the nomination of female candidates will be meaningless if voters don't support them. In order to gain voters' support, financial support is prerequisite. Given the fact that women's economic power tends to be lower than that of male counterparts and their network for appealing financial support is extremely poor, if financial support is ready to them, women's political participation seems to dramatically increase. Therefore, the establishment of committee of political funds for women's political participation is necessary. The U.S. Eleanor Roosevelt Funds and Funds for Women's Campaign can be good examples.

#### ⊙ Women-Friendly Social Policies

Due to women's low participation in political affairs, policies that are important particularly to

women tend to be ignored. However, by developing social policies that can be tackled easily by women, we can encourage women's political participation and increase women's influence in political sector. Customer rights issue, gender equality issues, environment issues, and educational issues can be good examples. This initiative can be more successful when women maintain an alliance with progressive male politicians who have favorable perspective to women's political activities.

#### ⊙ Support for Civic Groups Working for Women's Political Participation

The role of women's group is getting critical these days. They can make a contribution by running pool of women politicians and providing consultation and education program for female candidates. In addition, women's groups should play a leading role in education for voters' attitude. In order to facilitate their activities, the government's support is very important. The support can be realized either by financial support or other ways such as suggesting ideas of related projects.

## 2. Furthering Women's Empowerment in the Economic Sector

### A. To Increase Economic Participation of Highly Educated Women

#### ⊙ Policies for Increasing Highly Educated Women's Economic Participation

The number of economically active women with college education or above is relatively small in Korea compared to other countries. That fact has a negative impact on women's status as well as on the nation's overall economic development. In order to promote highly educated women's participation in the economy, we should make the best use of the Equal Employment Act, so as not to allow discrimination against female college graduates in their first jobs and to strengthen social support system that will help women to continue their careers even after marriage and child birth. In addition, by offering educational programs that strengthen women's professional consciousness from early on, it will be necessary for the notion that women should also be employed to become widely recognized. Considering the increasing importance of women as source of qualified labor in the country context of rapid aging population and low birth rate, the significance of work in women's life should be stressed not only by the press and educational organizations but also by the society as a whole.

#### ⊙ To Protect Motherhood and Consolidate Child-Care System,

In supporting women's employment, measures to protect their motherhood and provisions for the care of their children are essential requisites. Even though 90-day maternity leave and temporary rest from work for child-care are available in Korea, there remain a number of problems yet to be

addressed. First, with regards to the 90-day maternity leave, 60 days are covered by employers and 30 days by employment insurance. The employers who find the cost burdensome, therefore, end up being hesitant to hire pregnant women, which points up the need to lessen the burden to be borne by employers. In addition, under the existing maternity leave system, only a small number of women such as regular employees in conglomerates and public organizations are eligible for the 90-day maternity leave. Considering those non-regular workers, poor self-employed, temporary workers and unpaid family workers are excluded from the benefit, the population coverage in the system must be expanded to all women who work and earn incomes one way or another. Thus, the number of economically active women will increase and the group of female workers who continue in their careers long enough to be promoted into managerial positions could be enlarged.

There is a severe lack of child-care facilities and other support measures for employed women. For female employees who work long hours, flexible business hours on the part of child-care and other service establishments and facilities are needed. Also, for women choosing to work short-time for child-care reason, policies would have to be introduced to prevent their suffering from unfair disadvantages.

#### ⊙ Promoting the Efficiency of the Equal Employment Act

The Equal Employment Act prohibits gender discrimination throughout the entire process of employment including promotion, retirement, and position arrangements. However, since 1987 when this act was enacted, gender discrimination that can

Table 6.3 Policies for Women's Empowerment in Political Sector

Policies	2005	2006	2007	2008	After2009	Note
<b>Increase of female lawmakers</b>						General Election in 2008
Enhance election system						
Activated local constituency						
Increased women's activities within parties						
<b>Increase of female lawmakers in local assembly</b>						Local assembly election in 2008
Introduction of quota system						
Penalty and incentive system						
<b>Favorable social atmosphere for women's political participation</b>						Long-term, comprehensive approach are needed
Education for voters' attitude						
Fostering female politicians						
Political Fund Raising						
Woman-friendly social policies						
Support to civic groups						

be measured by direct methods has reduced significantly, but other forms of indirect discrimination are still prevalent. The indirect discrimination, even though this is also prohibited in the Act, is very hard to prove, which makes it difficult for women to complain for correction. In tackling this problem, legal support that ensures women to file suits easily is necessary. In addition, in order for lawyers to handle the suits with gender-sensitive perspective, the government should introduce policy measures that can make it possible.

### B. To Increase the Ratio of Female Senior Officials and Managers

#### ◎ Introduction of Effective Equal Employment Program

Increasing the ratio of female senior officials and managers cannot be achieved by simply introducing policies such as those relating to the ratio of seats in parliament held by women, because majority of the total 600,000 or so senior officials and managerial positions are in the private sector. If personnel practices of private companies were to be influenced to increase the ratio in question, it will be criticized as interfering with the autonomy of private enterprises.

In such context, the equal employment program initiated by the Ministry of Labor since 2004 deserves high marks. The program, now applicable only to public corporations, has made companies to submit reports showing how many efforts they have made toward raising women's ratio in managerial positions. As for the private sector, measures to award special benefits, such as in connection with

procurement contracts, to companies taking aggressive action for gender equality is under consideration.

Only when the equal employment program is successfully implemented, can enterprises employ a large number of female managers with the recognition of women's superiority and strong points. Therefore, in order to boost companies' voluntary participation, programs that enlighten managers' awareness on female workers should be provided.

#### ◎ Development of Female Workers' Career

The second reason why the ratio of female senior officials and managers is low has to do with women's discontinuous career pattern caused by childbirth and marriage. This sets women back from advancing to senior officials and managerial positions that can come by only through a long-term, continuous career development and high level of education. Even if women work for long period, discriminatory corporate personnel practices still impede women's advancement to high-ranking positions. In order to confront this problem, various programs that can help female workers develop their career and actions to eradicate such discriminatory personnel practices in companies must be introduced. Even though several programs such as mentoring systems were attempted by enterprises, they are applicable only within large and well-established corporations. Therefore, to enhance the efficacy of such measures, it will be necessary to link the program with female job seekers, girl students, and female workers in all enterprises.

#### ◎ Women's Establishment of New Business and Support for Management

Support for female entrepreneurs through policies will bring about positive outcomes for the improvement of women's status in labor market in a long run. In the case of Korea, women usually run small-size enterprise with low capital, which makes it difficult to obtain financial resources easily. In particular, access to banks loans is available when mort-

gages are provided, which worsens female entrepreneurs' economic status, because household properties are usually owned by her spouses in legal documents. In sum, in order to facilitate women's starting new business and smooth management in her operation, technical, financial supports are necessary. As a result, we can expect that women can more likely to settle in decent jobs.

## 3. Building the Right Milieu for Gender Equality

### A. Building New Social Norms:

Building new social norms that give due recognition to gender equality is essential because it is almost impossible to empower women in political and economic fields as long as conventional social framework dominated by patriarchal orders remain intact. Regarding this issue, a bill to abolish the 'Hoju System', under which women are not allowed to officially head a family, is currently under debate at the National Assembly and will serve as a momentous landmark for gender equality if successfully passed.

### B. Reevaluating Household Duties and Equal Responsibility:

Unpaid labor such as household work contributes substantively to the maintenance of any given society. According to a survey on Koreans' time use, over half of women were found to take the entire household responsibilities despite their involve-

ments in economic activities. By according due economic value to household work in the process of policy-making, it will be possible to build a new socio-cultural milieu in which full-time housewives can secure economic foundation and male counterparts are equally responsible for household duties. Policies that induce gender equal responsibility for household affairs through reevaluation of household duties will pave the way for long-term development of women's power in the political and economic sectors.

Table 6.4 Policies for Women's Empowerment in Economic Sector

Policies	2005	2006	2007	2008	After 2009	Note
<b>To increase economic participation of highly educated women</b>						
Economic activities of highly educated women						An office for child-care policies in Ministry of Gender Equality was established in 2004
To protect motherhood and consolidate child-care system						
Rethinking the efficiency of Equal Employment Act						
<b>To increase the ratio of female senior officials and managers</b>						
Equal employment program						In 2006, center for equal employment will be set up
Development of female workers' career						
Female CEO's starting business and support of its management						

## Notes

### II. Human Development and Gender Equality

- 1) UNDP 1990.
- 2) NHDR Unit/NDRO and Social Development Group 2002.

### III. Women's Policy in Korea : with focus on GDI and GEM

- 1) Presidential Commission on Women's Affairs 1998.
- 2) Presidential Commission on Women's Affairs 1998.
- 3) Ministry of Gender Equality 2001.
- 4) Ministry of Gender Equality 2001.
- 5) Ministry of Gender Equality 2001.
- 6) Ministry of Gender Equality 2001.
- 7) Ministry of Gender Equality Homepage [http://www.moge.go.kr]
- 8) Ministry of Gender Equality 2001.
- 9) Reformative Decentralization Committee, the Ministry of Government Administration and Home Affairs, the Civil Service Commission 2004.
- 10) Ministry of Gender Equality 2004.

### IV. Korean Women's Economic Activities and Human Development

- 1) Sources: Economic indicators of the UNDP's GEM are from the annual report of Korea National Statistical Office, 'the Economically Active Population Survey'. The represented year in the UNDP index is behind actual applied year, hence, the Economically Active Population Survey in 1993 was used for the GEM in 1999 and the Economically Active Population Survey in 2000 was used for the GEM in 2003. Accordingly, to reduce this delayed gap and thus, to represent the actual realities of Korean

women's empowerment satisfactorily, data exchanges and cooperation between the UNDP and the Korea National Statistical Office is needed.

- 2) As Slovenia and Czech Republic were formerly socialist countries it would be a natural consequence that women's economic participation level in these former socialist countries is higher than Korea. Moreover, the HDI and GDI rankings of each country in 2003 are 29th for Slovenia and 32nd for Czech Republic, and the GEM rankings are 27th and 29th respectively. Unlike Korea, these two are typical countries where women's capacity development directly led to women's empowerment.
- 3) Since 1993, the ILO converted the Census occupation code from ISCO-1968 to ISCO-1988. The error was made from the omission of numbers of male 'technician/semi-professionals' during the intervals.
- 4) The classification of occupations followed the Korean standard classification of occupations (KSCO). In the 'Legislators, Senior Officials and Managers' category, legislators, senior governmental officials, senior officials of special interest organizations, directors and chief executives in corporations, governmental administrative managers, production and operations department managers, and general managers are included. For 'Professional and Technical workers', physical, mathematical, and engineering science professionals, computing professionals, life science and health professionals, teaching professionals, business, accountants, finance professionals, legal professionals, social work professionals and religious professionals, writers and creative performing artists, and other related professionals are included.
- 5) Kim Young Ok 2002.
- 6) Kim Young Ok 2002.
- 7) Kim Young Ok 2002.

### V. Korean Women's Political Participation and Human Development : from 5 to 13

- 1) Kim Won Hong et al. 2001.
- 2) The National and Local Constituencies are all included
- 3) Welch 1977.
- 4) Heiskanen 1971.
- 5) Randall 1986.
- 6) Luwenduski 1986.
- 7) It is an incident happened before the General Election in the early 2004. The opposition parties cooperated to pass the presidential impeachment in a ground that the president has violated the election law requiring the president to observe neutrality in election. The case was closed by the Constitutional Court's dismissal in May. Yet, antipathy against the opposition parties' act of bringing the country to a stand still grew among the people. Accordingly, the popularity of the ruling Uri Party increased while the support for the Grand National Party and especially Democratic Party decreased. Near the election, due to Jeong Dong-yeong's (from the Uri Party) remark of 'insulting the old' the opinion poll for the Uri Party dropped whereas the influence of Bak Geun-hye, Head of the Grand National Party, assisted the increase of the support for the Grand National Party. In the end, despite the drop in its popularity the Uri Party was able to achieve majority (151 seats) while the Grand National Party gained 121 seats and Democratic Party only 9 seats.
- 8) Members can hold two or more positions concurrently if the committee permits.
- 9) Seo, Hyeon-jin 2004
- 10) Nominating in strong Local Constituencies for their party
- 11) This is an address given by Kim Wan-ja on the 20th Forum about Women Policy sponsored by the Korean Women's Development Institution in May 11 2004. She was a candidate of the New Millennium Democratic Party who was defeated by coming in second place in Wansan Eul, North

Jeolla Province.

- 12) Oh Yu-suk 2000.
- 13) Nominating in strong Local Constituencies for their party
- 14) Using The Sequential Data Analysis, this evaluation on the activities of each MNA is a very first attempt in Korea. The Government Inspections of the MNAs in the Standing Committees are evaluated by qualitative analysis using 15 index including the numbers of remarks and of issue makings, capacity in policymaking, numbers of legislative proposals, and the rates of proposals adopted. Besides the data from the Citizens' Coalition for Economic Justice, other data from NGOs such as the Solidarity of Korean Voters' Movement, the Korea Social Science Data Center, the Monitoring Citizens' Network on the Government Inspection, and the NGO Groups Monitoring the Government Inspection, etc., are all included.
- 15) Undoubtedly, efforts of many scholars to inform the justification of the quota system for women and continue to work for its institutionalization must also be included.
- 16) There is still a debate about whether the Medium and Multi-member Constituency is favorable to women than the Single-member Constituency is favorable to women than the Single-member Constituency. It is beside the point to bring up that debate here, hence I will focus on the 'Women Metropolitan Council Constituency' under the Medium and Multi-member Constituency.
- 17) Kim Yeong-hui 2003.

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## Supplement

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Table 1 Electees in The 17th Parliamentary Election

Government	Gender			%F
	Total	Male	Female	
Total	243	233	10	4.1%
Seoul	48	45	3	6.3%
Busan	18	17	1	5.6%
Daegu	12	11	1	8.3%
Incheon	12	12	0	0.0%
Gwangju	7	7	0	0.0%
Daejeon	6	6	0	0.0%
Ulsan	6	6	0	0.0%
Gyeonggi-do	49	45	4	8.2%
Gangwon-do	8	8	0	0.0%
Chungcheongbuk-do	8	8	0	0.0%
Chungcheongnam-do	10	10	0	0.0%
Jeollabuk-do	11	10	1	9.1%
Jeollanam-do	13	13	0	0.0%
Gyeongsangbuk-do	15	15	0	0.0%
Gyeongsangnam-do	17	17	0	0.0%
Jeju-do	3	3	0	0.0%

Table 2 Candidates in The 17th Parliamentary Election

Government	Gender			%F
	Total	Male	Female	
Total	1175	1109	66	5.6%
Seoul	250	235	15	6.0%
Busan	85	78	7	8.2%
Daegu	63	56	7	11.1%
Incheon	58	55	3	5.2%
Gwangju	35	33	2	5.7%
Daejeon	32	32	0	0.0%
Ulsan	27	25	2	7.4%
Gyeonggi-do	220	213	16	7.0%
Gangwon-do	37	36	1	2.7%
Chungcheongbuk-do	36	36	0	0.0%
Chungcheongnam-do	57	52	5	8.8%
Jeollabuk-do	54	52	2	3.7%
Jeollanam-do	56	54	2	3.6%
Gyeongsangbuk-do	69	67	2	2.9%
Gyeongsangnam-do	76	74	2	2.6%
Jeju-do	11	11	0	0.0%

Table 3 Electees in The 16th Parliamentary Election

Government	Gender			%F
	Total	Male	Female	
Total	227	222	5	2.2%
Seoul	45	42	3	6.7%
Busan	17	17	0	0.0%
Daegu	11	10	1	9.1%
Incheon	11	11	0	0.0%
Gwangju	6	5	1	16.7%
Daejeon	6	6	0	0.0%
Ulsan	5	5	0	0.0%
Gyeonggi-do	41	41	0	0.0%
Gangwon-do	9	9	0	0.0%
Chungcheongbuk-do	7	7	0	0.0%
Chungcheongnam-do	11	11	0	0.0%
Jeollabuk-do	10	10	0	0.0%
Jeollanam-do	13	13	0	0.0%
Gyeongsangbuk-do	16	16	0	0.0%
Gyeongsangnam-do	16	16	0	0.0%
Jeju-do	3	3	0	0.0%

Table 4 Candidates in The 16th Parliamentary Election

Government	Gender			%F
	Total	Male	Female	
Total	1,040	1,007	33	3.2%
Seoul	241	221	20	8.3%
Busan	76	75	1	1.3%
Daegu	57	54	3	5.3%
Incheon	43	43	0	0.0%
Gwangju	26	25	1	3.8%
Daejeon	31	31	0	0.0%
Ulsan	20	20	0	0.0%
Gyeonggi-do	171	169	2	1.2%
Gangwon-do	38	38	0	0.0%
Chungcheongbuk-do	30	30	0	0.0%
Chungcheongnam-do	53	52	1	1.9%
Jeollabuk-do	48	45	3	6.3%
Jeollanam-do	55	54	1	1.8%
Gyeongsangbuk-do	64	63	1	1.6%
Gyeongsangnam-do	77	77	0	0.0%
Jeju-do	10	10	0	0.0%



Table 5 Electees in The 15th Parliamentary Election

Government	Gender			%F
	Total	Male	Female	
Total	253	251	2	0.8%
Seoul	47	46	1	2.1%
Busan	21	21	0	0.0%
Daegu	13	13	0	0.0%
Incheon	11	11	0	0.0%
Gwangju	6	6	0	0.0%
Daejeon	7	7	0	0.0%
Gyeonggi-do	38	38	0	0.0%
Gangwon-do	13	13	0	0.0%
Chungcheongbuk-do	8	8	0	0.0%
Chungcheongnam-do	13	13	0	0.0%
Jeollabuk-do	14	14	0	0.0%
Jeollanam-do	17	17	0	0.0%
Gyeongsangbuk-do	19	18	1	5.3%
Gyeongsangnam-do	23	23	0	0.0%
Jeju-do	3	3	0	0.0%

Table 6 Candidates in The 15th Parliamentary Election

Government	Gender			%F
	Total	Male	Female	
Total	1,389	1,367	22	1.6%
Seoul	251	241	10	4.0%
Busan	102	100	2	2.0%
Daegu	104	103	1	1.0%
Incheon	56	56	0	0.0%
Gwangju	27	27	0	0.0%
Daejeon	46	46	0	0.0%
Gyeonggi-do	201	199	2	1.0%
Gangwon-do	75	75	0	0.0%
Chungcheongbuk-do	45	45	0	0.0%
Chungcheongnam-do	66	64	2	3.0%
Jeollabuk-do	65	65	0	0.0%
Jeollanam-do	71	71	0	0.0%
Gyeongsangbuk-do	130	128	2	1.5%
Gyeongsangnam-do	133	130	3	2.3%
Jeju-do	17	17	0	0.0%

Table 9 Electees in The 2nd Broad Local Government Cheep Election

Government	Gender			%F
	Total	Male	Female	
Total	16	16	0	
Seoul	1	1	0	
Busan	1	1	0	
Daegu	1	1	0	
Incheon	1	1	0	
Gwangju	1	1	0	
Daejeon	1	1	0	
Ulsan	1	1	0	
Gyeonggi-do	1	1	0	
Gangwon-do	1	1	0	
Chungcheongbuk-do	1	1	0	
Chungcheongnam-do	1	1	0	
Jeollabuk-do	1	1	0	
Jeollanam-do	1	1	0	
Gyeongsangbuk-do	1	1	0	
Gyeongsangnam-do	1	1	0	
Jeju-do	1	1	0	

Table 10 Candidates in The 2nd Broad Local Government Cheep Election

Government	Gender			%F
	Total	Male	Female	
Total	40	40	0	
Seoul	3	3	0	
Busan	3	3	0	
Daegu	3	3	0	
Incheon	3	3	0	
Gwangju	2	2	0	
Daejeon	3	3	0	
Ulsan	4	4	0	
Gyeonggi-do	2	2	0	
Gangwon-do	3	3	0	
Chungcheongbuk-do	2	2	0	
Chungcheongnam-do	2	2	0	
Jeollabuk-do	1	1	0	
Jeollanam-do	1	1	0	
Gyeongsangbuk-do	2	2	0	
Gyeongsangnam-do	3	3	0	
Jeju-do	3	3	0	

Table 7 Electees in The 1st Broad Local Government Cheep Election

Government	Gender			%F
	Total	Male	Female	
Total	15	15	0	
Seoul	1	1	0	
Busan	1	1	0	
Daegu	1	1	0	
Incheon	1	1	0	
Gwangju	1	1	0	
Daejeon	1	1	0	
Gyeonggi-do	1	1	0	
Gangwon-do	1	1	0	
Chungcheongbuk-do	1	1	0	
Chungcheongnam-do	1	1	0	
Jeollabuk-do	1	1	0	
Jeollanam-do	1	1	0	
Gyeongsangbuk-do	1	1	0	
Gyeongsangnam-do	1	1	0	
Jeju-do	1	1	0	

Table 8 Candidates in The 1st Broad Local Government Cheep Election

Government	Gender			%F
	Total	Male	Female	
Total	56	52	4	7.1%
Seoul	9	7	2	22.2%
Busan	4	4	0	0.0%
Daegu	5	5	0	0.0%
Incheon	3	3	0	0.0%
Gwangju	2	2	0	0.0%
Daejeon	4	4	0	0.0%
Gyeonggi-do	4	4	0	0.0%
Gangwon-do	2	2	0	0.0%
Chungcheongbuk-do	6	6	0	0.0%
Chungcheongnam-do	3	3	0	0.0%
Jeollabuk-do	2	0	2	100.0%
Jeollanam-do	3	3	0	0.0%
Gyeongsangbuk-do	3	3	0	0.0%
Gyeongsangnam-do	2	2	0	0.0%
Jeju-do	4	4	0	0.0%

Table 11 Electees in The 1st Basic Local Government Cheep Election

Government	Gender			%F
	Total	Male	Female	
Total	243	241	2	0.8%
Seoul	25	25	0	0.0%
Busan	16	16	0	0.0%
Daegu	8	8	0	0.0%
Incheon	10	10	0	0.0%
Gwangju	5	5	0	0.0%
Daejeon	5	5	0	0.0%
Gyeonggi-do	31	30	1	3.2%
Gangwon-do	31	30	1	3.2%
Chungcheongbuk-do	11	11	0	0.0%
Chungcheongnam-do	15	15	0	0.0%
Jeollabuk-do	14	14	0	0.0%
Jeollanam-do	24	24	0	0.0%
Gyeongsangbuk-do	23	23	0	0.0%
Gyeongsangnam-do	21	21	0	0.0%
Jeju-do	4	4	0	0.0%

Table 12 Candidates in The 1st Basic Local Government Cheep Election

Government	Gender			%F
	Total	Male	Female	
Total	916	904	12	1.3%
Seoul	89	88	1	1.1%
Busan	49	49	0	0.0%
Daegu	27	27	0	0.0%
Incheon	34	33	1	2.9%
Gwangju	14	14	0	0.0%
Daejeon	21	21	0	0.0%
Gyeonggi-do	137	136	1	0.7%
Gangwon-do	87	87	0	0.0%
Chungcheongbuk-do	48	48	0	0.0%
Chungcheongnam-do	65	65	0	0.0%
Jeollabuk-do	58	50	8	13.8%
Jeollanam-do	85	85	0	0.0%
Gyeongsangbuk-do	92	92	0	0.0%
Gyeongsangnam-do	94	93	1	1.1%
Jeju-do	15	15	0	0.0%

Table 13 Electees in The 2nd Basic Local Government Cheep Election

Government	Gender		
	Total	Male	Female
Total	232	232	0
Seoul	25	25	0
Busan	16	16	0
Daegu	8	8	0
Incheon	10	10	0
Gwangju	5	5	0
Daejeon	5	5	0
Ulsan	5	5	0
Gyeonggi-do	31	31	0
Gangwon-do	18	18	0
Chungcheongbuk-do	11	11	0
Chungcheongnam-do	15	15	0
Jeollabuk-do	14	14	0
Jeollanam-do	22	22	0
Gyeongsangbuk-do	23	23	0
Gyeongsangnam-do	20	20	0
Jeju-do	4	4	0

Table 14 Candidates in The 2nd Basic Local Government Cheep Election

Government	Gender			%F
	Total	Male	Female	
Total	677	669	8	1.2%
Seoul	72	71	1	1.4%
Busan	48	47	1	2.1%
Daegu	26	26	0	0.0%
Incheon	29	28	1	3.4%
Gwangju	8	8	0	0.0%
Daejeon	16	15	1	6.3%
Ulsan	18	18	0	0.0%
Gyeonggi-do	105	104	2	1.9%
Gangwon-do	56	56	0	0.0%
Chungcheongbuk-do	42	42	0	0.0%
Chungcheongnam-do	43	43	0	0.0%
Jeollabuk-do	36	35	1	2.8%
Jeollanam-do	44	44	0	0.0%
Gyeongsangbuk-do	55	55	0	0.0%
Gyeongsangnam-do	67	66	1	1.5%
Jeju-do	11	11	0	0.0%

Table 17 Electees in the 2nd Broad Unit Local Assembly Election

Government	Gender			%F
	Total	Male	Female	
Total	616	602	14	2.3%
Seoul	94	88	6	6.4%
Busan	44	44	0	0.0%
Daegu	26	24	2	7.7%
Incheon	26	23	3	11.5%
Gwangju	14	13	1	7.1%
Daejeon	14	14	0	0.0%
Ulsan	14	14	0	0.0%
Gyeonggi-do	88	87	1	1.1%
Gangwon-do	42	41	1	2.4%
Chungcheongbuk-do	24	24	0	0.0%
Chungcheongnam-do	32	32	0	0.0%
Jeollabuk-do	34	34	0	0.0%
Jeollanam-do	50	50	0	0.0%
Gyeongsangbuk-do	54	54	0	0.0%
Gyeongsangnam-do	46	46	0	0.0%
Jeju-do	14	14	0	0.0%

Table 18 Candidates in the 2nd Broad Unit Local Assembly Election

Government	Gender			%F
	Total	Male	Female	
Total	1,571	1,534	37	2.4%
Seoul	245	237	8	3.3%
Busan	113	112	1	0.9%
Daegu	79	76	3	3.8%
Incheon	74	68	6	8.1%
Gwangju	44	41	3	6.8%
Daejeon	40	40	0	0.0%
Ulsan	49	46	3	6.1%
Gyeonggi-do	208	205	3	1.4%
Gangwon-do	104	102	2	1.9%
Chungcheongbuk-do	64	64	0	0.0%
Chungcheongnam-do	78	76	2	2.6%
Jeollabuk-do	67	66	2	3.0%
Jeollanam-do	117	115	2	1.7%
Gyeongsangbuk-do	135	134	1	0.7%
Gyeongsangnam-do	116	116	0	0.0%
Jeju-do	38	37	1	2.6%

Table 15 Electees in the 1st Broad Unit Local Assembly Election

Government	Gender			%F
	Total	Male	Female	
Total	875	862	13	1.5%
Seoul	133	129	4	3.0%
Busan	55	54	1	1.8%
Daegu	37	37	0	0.0%
Incheon	32	30	2	6.3%
Gwangju	23	21	2	8.7%
Daejeon	23	23	0	0.0%
Gyeonggi-do	123	123	0	0.0%
Gangwon-do	52	50	2	3.8%
Chungcheongbuk-do	36	36	0	0.0%
Chungcheongnam-do	55	54	1	1.8%
Jeollabuk-do	52	51	1	1.9%
Jeollanam-do	66	66	0	0.0%
Gyeongsangbuk-do	84	84	0	0.0%
Gyeongsangnam-do	85	85	0	0.0%
Jeju-do	17	17	0	0.0%

Table 16 Candidates in the 1st Broad Unit Local Assembly Election

Government	Gender			%F
	Total	Male	Female	
Total	2,378	2,327	51	2.1%
Seoul	349	339	10	2.9%
Busan	127	125	2	1.6%
Daegu	124	123	1	0.8%
Incheon	89	84	5	5.6%
Gwangju	59	56	3	5.1%
Daejeon	91	89	2	2.2%
Gyeonggi-do	334	332	2	0.6%
Gangwon-do	145	143	2	1.4%
Chungcheongbuk-do	102	102	0	0.0%
Chungcheongnam-do	153	152	1	0.7%
Jeollabuk-do	142	126	16	11.3%
Jeollanam-do	181	179	2	1.1%
Gyeongsangbuk-do	210	209	1	0.5%
Gyeongsangnam-do	227	223	4	1.8%
Jeju-do	45	45	0	0.0%

Table 19 Electees in the 1st Basic Unit Local Assembly Election

Government	Gender			%F
	Total	Male	Female	
Total	4145	4095	50	1.2%
Seoul	513	495	18	3.5%
Busan	325	324	2	0.6%
Daegu	199	195	4	2.0%
Incheon	123	121	2	1.6%
Gwangju	114	111	3	2.6%
Daejeon	108	104	2	1.9%
Ulsan	597	584	13	2.2%
Gyeonggi-do	239	239	0	0.0%
Gangwon-do	180	178	2	1.1%
Chungcheongbuk-do	223	223	0	0.0%
Chungcheongnam-do	255	255	0	0.0%
Jeollabuk-do	343	342	1	0.3%
Jeollanam-do	398	397	1	0.3%
Gyeongsangbuk-do	449	447	2	0.4%
Gyeongsangnam-do	50	50	0	0.0%

Table 20 Candidates in the 1st Basic Unit Local Assembly Election

Government	Gender			%F
	Total	Male	Female	
Total	11,487	11,249	238	2.1%
Seoul	1,622	1,553	69	4.3%
Busan	700	694	6	0.9%
Daegu	444	437	7	1.6%
Incheon	389	389	0	0.0%
Gwangju	297	289	8	2.7%
Daejeon	289	282	7	2.4%
Gyeonggi-do	1,536	1,511	25	1.6%
Gangwon-do	746	744	2	0.3%
Chungcheongbuk-do	473	466	7	1.5%
Chungcheongnam-do	659	658	1	0.2%
Jeollabuk-do	878	832	46	5.2%
Jeollanam-do	1,084	1,079	5	0.5%
Gyeongsangbuk-do	1,050	1,049	1	0.1%
Gyeongsangnam-do	1,246	1,233	13	1.0%
Jeju-do	124	123	1	0.8%

Table 21 Electees in the 2nd Basic Unit Local Assembly Election

Government	Gender			%F
	Total	Male	Female	
Total	3,490	3,433	56	1.6%
Seoul	520	494	26	5.0%
Busan	224	222	2	0.9%
Daegu	146	143	3	2.1%
Incheon	135	130	5	3.7%
Gwangju	81	77	4	4.9%
Daejeon	75	74	1	1.3%
Ulsan	59	57	2	3.4%
Gyeonggi-do	466	458	8	1.7%
Gangwon-do	195	195	0	0.0%
Chungcheongbuk-do	146	145	1	0.7%
Chungcheongnam-do	206	206	0	0.0%
Jeollabuk-do	249	246	3	1.2%
Jeollanam-do	295	295	0	0.0%
Gyeongsangbuk-do	342	341	1	0.3%
Gyeongsangnam-do	309	309	0	0.0%
Jeju-do	41	41	0	0.0%

Table 22 Candidates in the 2nd Basic Unit Local Assembly Election

Government	Gender			%F
	Total	Male	Female	
Total	7,754	7,614	140	1.8%
Seoul	1,290	1,231	59	4.6%
Busan	409	405	4	1.0%
Daegu	245	240	5	2.0%
Incheon	314	303	11	3.5%
Gwangju	188	182	6	3.2%
Daejeon	184	182	2	1.1%
Ulsan	117	111	6	5.1%
Gyeonggi-do	1,132	1,106	26	2.3%
Gangwon-do	446	443	3	0.7%
Chungcheongbuk-do	309	306	3	1.0%
Chungcheongnam-do	472	470	2	0.4%
Jeollabuk-do	568	564	4	0.7%
Jeollanam-do	710	715	3	0.4%
Gyeongsangbuk-do	660	657	3	0.5%
Gyeongsangnam-do	615	612	3	0.5%
Jeju-do	87	87	0	0.0%

Source: Table 1 - Table 22 The Central Election Management Commission Website (www.nec.go.kr)

Table 23 Gender-related development index(GDI) 2004

Nation	Gender-related development (GDI)		Life expectancy at birth (2001)		Adult literacy rate (2001)		Combined gross enrollment ratio for primary, secondary and tertiary level school (2000-2001)		Estimated earned income (PPP \$) 2001		HDI rank	HDI rank minus GDI rank
	Rank	Value	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male		
Norway	1	0.955	81.8	75.9	--	--	102	94	31,356	42,340	1	0
Sweden	2	0.946	82.5	77.5	--	--	124	104	23,781	28,700	2	0
Australia	3	0.945	82	76.4	--	--	114	111	23,643	33,259	3	0
Canada	4	0.941	81.9	76.6	--	--	96	93	22,964	36,299	4	0
Netherlands	5	0.938	81	75.6	--	--	99	100	20,358	38,266	5	0
Belgium	7	0.928	81.8	75.6	--	--	115	107	18,526	37,180	6	-1
Iceland	6	0.928	81.9	77.6	--	--	95	86	22,716	36,043	7	1
United States	8	0.926	79.8	74.2	--	--	95	89	27,338	43,797	8	0
Japan	12	0.932	85	77.8	--	--	83	85	16,977	37,208	9	-3
Ireland	14	0.929	79.5	74.3	--	--	94	87	21,066	52,008	10	-4
Switzerland	11	0.932	82.3	75.9	--	--	86	90	20,459	40,769	11	0
United Kingdom	9	0.934	80.6	75.6	--	--	119	107	19,807	32,964	12	3
Finland	10	0.933	81.4	74.3	--	--	111	102	21,645	30,970	13	3
Austria	17	0.924	81.4	75.3	--	--	92	91	15,410	43,169	14	-3
Luxembourg	16	0.926	81.3	75	--	--	75	74	33,517	68,603	15	-1
France	15	0.929	82.7	75.1	--	--	93	90	19,923	33,950	16	1
Denmark	13	0.931	79	74.1	--	--	99	92	26,074	36,161	17	4
New Zealand	18	0.924	80.7	75.7	--	--	107	96	18,168	26,481	18	0
Germany	19	0.921	81.1	75.1	--	--	88	89	18,763	35,885	19	0
Spain	20	0.916	82.7	75.8	96.9	98.7	95	89	13,209	29,971	20	0
Italy	21	0.914	81.9	75.5	98.1	98.9	84	81	16,702	36,959	21	0
Israel	22	0.906	80.9	77	93.4	97.3	94	89	14,201	26,636	22	0
Hong Kong, China (SAR)	23	0.898	82.7	77.2	89.6	96.9	70	73	18,805	33,776	23	0
Greece	25	0.894	80.9	75.7	96.1	96.6	88	84	10,892	25,601	24	-1
Singapore	26	0.884	80.2	75.8	88.6	96.6	75	76	15,622	31,927	25	-3
Portugal	24	0.894	79.5	72.5	90.3	95.2	97	90	13,064	24,373	26	2
Slovenia	26	0.892	79.7	72.5	99.6	99.7	94	86	14,064	22,832	27	1
Korea, Rep. of	29	0.882	79.2	71.7	95.6	99.2	85	98	10,747	23,226	28	-1
Barbados	27	0.884	79.4	74.4	99.7	99.7	93	84	11,634	19,116	29	2
Cyprus	30	0.875	80.6	75.9	96.1	98.6	76	74	11,223	23,916	30	0
Malta	31	0.866	80.6	75.8	93.4	91.8	77	77	9,654	26,160	31	0
Czech Republic	32	0.865	78.6	72	--	--	79	78	11,322	20,370	32	0
Brunei Darussalam	--	--	78.8	74.1	91.4	96.3	75	72	--	--	33	--
Argentina	36	0.841	77.6	70.5	97	97	98	90	5,862	15,431	34	-3
Seychelles	--	--	--	--	92.3	91.4	86	85	--	--	35	--
Estonia	33	0.852	76.7	66.3	99.8	99.8	101	92	9,777	16,571	36	1
Poland	34	0.848	77.9	69.7	99.7	99.8	93	87	8,120	13,149	37	1
Hungary	35	0.847	75.9	67.6	99.2	99.5	89	84	10,307	17,465	38	1
Saint Kitts and Nevis	--	--	--	--	--	--	111	85	--	--	39	--
Bahrain	39	0.832	75.6	72.4	84.2	91.5	82	77	7,961	23,505	40	-2
Lithuania	37	0.841	77.5	67.4	99.6	99.6	93	87	8,419	12,518	41	1
Slovenia	38	0.84	77.5	69.6	99.7	99.7	75	73	10,127	16,617	42	1
Chile	40	0.83	78.9	72.9	96.6	96.8	79	80	5,442	14,266	43	0
Kuwait	42	0.827	78.9	74.8	81	84.7	81	71	7,116	20,979	44	-1





## Gender empowerment measure(GEM) 2004

Nation	Gender empowerment measure (GEM)		Seats in parliament held by women	Female legislators, senior officials and managers	Female professional and technical workers	Ratio of estimated female to male earned income	HDI rank
	Rank	Value					
United Arab Emirates	46	0.511	11.5	37.0	52.0	0.52	46
Latvia		--	?	d.	--	--	47
Bahamas	36	0.560	17.8	26.0	51.0	0.56	48
Cuba		--	0.0	8.0	25.0	--	49
Mexico	29	0.591	21.0	37.0	66.0	0.69	50
Trinidad and Tobago	17	0.699	26.8	31.0	58.0	0.65	51
Antigua and Barbuda		--	36.0	--	--	--	52
Mexico	34	0.563	21.2	25.0	40.0	0.38	53
Trinidad and Tobago	22	0.644	26.4	40.0	51.0	0.45	54
Antigua and Barbuda		--	8.3	--	--	--	56
Bulgaria		--	26.3	--	--	0.66	56
Russian Federation	55	0.467	8.0	37.0	64.0	0.64	57
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya		--	--	--	--	--	58
Malaysia	44	0.519	16.3	20.0	45.0	0.40	59
Macedonia, FYR	45	0.517	18.3	19.0	51.0	0.55	60
Panama	52	0.486	9.9	38.0	49.0	0.50	61
Belarus		--	18.4	--	--	0.65	62
Tonga		--	0.0	--	--	--	63
Mauritius		--	5.7	--	--	0.37	64
Albania		--	5.7	--	--	0.56	65
Bosnia and Herzegovina		--	12.3	--	--	--	66
Suriname		--	17.6	28.0	51.0	--	67
Venezuela	61	0.444	9.7	27.0	61.0	0.41	68
Romania	56	0.465	9.3	31.0	56.0	0.58	69
Ukraine	65	0.411	5.3	38.0	64.0	0.53	70
Saint Lucia		--	20.7	--	--	--	71
Rezel		--	9.1	--	62.0	0.42	72
Colombia	48	0.408	10.8	38.0	50.0	0.53	73
Oman		--	?	--	--	0.22	74
Samoa (Western)		--	6.1	--	--	--	75
Thailand	57	0.461	9.6	27.0	55.0	0.61	76
Saudi Arabia	77	0.207	0.0	1.0	31.0	0.21	77
Kazakhstan		--	8.6	--	--	0.59	78
Jamaica		--	13.6	--	--	0.66	79
Lebanon		--	2.3	--	--	0.31	80
Fiji	71	0.335	6.0	51.0	9.0	0.36	81
America		--	4.6	--	--	0.69	82
Philippines	37	0.542	17.2	58.0	62.0	0.59	83
Maldives		--	6.0	15.0	40.0	--	84
Peru	42	0.524	18.3	27.0	44.0	0.27	85
Turkmenistan		--	26.0	--	--	0.53	86
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines		--	22.7	--	--	--	87
Turkey	73	0.290	4.4	7.0	31.0	0.60	88
Paraguay	63	0.417	8.8	23.0	54.0	0.33	89
Jordan		--	7.9	--	--	0.31	90

## Gender empowerment measure(GEM) 2004

Nation	Gender empowerment measure (GEM)		Seats in parliament held by women	Female legislators, senior officials and managers	Female professional and technical workers	Ratio of estimated female to male earned income	HDI rank
	Rank	Value					
Azerbaijan		--	10.5	--	--	0.57	91
Tunisia		--	11.5	--	--	0.36	92
Grenada		--	28.6	--	--	--	93
China		--	20.2	--	--	0.66	94
Dominica		--	18.8	--	--	--	95
Sri Lanka	74	0.276	4.4	4.0	49.0	0.57	96
Georgia	67	0.387	7.2	28.0	64.0	0.40	97
Dominican Republic	40	0.527	15.4	31.0	49.0	0.36	98
Belize	59	0.455	9.3	31.0	52.0	0.24	99
Ecuador	50	0.490	16.0	25.0	41.0	0.30	100
Iran, Islamic Rep. of	72	0.313	4.1	13.0	33.0	0.29	101
Occupied Palestinian Territories		--	--	10.0	33.0	--	102
El Salvador	60	0.448	10.7	26.0	46.0	0.36	103
Guyana		--	20.0	--	--	0.39	104
Cape Verde		--	11.1	--	--	0.46	105
Syrian Arab Republic		--	12.0	--	--	0.28	106
Uzbekistan		--	7.2	--	--	0.66	107
Algeria		--	--	--	--	0.31	108
Equatorial Guinea		--	5.0	--	--	0.40	109
Kyrgyzstan		--	6.7	--	--	0.65	110
Indonesia		--	8.0	--	--	0.61	111
Viet Nam		--	27.3	--	--	0.69	112
Moldova, Rep. of	54	0.469	12.9	40.0	64.0	0.65	113
Bolivia	41	0.524	17.8	36.0	40.0	0.45	114
Honduras	70	0.355	5.5	22.0	36.0	0.37	115
Tajikistan		--	12.4	--	--	0.62	116
Mongolia	62	0.429	10.5	30.0	66.0	0.67	117
Nicaragua		--	20.7	--	--	0.44	118
South Africa		--	27.9	--	--	0.45	119
Egypt	75	0.266	3.6	9.0	30.0	0.38	120
Guatemala		--	8.2	--	--	0.33	121
Gabon		--	11.0	--	--	0.59	122
Sao Tome and Principe		--	9.1	--	--	--	123
Solomon Islands		--	0.0	--	--	0.69	124
Morocco		--	--	--	--	0.40	125
Namibia	33	0.572	21.4	30.0	55.0	0.51	126
India		--	9.3	--	--	0.38	127
Botswana	35	0.562	17.0	35.0	52.0	0.51	128
Vanuatu		--	1.9	--	--	--	129
Cambodia	69	0.364	10.9	14.0	33.0	0.77	130
Ghana		--	9.0	--	--	0.75	131
Myanmar		--	--	--	--	--	132
Papua New Guinea		--	0.9	--	--	0.58	133
Bhutan		--	9.3	--	--	--	134
Lao People's Dem. Rep.		--	22.9	--	--	0.65	135







Gender-related development index (GDI) 2003

Nation	Gender-related development (GDI)		Life expectancy at birth (1994)		Adult literacy rate (1992)		Combined gross enrollment ratio for primary, secondary and tertiary level school (1994)		Estimated earned income 1994		HDI rank	HDI rank minus GDI rank
	Rank	Value	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male		
Cote d'Ivoire	134	0.376	42.1	41.2	38.4	64	31	46	792	2,160	161	-2
Chad	135	0.366	45.7	43.5	35.8	67	24	43	796	1,350	165	0
Guinea-Bissau	137	0.353	46.7	43.5	24.7	45	34	52	696	1,313	166	-1
Congo, Dem. Rep. of the	136	0.353	41.7	39.6	51.8	70	24	30	486	879	167	1
Central African Republic	138	0.352	41.8	39.1	36.6	60	20	29	967	1,632	168	0
Ethiopia	139	0.347	46.7	44.6	32.4	67	27	41	550	1,074	169	0
Mozambique	140	0.341	40.9	37.4	30.0	49	32	42	916	1,382	170	0
Burundi	141	0.331	41.0	39.9	42.0	74	28	35	573	814	171	0
Mali	142	0.327	48.9	47.8	16.6	45	26	38	615	1,009	172	0
Burkina Faso	143	0.317	46.4	45.0	14.9	43	18	27	927	1,323	173	0
Niger	144	0.279	45.9	45.3	8.9	36	14	21	646	1,129	174	0
Seychelles	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	36	--
Qatar	--	--	75.0	70.1	83.7	104	85	78	--	--	44	--
Saint Kitts and Nevis	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	61	--
Cuba	--	--	78.5	74.6	96.7	100	77	75	--	--	52	--
Antigua and Barbuda	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	56	--
Macedonia, FYR	--	--	75.5	71.2	--	--	70	70	--	--	60	--
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	--	--	75.0	70.4	69.3	76	91	87	--	--	61	--
Bosnia and Herzegovina	--	--	76.5	71.1	--	--	--	--	--	--	66	--
Dominica	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	68	--
Samoa (Western)	--	--	73.0	66.5	96.4	99	72	70	--	--	70	--
Saint Lucia	--	--	73.8	70.5	--	--	81	83	--	--	71	--
Suriname	--	--	73.4	68.2	--	--	79	75	--	--	77	--
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	--	--	75.3	72.4	--	--	--	--	--	--	80	--
Maldives	--	--	66.3	67.4	96.9	100	79	78	--	--	86	--
Turkmenistan	--	--	70.0	63.3	--	--	81	81	--	--	87	--
Georgia	--	--	77.4	69.2	--	--	70	69	1,507	3,712	88	--
Azerbaijan	--	--	75.2	66.3	--	--	69	69	--	--	89	--
Grenada	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	--	90	--
Occupied Palestinian Territories	--	--	73.7	70.5	--	--	78	76	--	--	98	--
Kyrgyzstan	--	--	71.9	64.2	--	--	80	79	--	--	102	--
Equatorial Guinea	--	--	60.4	47.6	76.0	82	49	68	--	--	116	--
Gabon	--	--	57.7	55.6	--	--	81	85	--	--	118	--
Sao Tome and Principe	--	--	72.4	66.6	--	--	--	--	--	--	122	--
Solomon Islands	--	--	70.1	67.5	--	--	--	--	--	--	123	--
Vanuatu	--	--	70.1	67.1	--	--	54	54	--	--	128	--
Myanmar	--	--	59.8	54.4	81.0	91	48	47	--	--	131	--
Bhutan	--	--	63.8	61.3	--	--	--	--	--	--	136	--
Djibouti	--	--	47.3	44.9	55.5	73	19	23	--	--	153	--
Guinea	--	--	48.9	48.1	--	--	26	41	--	--	157	--
Angola	--	--	41.6	36.8	--	--	26	31	--	--	164	--
Sierra Leone	--	--	35.8	33.2	--	--	44	57	--	--	175	--

Source: UNDP 2003.

Table 26 Gender empowerment measure (GEM) 2003

Nation	Gender empowerment measure (GEM)		Seats in parliament held by women	Female legislators, senior officials and managers	Female professional and technical workers	Ratio of estimated female to male earned income	HDI rank
	Rank	Value					
Iceland	1	0.847	34.9	31	56	0.63	2
Norway	2	0.837	36.4	26	48	0.65	1
Sweden	3	0.831	45.3	30	49	0.68	3
Denmark	4	0.825	38.0	21	51	0.71	11
Finland	5	0.801	36.5	26	57	0.70	14
Netherlands	6	0.794	33.3	26	48	0.53	5
Austria	7	0.782	30.6	29	48	0.50	16
Germany	8	0.776	31.4	27	50	0.57	18
Canada	9	0.771	23.6	38	53	0.63	8
United States	10	0.760	14.0	46	54	0.62	7
Australia	11	0.754	26.5	25	45	0.70	4
New Zealand	12	0.750	29.2	38	53	0.68	20
Switzerland	13	0.720	22.4	24	43	0.50	10
Spain	14	0.709	26.6	32	45	0.44	19
Belgium	15	0.695	24.9	19	50	0.44	6
Ireland	16	0.683	14.2	28	49	0.40	12
United Kingdom	17	0.675	17.1	30	43	0.60	13
Bahamas	18	0.671	23.2	31	56	0.64	49
Costa Rica	19	0.670	35.1	53	26	0.38	42
Barbados	20	0.658	20.4	40	55	0.61	27
Portugal	21	0.647	19.1	32	50	0.53	23
Trinidad and Tobago	22	0.642	26.4	40	51	0.46	54
Israel	23	0.612	15.0	27	54	0.53	22
Slovakia	24	0.598	19.3	31	61	0.65	39
Singapore	26	0.594	11.8	24	43	0.50	28
Poland	25	0.594	20.7	32	60	0.62	35
Slovenia	27	0.582	12.2	31	54	0.62	29
Czech Republic	28	0.570	15.7	26	53	0.55	32
Namibia	29	0.578	21.4	30	55	0.51	124
Latvia	30	0.576	21.0	38	68	0.70	50
Botswana	31	0.564	17.0	35	52	0.60	125
Italy	32	0.561	10.3	19	44	0.45	21
Estonia	33	0.560	17.8	35	70	0.63	41
Cyprus	34	0.542	10.7	18	43	0.47	25
Philippines	35	0.530	17.2	58	62	0.58	65
Croatia	36	0.534	16.2	25	50	0.55	47
Dominican Republic	37	0.529	15.4	31	49	0.36	94
Bolivia	38	0.522	17.8	36	40	0.45	114
Peru	39	0.521	18.3	27	44	0.26	82
Greece	40	0.519	8.7	25	47	0.45	24
Hungary	41	0.518	9.8	34	61	0.58	38
Mexico	42	0.516	15.9	25	40	0.38	55
Uruguay	43	0.516	11.5	37	52	0.52	40
Japan	44	0.515	10.0	9	45	0.45	9

## Gender empowerment measure(GEM) 2003

Nation	Gender empowerment measure (GEM)		Seats in parliament held by women	Female legislators, senior officials and managers	Female professional and technical workers	Ratio of estimated female to male earned income	HDI rank
	Rank	Value					
Malaysia	45	0.503	14.5	50	45	0.47	58
Colombia	46	0.501	10.8	38	49	0.47	64
Belize	47	0.501	13.5	33	53	0.24	67
Lithuania	48	0.499	10.6	47	69	0.66	45
Ecuador	49	0.489	16.0	25	44	0.30	97
Panama	50	0.471	9.9	33	46	0.42	59
Moldova, Rep. of	51	0.468	12.9	37	66	0.65	108
Chile	52	0.467	10.1	24	50	0.38	43
Romania	53	0.460	9.9	29	57	0.68	72
El Salvador	54	0.459	9.5	33	47	0.35	106
Thailand	55	0.457	9.6	27	55	0.61	74
Venezuela	56	0.441	9.7	24	56	0.41	69
Russian Federation	57	0.440	6.4	37	64	0.64	63
Pakistan	58	0.414	20.6	9	26	0.32	144
Paraguay	59	0.412	8.0	23	54	0.33	84
Honduras	60	0.408	5.5	36	51	0.37	115
Ukraine	61	0.406	5.3	37	63	0.53	75
Georgia	62	0.381	7.2	23	60	0.41	86
Korea, Rep. of	63	0.363	5.9	5	34	0.45	30
Cambodia	64	0.347	9.3	14	33	0.77	130
United Arab Emirates	65	0.315	0.0	8	25	0.21	48
Turkey	66	0.290	4.4	8	31	0.46	96
Sri Lanka	67	0.272	4.4	4	49	0.50	99
Egypt	68	0.253	2.4	10	29	0.39	120
Bangladesh	69	0.218	2.0	8	25	0.56	139
Yemen	70	0.127	0.7	4	15	0.30	148
Luxembourg	--	--	16.7	--	--	--	15
France	--	--	11.7	--	--	--	17
Hong Kong, China (SAR)	--	--	--	25	36	--	26
Brunei Darussalam	--	--	?	--	--	--	31
Malta	--	--	9.2	--	--	--	33
Argentina	--	--	31.3	--	--	--	34
Seychelles	--	--	29.4	--	--	--	36
Bahrain	--	--	6.3	--	--	--	37
Qatar	--	--	?	--	--	--	44
Kuwait	--	--	0.0	--	--	--	46
Saint Kitts and Nevis	--	--	13.3	--	--	--	51
Cuba	--	--	36.0	--	--	--	52
Belize	--	--	18.4	--	--	--	53
Antigua and Barbuda	--	--	8.3	--	--	--	56
Bulgaria	--	--	25.3	--	--	--	57
Macedonia, FYR	--	--	16.3	--	--	--	60
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	--	--	--	--	--	--	61
Mauritius	--	--	5.7	--	--	--	62

## Gender empowerment measure(GEM) 2003

Nation	Gender empowerment measure (GEM)		Seats in parliament held by women	Female legislators, senior officials and managers	Female professional and technical workers	Ratio of estimated female to male earned income	HDI rank
	Rank	Value					
Brazil	--	--	9.1	--	62	--	65
Bosnia and Herzegovina	--	--	12.3	--	--	--	66
Dominica	--	--	18.8	--	--	--	68
Samoa (Western)	--	--	6.1	--	--	--	70
Saint Lucia	--	--	20.7	--	--	--	71
Saudi Arabia	--	--	?	--	--	--	73
Kazakhstan	--	--	8.6	--	--	--	76
Suriname	--	--	17.6	28	51	--	77
Jamaica	--	--	13.6	--	--	--	78
Oman	--	--	?	--	--	--	79
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	--	--	22.7	--	--	--	80
Fiji	--	--	5.7	--	--	--	81
Lebanon	--	--	2.3	--	--	--	83
Maldives	--	--	6.0	15	40	--	86
Turkmenistan	--	--	26.0	--	--	--	87
Azerbaijan	--	--	10.5	--	--	--	89
Jordan	--	--	3.0	--	--	--	90
Tunisia	--	--	11.5	--	--	--	91
Guyana	--	--	20.0	--	--	--	92
Grenada	--	--	17.9	--	--	--	93
Albania	--	--	6.7	--	--	--	95
Occupied Palestinian Territories	--	--	--	11	32	--	96
Armenia	--	--	3.1	--	--	--	100
Uzbekistan	--	--	7.2	--	--	--	101
Kyrgyzstan	--	--	6.7	--	--	--	102
Cape Verde	--	--	11.1	--	--	--	103
China	--	--	21.8	--	--	--	104
Iran, Islamic Rep. of	--	--	4.1	--	--	--	106
Algeria	--	--	6.0	--	--	--	107
Viet Nam	--	--	27.3	--	--	--	109
Syrian Arab Republic	--	--	10.4	--	--	--	110
South Africa	--	--	30.0	--	--	--	111
Indonesia	--	--	8.0	--	--	--	112
Tajikistan	--	--	12.4	--	--	--	113
Equatorial Guinea	--	--	5.0	--	--	--	116
Mongolia	--	--	10.5	--	--	--	117
Gabon	--	--	11.0	--	--	--	118
Guatemala	--	--	8.8	--	--	--	119
Nicaragua	--	--	20.7	--	--	--	121
Sao Tome and Principe	--	--	9.1	--	--	--	122
Solomon Islands	--	--	0.0	--	--	--	123
Morocco	--	--	6.1	--	--	--	126
India	--	--	9.3	--	--	--	127

Gender empowerment measure(GEM) 2003

Nation	Gender empowerment measure (GEM)		Seats in parliament held by women	Female legislators, senior officials and managers	Female professional and technical workers	Ratio of estimated female to male earned income	HDI rank
	Rank	Value					
Vanuatu	--	--	1.9	--	--	--	128
Chana	--	--	9.0	--	--	--	129
Myanmar	--	--	--	--	--	--	131
Papua New Guinea	--	--	0.9	--	--	--	132
Swaziland	--	--	6.3	--	--	--	133
Comoros	--	--	--	--	--	--	134
Lao People's Dem. Rep.	--	--	22.9	--	--	--	135
Bhutan	--	--	9.3	--	--	--	136
Lesotho	--	--	17.0	--	--	--	137
Sudan	--	--	9.7	--	--	--	138
Congo	--	--	11.1	--	--	--	140
Togo	--	--	7.4	--	--	--	141
Cameroon	--	--	8.9	--	--	--	142
Nepal	--	--	7.9	--	--	--	143
Zimbabwe	--	--	10.0	--	--	--	145
Kenya	--	--	7.1	--	--	--	146
Uganda	--	--	24.7	--	--	--	147
Madagascar	--	--	6.4	--	--	--	149
Haiti	--	--	9.1	--	--	--	150
Gambia	--	--	13.2	--	--	--	151
Nigeria	--	--	3.3	--	--	--	152
Djibouti	--	--	10.8	--	--	--	153
Mauritania	--	--	3.0	--	--	--	154
Eritrea	--	--	22.0	--	--	--	155
Senegal	--	--	19.2	--	--	--	156
Guinea	--	--	19.3	--	--	--	157
Rwanda	--	--	26.7	--	--	--	158
Benin	--	--	6.0	--	--	--	159
Tanzania, U. Rep. of	--	--	22.3	--	--	--	160
Cote d'Ivoire	--	--	8.5	--	--	--	161
Malawi	--	--	9.3	--	--	--	162
Zambia	--	--	12.0	--	--	--	163
Angola	--	--	15.5	--	--	--	164
Chad	--	--	6.8	--	--	--	166
Guinea-Bissau	--	--	7.8	--	--	--	166
Congo, Dem. Rep. of the	--	--	--	--	--	--	167
Central African Republic	--	--	7.3	--	--	--	168
Ethiopia	--	--	7.8	--	--	--	169
Mozambique	--	--	30.0	--	--	--	170
Burundi	--	--	18.5	--	--	--	171
Mali	--	--	10.2	--	--	--	172
Burkina Faso	--	--	11.7	--	--	--	173
Niger	--	--	1.2	--	--	--	174
Sierra Leone	--	--	14.5	--	--	--	175

Source: UNDP 2003

Table 27 Gender-related development index (GDI) 1999

Nation	Gender-related development (GDI)		Life expectancy at birth (1994)		Adult literacy rate (1992)		Combined gross enrollment ratio for primary, secondary and tertiary level school (1994)		Estimated earned income 1994		HDI rank	HDI rank minus GDI rank
	Rank	Value	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male		
Canada	1	0.928	81.8	76.1	--	--	100	96	17,254	27,806	1	0
Norway	2	0.927	81.1	75.2	--	--	96	93	20,872	26,095	2	0
United States	3	0.926	80.1	73.4	--	--	97	91	23,540	34,639	3	0
Australia	4	0.921	81.1	75.5	--	--	100	100	16,526	23,944	7	3
Sweden	5	0.919	80.8	76.3	--	--	100	96	17,829	21,789	6	1
Belgium	6	0.918	80.6	73.8	--	--	100	100	19,219	30,565	5	-1
Iceland	7	0.918	81.3	76.8	--	--	89	86	19,183	25,777	9	2
Japan	8	0.917	82.9	76.8	--	--	83	86	14,625	33,893	4	-4
Netherlands	9	0.916	80.7	75.0	--	--	97	100	14,483	27,877	8	-1
France	10	0.916	82.0	74.2	--	--	94	91	17,176	27,134	11	1
United Kingdom	11	0.915	79.8	74.5	--	--	100	99	15,736	25,917	10	-1
Switzerland	12	0.909	81.8	76.4	--	--	76	83	16,802	33,878	12	0
Finland	13	0.908	80.6	73.0	--	--	100	94	16,016	26,822	13	0
Denmark	14	0.904	78.3	73.0	--	--	91	87	19,733	27,741	15	1
Germany	15	0.904	80.2	73.9	--	--	87	89	16,780	25,962	14	-1
New Zealand	16	0.900	79.7	74.1	--	--	99	92	13,757	21,177	18	2
Austria	17	0.898	80.2	73.7	--	--	85	86	14,099	30,337	16	-1
Italy	18	0.894	81.2	75.0	97.8	99	83	80	12,634	28,406	19	1
Luxembourg	19	0.894	79.9	73.3	--	--	89	89	17,326	44,956	17	-2
Ireland	20	0.892	79.2	73.6	--	--	90	86	11,686	29,973	20	0
Spain	21	0.888	81.5	74.5	96.2	98	94	89	9,568	22,569	21	0
Singapore	22	0.883	79.3	74.9	87.0	91	71	74	18,947	37,833	22	0
Israel	23	0.879	79.7	75.7	93.4	96	81	79	12,387	24,007	23	0
Hong Kong, China(SAR)	24	0.875	81.4	75.8	88.4	92	67	64	15,180	32,688	24	0
Brunei Darussalam	25	0.872	78.1	73.4	86.0	92	73	71	17,637	40,781	25	0
Greece	26	0.861	20.7	76.6	94.9	97	79	79	8,248	17,429	27	0
Barbados	27	0.854	78.7	73.7	97.0	99	80	80	9,252	14,946	29	1
Portugal	28	0.853	78.8	71.8	88.3	94	93	88	9,445	19,469	28	-1
Bahamas	29	0.849	77.1	70.5	96.4	101	77	71	13,296	20,232	31	1
Korea, Rep. of	30	0.845	76.0	68.8	95.5	97	84	94	8,388	18,706	30	-1
Slovenia	31	0.842	78.2	70.6	99.0	100	78	74	9,137	14,619	33	1
Malta	32	0.834	79.3	74.9	91.7	101	77	78	5,733	20,772	32	-1
Chile	33	0.832	78.3	72.3	94.9	100	76	78	5,863	19,749	34	0
Czech Republic	34	0.830	77.4	70.3	--	--	74	74	7,962	13,206	36	1
Kuwait	35	0.825	78.2	74.1	77.5	93	59	56	13,481	36,544	35	-1
Uruguay	36	0.823	78.0	70.5	97.8	101	81	74	6,305	12,275	40	2
Argentina	37	0.814	76.8	69.7	96.5	100	82	77	4,835	15,976	39	0
Bahrain	38	0.813	76.3	71.1	80.7	90	84	79	5,512	24,772	37	-2
Slovenia	39	0.811	76.7	69.2	--	--	76	74	6,386	9,532	42	1
Poland	40	0.800	76.9	68.2	99.0	100	78	77	5,061	2,069	44	2
Qatar	41	0.796	75.4	70.0	81.2	102	74	69	5,193	29,165	41	-2
Costa Rica	42	0.795	78.9	74.3	95.1	100	65	66	3,643	9,575	45	1
Hungary	43	0.792	74.9	66.8	99.0	100	75	73	5,372	9,194	47	2
Trinidad and Tobago	44	0.790	76.2	71.5	97.0	98	66	67	4,101	9,600	46	0



Gender-related development index (GDI) 1999

Nation	Gender-related development (GDI)		Life expectancy at birth (1994)		Adult literacy rate (1992)		Combined gross enrollment ratio for primary, secondary and tertiary level school (1994)		Estimated earned income 1994		HDI rank	HDI rank minus GDI rank
	Rank	Value	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male		
Mali	136	0.367	54.6	52.0	28.3	65	20	31	563	902	166	1
Central African Republic	137	0.366	46.9	42.9	30.1	63	20	33	1,032	1,646	166	-1
Mozambique	138	0.326	46.6	43.9	26.0	44	20	29	612	872	169	1
Guinea-Bissau	139	0.318	46.5	43.5	18.3	37	24	43	580	1,151	168	-1
Burundi	140	0.317	43.8	41.0	36.1	67	20	25	527	738	170	0
Burkina Faso	141	0.291	45.2	43.6	11.2	36	15	24	807	1,214	171	0
Ethiopia	142	0.287	44.3	42.4	29.2	70	18	31	349	670	172	0
Nigeria	143	0.285	50.1	46.9	7.2	33	11	19	636	1,069	173	0
Myanmar	144	0.276	61.8	58.5	78.8	89	54	55	882	1,519	128	2
Cyprus	..	..	20.0	75.6	93.6	96	..	..	8,036	20,329	26	..
Antigua and Barbuda	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	38	..
Saint Kitts and Nevis	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	51	..
Grenada	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	52	..
Dominica	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	53	..
Suriname	..	..	72.7	67.5	91.6	..	..	..	2,794	7,569	64	..
Seychelles	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	66	..
Samoa (Western)	..	..	73.6	69.3	..	..	67	66	1,560	5,379	70	..
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	75	..
Saint Lucia	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	81	..
Belize	..	..	76.1	73.4	..	..	82	72	1,617	6,928	83	..
Georgia	..	..	76.8	68.5	..	..	71	70	1,521	2,440	85	..
Ukraine	..	..	73.7	63.8	..	..	80	74	1,891	2,763	91	..
Uzbekistan	..	..	70.7	64.3	..	..	74	78	2,019	2,047	92	..
Jordan	..	..	71.5	68.9	81.8	89	..	..	1,429	5,336	94	..
Turkmenistan	..	..	68.9	61.9	..	..	..	..	1,642	2,586	96	..
Kyrgyzstan	..	..	71.9	63.3	..	..	71	68	1,798	2,720	97	..
Vanuatu	..	..	69.5	65.5	..	..	44	49	..	..	116	..
Solomon Islands	..	..	73.9	69.7	..	..	44	48	1,886	2,710	118	..
Sao Tome and Principe	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	123	..
Gabon	..	..	53.8	51.1	58.8	75	..	..	5,678	9,468	124	..
Isra	..	..	63.9	60.9	..	..	44	57	970	5,437	125	..
Equatorial Guinea	..	..	51.6	48.4	70.1	77	..	..	1,066	2,589	131	..
Cambodia	..	..	55.0	51.5	..	..	54	68	1,163	1,426	137	..
Congo, Dem.Rep.of the	..	..	52.3	49.2	..	..	31	47	648	1,117	141	..
Madagascar	..	..	59.0	56.0	..	..	39	39	712	1,151	147	..
Djibouti	..	..	52.0	48.7	36.0	66	17	24	..	..	157	..
Angola	..	..	48.1	44.9	..	..	28	29	1,127	1,741	160	..
Rwanda	..	..	41.7	39.4	55.6	79	42	44	..	..	164	..
Eritrea	..	..	52.4	49.3	..	..	24	30	568	1,076	167	..
Sierra Leone	..	..	38.7	35.8	20.0	42	..	..	246	581	174	..

Source: UNDP 1999.

Table 28 Gender empowerment measure (GEM) 1999

Nation	Gender empowerment measure (GEM)		Seats in parliament held by women	Female legislators, senior officials and managers	Female professional and technical workers	Ratio of estimated female to male earned income	HDI rank
	Rank	Value					
Norway	1	0.810	36.4	30.6	58.5	0.74	2
Sweden	2	0.777	42.7	27.9	63.7	0.82	6
Denmark	3	0.765	37.4	20	62.8	0.71	15
Canada	4	0.742	23.3	42.2	51.1	0.62	1
Germany	5	0.740	29.8	26.6	49	0.65	14
Finland	6	0.737	33.5	26.6	62.5	0.59	13
Iceland	7	0.721	25.4	23.1	53.2	0.74	9
United States	8	0.708	12.5	44.3	53.1	0.68	3
Australia	9	0.707	25.9	43.3	25.5	0.69	7
Netherlands	10	0.702	31.6	16.8	44.8	0.52	8
New Zealand	11	0.700	29.2	24.2	49.6	0.65	18
Austria	12	0.684	24.7	21.8	50.4	0.46	16
Bahamas	13	0.666	19.6	34.8	51.4	0.66	31
Switzerland	14	0.666	20.3	29.1	23	0.50	12
Luxembourg	15	0.624	20.0	8.6	37.7	0.39	17
United Kingdom	16	0.614	12.3	33	43.7	0.61	10
Belgium	17	0.610	15.8	18.8	50.5	0.50	5
South Africa	18	0.582	26.4	17.4	46.7	0.45	101
Portugal	19	0.571	13.0	36.6	52.4	0.49	28
Ireland	20	0.566	13.7	17.3	48	0.39	20
Cuba	21	0.566	27.6	18.5	47.8	0.48	58
Spain	22	0.565	19.9	12	48.1	0.42	21
Costa Rica	23	0.550	19.3	26.6	47.8	0.38	45
Trinidad and Tobago	24	0.540	19.4	23.3	53.3	0.43	46
Dominican Republic	25	0.528	14.5	44.8	49.9	0.33	88
Italy	26	0.523	10.0	53.8	17.8	0.44	19
Czech Republic	27	0.521	13.9	23.2	64.1	0.60	36
Lithuania	28	0.517	17.5	35.2	67.5	0.64	62
Ecuador	29	0.516	17.4	27.5	46.6	0.24	72
Colombia	31	0.515	12.2	38.8	45.6	0.53	57
Latvia	30	0.515	17.0	37.5	66.4	0.71	74
Singapore	32	0.512	4.8	34.3	16.1	0.50	22
Mexico	33	0.511	16.9	19.8	45.2	0.38	50
Slovakia	34	0.509	12.7	90.7	69.7	0.67	42
Poland	35	0.504	12.9	33.5	61.2	2.46	44
France	36	0.499	9.1	9.4	41.4	0.63	11
Israel	37	0.496	7.5	19.2	53.8	0.52	23
Japan	38	0.494	6.9	9.3	44.1	0.43	4
Belize	39	0.492	13.5	36.6	38.8	0.23	83
China	40	0.491	21.6	11.6	45.1	0.66	98
El Salvador	41	0.491	16.7	26.3	44.6	0.41	107
Slovenia	42	0.486	7.8	28.3	63.1	0.63	33
Venezuela	43	0.484	12.2	22.9	57.1	0.40	48

## Gender empowerment measure(GEM) 1999

Nation	Gender empowerment measure (GEM)		Seats in parliament held by women	Female legislators, senior officials and managers	Female professional and technical workers	Ratio of estimated female to male earned income	HDI rank
	Rank	Value					
Guatemala	44	0.482	12.6	32.4	46.2	0.30	117
Philippines	45	0.480	12.9	34.8	66.1	0.56	77
Estonia	46	0.468	10.9	36.5	66.8	0.66	64
Panama	47	0.467	9.7	27.6	49.2	0.41	49
Hungary	48	0.458	8.3	32.8	60.9	0.58	47
Bulgaria	49	0.457	10.8	28.9	57	0.68	63
Eritrea	50	0.456	21.0	16.8	29.5	0.53	167
Botswana	51	0.454	8.5	25.7	62.8	0.63	122
Malaysia	52	0.451	10.3	19.2	43.2	0.46	66
Honduras	53	0.450	9.4	39.2	66.3	0.34	114
Chile	54	0.449	9.0	18.5	51.6	0.30	34
Lesotho	55	0.449	10.6	33.4	56.6	0.44	127
Uruguay	56	0.441	6.9	28.2	63.7	0.51	40
Guyana	57	0.434	15.6	12.8	47.5	0.37	99
Zimbabwe	58	0.430	14.7	15.4	40	0.60	130
Mozambique	59	0.428	25.2	11.3	20.4	0.70	169
Suriname	60	0.428	15.7	13.3	69	0.37	64
Mauritius	61	0.427	7.6	22.6	36.4	0.36	59
Cape Verde	62	0.426	11.1	23.3	48.4	0.48	106
Peru	63	0.421	10.8	20	39.4	0.33	80
Thailand	64	0.407	6.6	20.4	54.5	0.60	67
Paraguay	65	0.405	8.0	22.6	54.1	0.32	84
Greece	66	0.404	6.3	12.1	4.2	0.47	27
Romania	67	0.400	5.6	28.1	56.4	0.59	68
Cyprus	68	0.385	5.4	10.2	40.8	0.40	26
Swaziland	69	0.378	6.3	24.1	61.2	0.44	113
Brazil	70	0.367	5.9	17.3	63.3	0.41	79
Indonesia	71	0.362	11.4	6.6	40.8	0.51	105
Georgia	73	0.355	6.9	16.3	41.8	0.62	85
Mali	74	0.353	12.2	19.7	19	0.65	166
Tunisia	75	0.353	7.4	12.7	35.6	0.35	102
Maldives	76	0.342	6.3	14	34.6	0.37	93
Burkina Faso	77	0.337	10.5	13.5	25.8	0.66	171
Korea, Rep. of	78	0.306	3.7	4.2	45	0.45	30
Fiji	79	0.327	5.8	48.3	10.5	0.32	61
Sri Lanka	80	0.321	6.3	17.6	30.7	0.41	90
Syrian Arab Republic	81	0.317	10.4	2.9	37	0.28	111
Kuwait	82	0.365	0.0	5.2	36.8	0.37	35
Zambia	82	0.310	10.3	6.1	31.9	0.64	151
Bangladesh	83	0.304	9.1	4.9	34.7	0.58	150
Morocco	84	0.301	0.7	25.6	31.3	0.41	126
Turkey	85	0.290	2.4	6.6	33	0.94	86
Egypt	86	0.275	2.0	16.4	28.4	0.42	120
Cameroon	87	0.265	6.6	10.1	21.4	0.46	134
Iran, Islamic Rep. of	88	0.264	4.9	3.5	32.6	0.27	95
Equatorial Guinea	89	0.257	6.8	1.6	26.8	0.41	131

## Gender empowerment measure(GEM) 1999

Nation	Gender empowerment measure (GEM)		Seats in parliament held by women	Female legislators, senior officials and managers	Female professional and technical workers	Ratio of estimated female to male earned income	HDI rank
	Rank	Value					
Malawi	90	0.256	5.7	4.8	34.7	0.73	159
Papua New Guinea	91	0.255	1.8	11.6	29.5	0.67	129
Algeria	92	0.245	3.8	5.9	27.6	0.27	109
Gambia	93	0.243	2.0	15.6	23.7	0.61	163
Central African Republic	94	0.242	6.4	9	18.9	0.63	166
India	95	0.240	8.3	2.3	20.5	0.38	132
United Arab Emirates	96	0.239	0.0	1.6	25.1	0.17	43
Sudan	97	0.227	5.3	2.4	28.8	0.31	142
Jordan	98	0.220	2.5	4.6	28.7	0.27	94
Mauritania	99	0.197	2.2	7.7	20.7	0.59	148
Togo	100	0.186	1.2	7.9	21.2	0.60	143
Pakistan	101	0.176	2.0	4.3	21	0.30	138
Nigeria	102	0.120	1.2	8.3	8	0.59	173
Hong Kong, China(SAR)	--	--	--	--	--	0.46	24
Brunei Darussalam	--	--	--	--	--	0.43	25
Barbados	--	--	--	--	--	0.62	29
Malta	--	--	9.2	--	--	0.28	32
Bahrain	--	--	--	--	--	0.22	37
Antigua and Barbuda	--	--	11.1	--	--	--	38
Argentina	--	--	22.8	--	--	0.30	39
Qatar	--	--	--	--	--	0.18	41
Saint Kitts and Nevis	--	--	13.3	--	--	--	51
Grenada	--	--	--	--	--	--	52
Dominica	--	--	9.4	--	--	--	53
Croatia	--	--	7.2	--	--	0.56	55
Belarus	--	--	--	--	--	0.66	60
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya	--	--	--	--	--	0.22	65
Seychelles	--	--	23.5	--	--	--	66
Lebanon	--	--	2.3	--	--	0.30	69
Samoa(Western)	--	--	4.1	--	--	0.29	70
Russian Federation	--	--	7.6	--	--	0.66	71
Macedonia, FYR	--	--	7.6	--	--	0.64	73
Saint Vincent and the Grenadines	--	--	4.8	--	--	--	75
Kazakhstan	--	--	11.4	--	--	0.64	76
Saudi Arabia	--	--	--	--	--	0.14	78
Saint Lucia	--	--	14.3	--	--	--	81
Jamaica	--	--	16.3	--	--	0.67	82
Armenia	--	--	6.3	--	--	0.68	87
Oman	--	--	--	--	--	0.14	89
Ukraine	--	--	7.9	--	--	0.61	91
Uzbekistan	--	--	6.0	--	--	0.99	92
Turkmenistan	--	--	18.0	--	--	0.63	96
Kyrgyzstan	--	--	4.8	--	--	0.66	97
Albania	--	--	--	--	--	0.55	100
Azerbaijan	--	--	12.0	--	--	0.60	103







Gender-related development index (GDI) 1995

Nation	Gender-related development (GDI)		Life expectancy at birth (1994)		Adult literacy rate (1992)		Combined gross enrollment ratio for primary, secondary and tertiary level school (1994)		Estimated earned income 1994		HDI rank	HDI rank minus GDI rank
	Rank	Value	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male		
Cyprus	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	23	..
Belize	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	29	..
Malta	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	34	..
Saint Kitts and Nevis	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	37	..
Belarus	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	42	..
Ukraine	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	54	..
Antigua and Barbuda	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	55	..
Seychelles	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	62	..
Kazakhstan	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	64	..
Bulgaria	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	66	..
Grenada	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	67	..
Dominica	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	69	..
Saint Vincent	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	79	..
Jordan	..	..	..	..	75.4	82	..	..	..	..	80	..
Moldova, Rep. Of	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	81	..
Albania	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	82	..
Korea, Dem. People's Rep. Of	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	83	..
Saint Lucia	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	84	..
Turkmenistan	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	86	..
Kyrgyzstan	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	89	..
Armenia	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	90	..
Oman	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	91	..
Georgia	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	92	..
Uzbekistan	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	94	..
South Africa	..	..	..	..	60.3	99	..	..	..	..	95	..
Romania	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	98	..
Azerbaijan	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	99	..
Samoa (Western)	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	102	..
Tajikistan	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	103	..
Namibia	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	106	..
Gabon	..	..	..	..	46.2	69	..	..	..	..	114	..
Vanuatu	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	119	..
Congo	..	..	..	..	62.1	78	..	..	..	..	122	..
Solomon Islands	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	125	..
Sao Tome and Principe	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	133	..
Equatorial Guinea	..	..	..	..	63.7	73	..	..	..	..	142	..
Cambodia	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	153	..
Rwanda	..	..	..	..	47.1	70	..	..	..	..	156	..
Liberia	..	..	..	..	19.8	39	..	..	..	..	159	..
Bhutan	..	..	..	..	25.2	47	..	..	..	..	160	..
Somalia	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	..	166	..

Source: UNDP 1995.

Table 30 Gender empowerment measure (GEM) 1995

Nation	Gender empowerment measure (GEM)		Seats in parliament held by women	Female legislators, senior officials and managers	Female professional and technical workers	Ratio of estimated female to male earned income	HDI rank
	Rank	Value					
Sweden	1	0.757	33.5	38.9	63.3	0.71	10
Norway	2	0.752	39.4	25.4	56.5	0.61	7
Finland	3	0.722	39.0	23.9	61.4	0.68	5
Denmark	4	0.683	33.0	14.7	62.9	0.66	16
Canada	5	0.655	17.3	40.7	56.0	0.41	1
New Zealand	6	0.637	21.2	32.3	47.8	0.45	17
Netherlands	7	0.625	29.3	13.5	42.5	0.34	4
USA	8	0.623	10.3	40.2	50.8	0.53	2
Austria	9	0.610	21.1	16.4	48.0	0.51	14
Italy	10	0.585	13.0	37.6	46.3	0.38	20
Australia	11	0.568	12.6	41.4	23.8	0.56	11
Barbados	12	0.545	14.3	32.0	52.3	0.65	25
Luxembourg	13	0.542	20.0	6.6	37.7	0.30	27
Bahamas	14	0.533	10.8	26.3	56.9	0.39	26
Trinidad and Tobago	15	0.533	17.7	22.5	54.7	0.33	39
Cuba	16	0.524	22.8	18.5	47.8	0.37	72
Switzerland	17	0.513	15.9	5.3	39.0	0.37	13
Hungary	18	0.506	10.9	56.2	48.0	0.64	50
United Kingdom	19	0.489	7.4	22.7	39.6	0.45	18
Bulgaria	20	0.481	12.9	26.9	57.0	..	65
Belgium	21	0.479	10.1	13.0	47.1	0.38	12
Costa Rica	22	0.474	14.0	23.1	44.9	0.23	28
China	23	0.474	21.8	11.6	45.1	0.45	111
Ireland	24	0.469	12.4	15.1	46.7	0.29	19
Guyana	25	0.461	20.0	12.8	47.5	0.27	105
Spain	26	0.452	14.6	9.5	47.0	0.23	9
Japan	27	0.442	6.7	8.0	42.0	0.50	3
Portugal	30	0.435	8.7	18.9	54.4	0.43	36
Colombia	29	0.435	9.4	27.2	41.8	0.25	67
Philippines	28	0.435	11.2	27.7	63.2	0.27	100
France	31	0.433	5.7	9.4	41.4	0.56	8
Poland	32	0.432	13.0	15.6	60.4	0.66	51
Panama	33	0.430	7.5	26.9	50.7	0.30	49
Nicaragua	34	0.427	16.3	12.4	42.9	0.32	109
Singapore	35	0.424	3.7	15.7	40.3	0.41	35
Argentina	36	0.415	14.2	6.9	54.8	0.26	30
Dominican Rep.	37	0.412	10.0	21.2	49.5	0.34	96
Botswana	38	0.407	5.0	36.1	61.4	0.40	74
Honduras	39	0.406	7.8	27.8	50.0	0.20	116
Chile	40	0.402	7.2	19.5	52.0	0.25	33
Peru	41	0.400	8.8	22.1	40.9	0.24	53

## Gender empowerment measure(GEM) 1995

Nation	Gender empowerment measure (GEM)		Seats in parliament held by women	Female legislators, senior officials and managers	Female professional and technical workers	Ratio of estimated female to male earned income	HDI rank
	Rank	Value					
Mexico	42	0.399	7.3	19.4	43.2	0.29	53
Zimbabwe	43	0.398	12.0	15.4	40.0	0.38	121
El Salvador	44	0.397	10.7	17.7	43.3	0.29	115
Venezuela	45	0.391	6.0	18.6	43.3	0.30	47
Guatemala	46	0.390	5.2	32.4	45.2	0.16	112
Iraq	47	0.386	10.8	12.7	43.9	0.22	106
Cyprus	48	0.385	5.4	10.2	40.8	-	23
Malaysia	49	0.384	10.0	8.3	38.2	0.41	59
Korea, Dem. People's Rep. Of	50	0.380	20.1	3.7	24.6	-	83
Cape Verde	51	0.379	7.6	23.3	46.4	0.35	123
Namibia	52	0.376	6.9	20.8	40.9	-	108
Ecuador	53	0.375	5.2	26.0	44.2	0.15	68
Thailand	54	0.373	3.7	22.2	52.7	0.53	58
Belize	55	0.369	7.9	12.6	51.9	-	29
Indonesia	56	0.362	12.2	6.6	40.8	0.34	104
Uruguay	57	0.361	4.6	20.6	61.2	0.36	32
Brazil	58	0.358	5.5	17.3	57.2	0.30	63
Swaziland	59	0.357	8.4	14.5	54.3	0.50	124
Romania	60	0.352	2.9	44.8	26.6	-	98
Mozambique	61	0.350	16.7	11.3	20.4	0.67	167
Mauritius	62	0.350	3.0	14.3	41.4	0.29	60
Haiti	63	0.349	3.0	32.6	39.3	0.52	148
Suriname	64	0.348	5.9	21.5	69.9	0.32	77
Bolivia	65	0.344	6.4	16.8	41.9	0.21	113
Paraguay	66	0.343	5.6	16.1	51.2	0.19	87
Greece	67	0.343	6.0	10.1	43.1	0.29	22
Cameroon	68	0.339	12.2	10.1	24.4	0.36	127
Lesotho	69	0.339	1.5	33.4	56.6	0.96	131
Burundi	70	0.337	9.9	13.4	30.5	0.67	166
Malta	71	0.334	1.5	20.8	44.9	-	34
Guinea-Bissau	72	0.327	12.7	7.9	26.2	0.48	163
Nepal	73	0.315	2.6	22.8	36.2	0.36	151
Gambia	74	0.315	7.8	14.6	26.6	0.48	161
Fiji	75	0.314	6.8	9.1	39.7	0.20	46
Ghana	76	0.313	7.5	8.9	36.7	0.49	129
Samoa(Western)	77	0.309	4.3	12.3	46.9	-	102
Maldives	78	0.294	4.2	14.0	34.7	0.21	118
Sri Lanka	79	0.296	4.9	6.9	49.6	0.34	97
Bangladesh	80	0.267	10.3	5.1	23.1	0.30	146
Syrian Arab Rep.	81	0.286	8.4	5.6	26.4	0.13	78
Burkina Faso	82	0.280	6.6	13.6	26.8	0.63	169
Angola	83	0.278	9.6	4.3	27.7	0.46	164
Benin	84	0.271	6.3	6.9	30.1	0.67	155
Morocco	85	0.271	0.6	25.6	24.1	0.20	117

## Gender empowerment measure(GEM) 1995

Nation	Gender empowerment measure (GEM)		Seats in parliament held by women	Female legislators, senior officials and managers	Female professional and technical workers	Ratio of estimated female to male earned income	HDI rank
	Rank	Value					
Zambia	86	0.271	6.7	6.1	31.9	0.34	136
Algeria	87	0.266	6.7	5.9	27.6	0.08	85
Senegal	88	0.265	11.7	3.7	16.5	0.46	152
Malawi	89	0.255	5.7	4.8	34.7	0.50	157
Korea, Rep. of	90	0.255	1.0	4.1	42.5	0.26	31
Tunisia	91	0.254	6.8	7.3	17.6	0.24	75
Equatorial Guinea	92	0.250	8.8	1.6	26.8	-	142
Kuwait	93	0.241	0.0	5.2	36.8	0.23	61
United Arab Emirates	94	0.239	0.0	1.6	25.1	0.07	45
Iran, Islamic Rep. Of	95	0.237	3.5	3.5	32.6	0.18	70
Egypt	96	0.237	2.2	10.4	26.3	0.09	107
Mali	97	0.237	2.3	19.7	19.0	0.13	172
Turkey	98	0.234	2.3	19.7	19.0	0.43	66
Jordan	99	0.230	2.5	5.4	33.8	-	80
Papua New Guinea	100	0.228	0.0	11.6	29.5	0.46	126
India	101	0.226	7.3	2.3	20.5	0.24	134
Sudan	102	0.219	4.6	2.4	28.8	0.23	144
Lebanon	103	0.212	2.3	2.1	37.8	0.26	101
Congo	104	0.206	1.1	6.1	26.5	-	122
Ethiopia	105	0.205	1.2	11.2	23.9	0.42	171
Central African Rep.	106	0.205	3.6	9.0	18.9	0.60	149
Zaire	107	0.201	4.2	9.0	16.6	0.41	143
Nigeria	108	0.198	2.1	5.5	26.0	0.40	141
Solomon Islands	109	0.198	2.1	2.6	27.4	-	125
Togo	110	0.182	1.2	7.9	21.2	0.41	140
Mauritania	111	0.163	0.0	7.7	20.7	0.23	150
cote d'ivoire	112	0.157	4.6	0.0	15.2	0.39	146
Comoros	113	0.157	2.4	0.0	22.3	0.47	139
Pakistan	114	0.153	1.6	2.9	18.4	0.11	128
Djibouti	115	0.130	0.0	2.1	19.9	0.50	154
Afghanistan	116	0.111	1.9	0.7	13.5	0.06	170
Iceland							6
Germany							15
Israel							21
Hong Kong							24
Saint Kitts and Nevis							37
Czech Republic							38
Slovakia							40
Brunei Darussalam							41
Belarus							42
Estonia							43
Bahrain							44
Latvia							48
Russian Federation							52

## Gender empowerment measure(GEM) 1995

Nation	Gender empowerment measure (GEM)		Seats in parliament held by women	Female legislators, senior officials and managers	Female professional and technical workers	Ratio of estimated female to male earned income	HDI rank
	Rank	Value					
Ukraine							54
Antigua and Barbuda							55
Oatar							56
Seychelles							62
Kazakhstan							64
grenada							67
Dominica							69
Lithuania							71
Libyan Arab Jamahiriya							120
Saudi Arabia							76
Saint Vincent							79
Moldova, Rep. Of							81
Albania							82
Saint Lucia							84
Turkmenistan							86
Jamaica							88
Kyrgyzstan							89
Armenia							90
Oman							91
Georgias							92
Uzbekistan							94
South Africa							96
Azerbaijan							99
Tajikistan							103
Mongolia							110
Gabon							114
Vanuatu							119
Viet Nam							120
Kenya							130
Myanmar							132
Sao Tome and Principe							133
Madagascar							135
Yemen							137
Laos People's Dem. Rep.							138
Tanzania, U. Rep. Of							147
Cambodia							153
Rwanda							156
Uganda							158
Liberia							159
Bhutan							160
Chad							162
Somalia							166
Guinea							168
Sierra Leone							173
Niger							174

Source: UNDP 1995.





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Ministry of Gender Equality, Republic of Korea  
United Nations Development Programme