

BIBLIOGRAPHIC DATA SHEET

1. CONTROL NUMBER
PN-AAH-4372. SUBJECT CLASSIFICATION (695)
SE00-0000-G704

3. TITLE AND SUBTITLE (240)

Study on the status of Korean women in national development

4. PERSONAL AUTHORS (100)

Kim, O. Y.; Lee, Kyungsook

5. CORPORATE AUTHORS (101)

Sookmyung Women's Univ.

6. DOCUMENT DATE (110)

1977

7. NUMBER OF PAGES (120)

88p.

8. ARC NUMBER (170)

KS301.412.K49

9. REFERENCE ORGANIZATION (130)

Sookmyung

10. SUPPLEMENTARY NOTES (500)

11. ABSTRACT (950)

12. DESCRIPTORS (920)

Women in development	Urban sociology
Korea	Rural sociology
Marriage	
Education of women	
Employment	
Family relations	

13. PROJECT NUMBER (150)

489024900

14. CONTRACT NO.(140)

AID-498-WID-3-T

15. CONTRACT
TYPE (140)

16. TYPE OF DOCUMENT (160)

PN- AAH- 437

**A Study
on the Status of Korean Women
in National Development**

AID Project No. 489-11-995-249

**Research Center for Asian Women
Sookmyung Women's University
1977**

**A Study
on the Status of Korean Women
in National Development**

AID project No. 489-11-995-249

AID-489-WID-3-T

Ok Yul Kim, Director

Kyungsook Lee

**Research Center for Asian Women
Sookmyung Women's University
1977**

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER		
I.	INTRODUCTION	1
1)	An Organizational Scheme for Research	10
2)	Hypotheses Formulation	14
3)	Sample Size	15
4)	Data Analysis	15
II.	THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK	17
III.	WOMEN'S STATUS AND DEMOGRAPHIC, EDUCATIONAL, SOCIO-ECONOMIC INDICATORS	27
IV.	RESEARCH FINDINGS AND INTERPRETATIONS.....	38
V.	SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH	67
VI.	SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS	70
	FOOT NOTES	78
	BIBLIOGRAPHY	82

CHAPTER I : INTRODUCTION

The awareness of the problems of women was spurred by the Women's Liberation Movement in Europe and the United States in the 1960s and furthered by the proclamation of the International Women's Year by the United Nations in 1975. The three main themes of the International Women's Year were appropriately chosen; Equality, Development, and Peace. Since then, studies concerning the status of women began to receive attention in Korea. This has been an encouraging step in the advancement of women in Korea and has awakened a long dormant awareness of self in both Korean women and men.

Several scholars have done studies on various aspects of women in Korea. Included in these are a couple of works on the history of women in Korea which will give us some background information.¹

There are also many articles and Master's theses on the social status of Korean women. The most recently published of these is a comprehensive book entitled The Status of Korean Women by Lee Hyo Jai and Kim Ju Sook. In this book the authors examined the facts about Korean population structure and the activities of women including their participation in the home and in legal, educational, political, and social organizations through a statistical investigation and by reading descriptive materials on all aspects of the lives of women. Based upon this investigation, they analyzed and assessed the status of women in Korea and recommended certain tasks to

be performed by the women's movement.

Lee and Kim argued that the mere increase in numbers of employed women and the broad range of occupation in which women participate would not necessarily result in the status of women but that, indeed, a numerical increase could bring about more problems in the area of women's rights. They believe that the advancement of the status of women will enable each citizen to exercise his rights as an individual in a democratic society. Women should participate in every field with an independent mind and should benefit by equal social and economic recognition. Therefore, women's studies should be conducted on the basis of the above ideas and by so doing, urgent problems will be specified. A future program in women's studies will focus on the problems identified by this study.

There are also several sources which deal with the legal aspect of the role of women in Korea. Studies on family law are in abundance since there is a nation-wide movement to amend family law in order to correct inequality that exists between men and women. Therefore, the numerous studies on this aspect of law reflect practical problems as well as provide a theoretical background for our research.

Although the Korean constitution guarantees equality of men and women, there are provisions which discriminate against women in family law. Ten points which should be revised are:

- 1) The system of succession should be abolished.
- 2) The legal definition of blood relationship should be the same for both men and women.
- 3) People of the same clan and family name should not be prohibited from marrying.
- 4) Joint common ownership of property by husband and wife should be abolished.
- 5) Property should be divided in the event of divorce.
- 6) Improvement of system of divorce to require mutual consent by the parties involved.
- 7) Parental authority should be exercised equitably.
- 8) The laws regarding the relationship between step-mothers and step-children should be revised.
- 9) Sons and daughters should have equal right of inheritance.
- 10) Unconditional recognition of the rights of the sole heir by will should be revised.

There are only a few studies which deal with the political aspects of women's rights in Korea. The first study undertaken regarding the political consciousness of Korean women was done by the Women's Problems Research Club in 1967. According to this study, Korean women participate in elections without an high awareness of political issues because they achieved the right to vote without a long period of struggle which called attention to ~~their issues~~. However, this

awareness improved with an improvement in the educational level of women and their repeated participation in electoral events.

In the 1971 survey on the political activities of the urban voter conducted by the Ewha Woman's University Political Science Club, 90% of the women voters interviewed emphasized the importance of voting implying a higher degree of women's interest in politics. The same high degree of political awareness was also manifest in a similar survey done by the YWCA in 1973. Although rural women were not included in these two surveys, overall participation in the electoral process by women will increase as contact between the urban and rural sectors increase. Rural-urban migration will also contribute to this phenomenon. These surveys, by the way, indicate that female voting independence from the husband is significant.

In addition, there are very few studies on female politicians and administrators in Korea which is an indication that few women, if any, perform effectively in these roles. These studies should be encouraged in order to illustrate the position of women in these occupations and, in so doing, encourage the government to increase the recruitment of women for government jobs.

In the field of education, numerous research materials

exist since it is the field in which women are most active in Korea. This literature includes studies on women in education in different periods of Korean history, particularly near the end of the 19th century, the advent of the modern age in Korea. Chung Se Wha's study on the "Elimination of Sex Discrimination Text Books" is a noteworthy work for those interested in the equality of women. This article deals with sex role perception from early childhood. She points out that the most important problem in Korean education is the mistaken notion that there is no discrimination based on sex in school education. Although the number of female students has increased in schools at all levels, the ratio between male and female students is 58 : 42 in high schools, 66 : 34 in vocational high schools, and 73 : 27 in colleges. These figures indicate that opportunities for women to advance to higher education is still limited. A more serious problem of discrimination against women is found in the curricula. Chung analyzed some economics text books which stressed the traditional roles of women as housewives and mothers rather than as individuals. There should be no discrimination in subjects offered to girls or boys. For instance, courses ordinarily offered only to one sex, such as home economics or mechanics, should be made available to both. She also recommends a change in family structure, the elimination of sex-role differentiation at home and in society, and elimi-

nation of discrimination against women in employment in educational curricula. Lastly, children's books should not discriminate against girls, and should strive to provide a good image for women in society.

Literature which deals with the role of women in the economy is ample. The first major work appeared in 1970 entitled "Woman Power in Korea" by the Manpower Development Research Institute. It is a significant work based upon a survey which explores the condition of women as a human resource including the job consciousness of the Korean working woman and societies' attitudes towards the working woman. The survey was conducted for a period of one year and consisted of a sampling of 1,000 people. The male attitude from the employer's side was so favorable in regard to the working woman that some sociologists think that the pictures presented are more optimistic than the actual situation. But it should be said that male employers have more sympathetic attitude toward their female employees than do men in general.

In 1972, the Office of Labour Affairs compiled a book entitled "The Present Situation of Working Women." This book includes valuable statistics on working women and should serve as a guide book on this subject.²

Some surveys that deal with job categories are more

specific. They include "Occupation and Social Participation of Professional Women in Korea" (1973) by Kim Ok Yul, Han Wan Sang and Kim Tai Hi. In this survey, nine professions are selected: teachers, nurses, professors, librarians, doctors, pharmacists, journalists, social workers, and civil servants. Backgrounds, socio-economic traits, job situations, the degree of job satisfaction, social and political consciousness and participation, and the roles of women compared to those of men are emphasized in the study.

The difference between professional women and woman laborers was noteworthy in this survey. Professional women, constituting about 20% of the total professional job holders are more satisfied with their jobs and the pay differences between men and women are narrower. These women are more active socially and generally more content psychologically than the average working women. They also exhibit a degree of professional pride. The difficulties these women have encountered in their professions include discrimination in promotions, advancement, and retirement, although discrimination based on sex is less conspicuous than in other types of jobs. They also face difficulties in the combination of homemaking functions with employment although the length of their services with employers are much longer than the average woman laborer. The dual role of mother and career

woman requires the deep understanding from the family and society in general. It was found that the legal protection of maternity and equal opportunity for those who aspire to work are the two cardinal problems to be solved in order to advance the social status of women.

Sociological studies on the Korean family were undertaken by Lee Myo Chai, Choi Jae Suk, Choi Shin Duk, Evelyn Koh, among others. They were also concerned with changes in the family system, the process of change from the traditional extended family to the nuclear family system. Some of the studies dealt with the relationship between a man and his wife. However, it was noted that women are not yet liberated from the traditional family system or from the patriarchal system. The responsibility of the woman in child birth is emphasized and preference for boys is still strong thus leading to the inequality of women. The main role of the urban housewife is management of the home and the free affectionate relations between man and wife directs their attention toward child bearing and family relations. This brings more happiness to the modern couples than does the traditional family system. However, new problems arise for the urban housewives in the nuclear family setting since they are separated from productive and occupational activities. As they continue to feel alienated and lonely, their awareness

will be eventually stimulated.

Although studies on rural women are in existence, there has been tendency to give more attention to urban women. Therefore, studies on rural women should be encouraged. Choi Jae Suk, Lee Man Kap and Kim Dae Whan were pioneers in studies of rural women.⁴

The problems of rural women present another picture. As the rural people migrate into the cities bringing about a reduction in the rural labor force, the rate of participation by women agricultural activities is intensified. Rural women engage in the double role of production and consumption during their life span. Although they are more productive than urban women in their activities, their roles are difficult in view of their domestic role and their active participation in agricultural methods should be introduced to lighten their burdens. Job training centers and child care-centers should be established for the benefit of rural women so that they can contribute to community development as well as enhancing their social status.

Despite of all these works on the status of women in Korea, there have been few studies conducted on the role of women in national development. Furthermore, the degree to which women participate in the decision-making process has not been studied either theoretically or practically.

Several factors could account for this lack of study on the role of the Korean woman in national development. First, many Korean women believe that their status is so closely related to that of their husbands that they have not paid much attention to their own status in relation to national development. Second, the term "status" embraces an elusive and ambiguous meaning. The conceptual ambiguity of "status" is an obstacle to the empirical study of the status of women in national development. Third, any study of status carries its own methodological difficulty. Status is often defined in terms of value judgments.

Thus, the main purposes of this research are to meet these perceived needs. The aims of this paper, then, are to examine the status of Korean women in national development in general, and specifically, to empirically investigate the relationships between various factors and the degree to which Korean women participate in the decision-making process. To achieve these goals, this study endeavors to provide an explanatory framework that includes an operational definition of status.

Organizational Scheme for Research

We shall begin with two assumptions. First, it is assumed that certain relationships exist between the decision-making process which affects the status of woman and national develop-

ment. Secondly, it is assumed that the knowledge generated by this research can be utilized to address the issue of female participation in national development.

With these assumptions in mind, it seems reasonable to look for a scheme which permits us to find out the factors which affect the decision-making process in relation to the status of women. Such a scheme requires explicit definitions for status and national development. These definitions specify codification of content for a specific temporal span as well as a set of operational observational procedures.

In developing an operational definition of the status of Korean women, it is necessary to distinguish between the domestic and public domains and to decide whether to focus on the extent to which women are respected and revered or to concentrate on the extent to which women hold power and/or authority in the domestic and public domains.

The domestic domain includes activities performed within the realm of the localized family unit. The public domain includes demographic, economic, social, and educational activities that take place or have impact beyond the localized family unit and that relate to control of persons or control of things. The distinction between domestic and public realms is important, since high status in one domain might conceivably preclude high status in the other, in some societies.⁵

M. G. Smith defines power as "the ability to act effectively on persons or things, to take or secure favorable decisions which are not of right allocated to the individuals or their roles." He defines authority as "the right to make a particular decision and to command obedience."⁶ Thus, power and authority are concepts that characterize the ways in which decisions are made and carried out.

The degree to which women are respected and revered is the parameter most stenographers have in mind when they mention female status.

In the empirical analysis of female status to be presented below, deferential treatment and respect will not be included in the operational definition of the status of women because this research is mainly concerned with the degree to which women participate in the decision-making process associated with power and/or authority.

Therefore, status is defined in terms of the degree to which women participate in the decision-making process which includes power and/or authority in the domestic and public domains.

In general terms, "development" means not only change, but implies change for the better. Here, national development means modernization in various fields, such as the political, social, economical and psychological fields. Moderni-

zation is a process based on the rational utilization of resources and aimed at the establishment of a "modern society.

A modern society is characterized by the application of technology, by extensive social interdependence, by urbanization, literacy, social mobility, and a host of similar factors.

To explain the dependent variable, the degree to which women participate in the decision-making process which affects the status of women, the following factors were selected as independent variables:

- 1) age
- 2) education
- 3) duration of marriage
- 4) economic status
- 5) consciousness of discrimination against women by men
- 6) consciousness about the status of women
- 7) residential area

The independent variables were measured in terms of various categories. (see Chapter IV)

Hypotheses Formulation

The central hypothesis of the study is that Korean women will perform more effective roles in national development as they become more involved in decision-making. Specifically, we have made seven hypotheses relative to this study:

- 1) Participation in decision-making is relative to age. An older woman will have more influence in this process.
- 2) Participation in decision-making is also tied to education. A more educated woman will exert greater influence in this process.
- 3) Marital longevity increases the influence of a woman in the decision-making process.
- 4) The higher the economic status of a woman, the more likely she is to participate in the decision-making process.
- 5) The more a woman is conscious of discrimination against women by men, the more likely she is to be in the decision-making process.
- 6) The more a woman is conscious about the status and roles of women in national development, the more likely she is to participate in decision-making process.

7) The longer a woman lives in an urban setting, the more likely she is to participate in the decision-making process.

Sample Size

The following number of Korean women was sampled randomly from Seoul and six rural areas:

Seoul	200
Kyunggi province	80
Kangwon province	80
Chungchong province	147
Kyungsang province	146
Chulla province	143
Cheju Island	<u>70</u>
Total	866

Data Analysis

The techniques of analysis are largely contingent upon the questions posed by a researcher and the nature of the data. Since all of the data for this study are nominal (categorical) in nature, the methods to be utilized are those of percentage and contingency coefficient analysis, the latter also denoted as cross-tabulation.

The contingency coefficient, symbolized by the letter "c" is a measure of the extent of associations or relation between two sets of attributes," which are arranged according

to (k) (r) tables.⁸ The degree of association between two sets of attributes is determined by the following formula.

$$c = \sqrt{\frac{x^2}{n + x^2}}$$
 and the significance of x^2 (chi square) with

the degrees of freedom measured by (k-1) (r-1). For comparability between two tables, $\frac{c}{\text{maximum } c}$ is used.⁹ For this study, the level of significance is .001.

CHAPTER II : THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

As we are in the second year in the Women's Decade, following the International Women's Year, the problem of how to integrate women's status into national development becomes the imperative of the time. Women's role both as agents and as beneficiaries in the developmental process is all encompassing.

Women's status has slowly improved over the years. The International Women's Year promulgated by the United Nations certainly gave impetus to this improvement. However long before that, many factors helped to advance the status of women throughout the world. Women's participation in time of crisis, particularly during the war time in the labor force in so-called traditionally men's fields exhibited the hitherto unrecognized ability of women. Their holding of these types of jobs continued in the postwar period. Technological change also eased women's housework and gave women more time for self reflection. Wide-spread education available to women is also a factor. The emergence of feminist ideologies propounded by Betty Friedan and Kate Millet certainly aroused women's consciousness about their status and their role. The above mentioned factors all contributed to front staging women's questions.

The term, "the status of women" is highly elusive and hard to define. Status is often defined as "the rewards and

prestige that the person can expect who performs that particular role"; as a "place in a graded order of power, rank, or esteem"; or as "the ranking of a social position in terms of power, prestige and esteem in comparison with another or other social position."¹

Therefore women's status can be defined as the ranking, in terms of prestige, power, or esteem, accorded to the position of "women" in comparison with, or relative to, the ranking - also in terms of prestige, power, or esteem - given to the position of "men".² Then, this raises questions. If women's status is a value judgment that ranks the position of women relative to the position of men, which social indicators should be used to establish this ranking.

The commonly used indicators of the social position of women to that of men are the proportions of women to total membership in the labor force and to total enrollment at different educational levels, with only "a cursory reference to a particular measure of women's status."³ Some use power as an indicator. Peggy Sanday focuses on political power. Sanday operationally defines it and measures it by political participation and involvement of women in solidarity groups.⁴ Many researchers say that economic power is a key indicator of women's status. As amply shown, there is no consensus about operational definitions and measures of women's status.

Equality is not yet attained by women. However, women's economic status has improved more rapidly than at any other time in the twentieth century. In America, the people are clearly not ready to dispense with a sexual division of labor, or to accept the end of traditional values. However within existing values, women's economic role has been dramatically transformed. Millions of females have left home for the first time to take an active part in the nation's economic life, and, while their involvement has not resulted in a feminist revolution, it has represented a significant new element in male-female relationships, the ramifications of which promised to affect substantially the future distribution of sexual roles.⁵ This pattern is not only confined to the United States, but it has become world-wide phenomenon in the latter part of the twentieth century. Korea is no exception.

Power and authority are concepts that characterize the way in which decisions are made and carried out. According to Weber, power "is the probability that one actor within a social relationship will be in a position to carry out his will despite resistance, regardless of the basis on which this probability rests." When power rests on legitimacy and when it is exercised within a hierarchy of roles, it is defined as authority. Authority is defined as "the aspect of a status in a system of social organization ... by virtue of

which the incumbent is put in a position legitimately to make decisions which are binding, not only on himself but on the collectivity."⁶

M.G. Smith defines power as "the ability to act effectively on persons or things, to take or secure favorable decisions which are not of right allocated to the individuals or their roles." He defines authority as "the right to make a particular decision and to command obedience."⁷

Lamphere contends that women use strategies to respond to the distribution of power and authority which differ depending on whether women are able to make decisions or whether decisions are made by men. Since women are not in positions of authority, women often exercises influence when she is able to bring about a decision on another part to act in a certain way....⁸

After defining "power" and "authority", the question of decision-making comes up. A decision is a choice among alternatives which determines particular allocations at specific times.⁹ Until recently, the systematic analysis of decision-making has been slighted. But in the 1960's, decision-making has become the most generalized new concept in political research."¹⁰

Nevertheless, there has not been much study on the degree to which women participate in the decision-making process as an indicator of the hightening of women's status in national

development. In this study, women's status is analyzed in terms of decision-making process associated with power and/or authority in the domestic and public domain.

In analyzing women's status in national development, women's role inevitably comes into the picture. According to Buvinic, "status" and "role" are complementary concepts; together they portray the interrelationship between the social structure and the individual. Status defines the individual's place in the social structure; role emphasizes the way in which the individual demands inherent in a particular social position. Role here is defined as "the expected behavior associated with a particular social position"; as "the set of actual performances and functions expected of a person in a particular social position."¹¹

In this study, we are concerned with the status of women as well as the need for women's participation in development. Now, we turn to the question of development. Development triggers legal and institutional as well as socio-economic changes. However, women seem to do better in achieving equality and recognition under the laws of their countries than actually in real life. The gap between the theory and practice should be narrowed in order to achieve real sense of equality between men and women.

In Korea, due to the economic development plans starting

in the 1960s, the industrial structure was expanded and an occupational structure was specified. A high degree of human resources was needed to carry on this economic development. In response to this new demand, Korean women's economic activities were greatly expanded. In 1976, an unprecedented number, 4,456,000 women were engaged in economic activities in Korea.¹² And the number of economically active females have risen every year since the 1960s.

Therefore, women's contribution to the industrialization and modernization of the country is enormous and breathtaking. However, the mere number of women's participation in the labor market does not signify that the socio-economic status of those Korean women is substantially advanced. Many of them are lowly paid woman workers.

Since we recognize that women's contribution to national development is enormous, their status should be improved commensurate with their ability and their contribution to national development.

The advancement of women's status is imperative to give encouragement and satisfaction to the women. When human beings all enjoy equality in all walks of life, that society is more sane, more productive and social justice to which we all aspire can be achieved. Women should not be discriminated or treated unequal because of their sex. The traditional division of

labor accorded to men and women should be eliminated and merged, if possible. Human beings should be given equal opportunity to develop. When women's status is elevated, it is not only good for the self-fulfillment of women, but for children, and for society in general. They can fully contribute to national development. Women's status, therefore, should be fully integrated into national development.

Irene Tinker noted the detrimental effects on women of development projects based on Western ethnocentric view, and contended that development widens the gap between women's and men's earning power because of the planner's Western middle class bias shunning the important role women play in subsistence economies.¹³

It is true that the migration of rural people to the urban areas left rural women with heavier responsibilities in the agricultural production as well as with household work. But with the mechanization of agriculture, women's work burden was and should be lightened. Now for the three consecutive years, the income of rural people surpassed that of the urban workers in Korea.¹⁴ The consumption of modern electric goods and gadgets increased in the rural areas thus showing an improved status of living which undoubtedly benefits rural women.

Development is "a dual process. It greatly expands new economic and social activities, and at the same time traditional

activities are transformed and their relative importance so that labor is released for the new activities."¹⁵ Our postulation is that all development planning should be, to guide this process of transformation in such a way the women's potential is fully utilized so that women can benefit and improve their standard of living.

However, in the course of economic and social development, many activities traditionally performed by women are superseded by the introduction of mass produced goods and modern services. As a result of these changes women are deprived of many opportunities to earn money incomes and to contribute in kind to the support of the family. It is important, therefore, that economic planning be designed in such a way that the decline of female work input in traditional activities does not entail a loss of the benefits derived from new and more productive employment of women, and therefore, reduction of national income.

Efforts to increase the economic contribution of women should be regarded not only as a means of utilization of all human resources for economic development, but also as a way of improving income distribution.¹⁶

The advocates of basic-needs approach emphasizes that "A basic-needs oriented policy implies the participation of the people in making the decisions which affect them.

Participation interacts with the two main elements of a basic-needs strategy. For example, education and good health will facilitate participation, and participation in turn will strengthen the claim for the material basic needs.¹⁷

Recognition is given to the contribution of women in providing the needs of life. The significance of the full utilization of women's labor is seen in the following ways: there are two facets to a basic-needs strategy for women in developing countries. The first is to enable them to contribute more effectively to the satisfaction of their families' basic needs, within the framework of their traditional responsibilities. The second is to ease their work burden while furthering their economic independence and their more equitable integration into the community.

Ingrid Palmer contends that the basic needs approach to development does not elaborate upon the consequences of unequal exchange between men and women, not fully commenting on women as producers. Therefore, she stresses the need for the feminization of the development process calling for the "opening up" of the production and exchange relations within the household to the wider community.¹⁸

Here, it is appropriate to quote from the Preamble to the Declaration on the Elimination of Discrimination against Women, November 7, 1967.

"...discrimination against women is incompatible with human dignity and with the welfare of the family and of society, prevents their participation, on equal terms with men, in the political, social, economic and cultural life of their countries and is an obstacle to the full development of the potentialities of women in the service of their countries and of humanity;

"...the full and complete development of a country, the welfare of the world, and the cause of peace require the maximum participation of women as well as men in all fields."¹⁹

CHAPTER III : WOMEN'S STATUS AND DEMOGRAPHIC,
EDUCATIONAL, SOCIO-ECONOMIC INDICATORS

1. Women's Participation in the Decision-making Process
as the Dependent Variable

As the dependent variable a twofold typology of women's participation in the decision-making process in the domestic and public domains is employed.

The domestic domain includes activities performed within the realm of the localized family unit. The public domain includes demographic, economic, social, and educational activities that take place or have impact beyond the localized family unit and that relate to the control of persons or control of things.¹

2. Independent Variables

In order to explain the dependent variable, the following seven factors were chosen as the independent variables:

(1) Age

Seniority is very important to acquire respect at home and in society. Thus, as a woman gets older, she is more respected and revered by the young. Even in the traditional patriarchal society, mother commanded respect and exerted influence. When Goode studied authority relationships in the family, the wife dominant type was found more in the age group of 40 or over constituting 74%. According to Goode, the older couples have more wife dominant type in the American family. He also pointed out that as women get older, women

can be liberated from obedient relationship at the time of their marriage and even in the immigrant families of Italy, Greece, and East European countries in which male dominance is recognized, middle-aged women and older women have dominance in the family.²

Therefore, it is postulated that older women participate more in the decision-making process in the domestic and public domains.

(2) Education

The "theory of Resources" presented by Blood and Wolfe, (1960), assumes that the relative power of husbands and wives in making family decisions depends upon the relative resources (such as education, employment, occupational status) which each spouse brings into the marriage. Husbands usually have higher power because they control a greater number of these resources. The wife's power in decision-making is assumed to increase as her resources increase.

However, the "theory of resources" faced criticisms. In 1970, Rodman revised the "theory of resources" to take into account the cultural contexts in which families are located. In highly developed societies, education can be a socio-economic resource variable that increases the husband's power in the family; in less developed societies,

education can be a cultural variable that brings about closer contact with an "equalitarian marital ethnic."⁴

Buvinic also asserts that education is probably one of the most direct and effective ways available of reaching, motivating, and changing people - both women and men.⁵ In this case, changing people applies to the degree of awareness of women's status by women themselves.

Esther Peterson also says that education increases her contributions to family life by expanding and deepening her understanding, interests, values, and family goals. A sharpened intellect and a wider perception of the world bring the possibility for a rich satisfying life. A good education should make a woman more aware of her responsibilities toward her fellow men and of the need for talents in public service.⁶ Whether or not a woman ever goes into the labor force, her education - the best education she can obtain - is of as much importance to the nation and to humanity as it is to her own satisfaction and sense of achievement.

Thus, we have observed that education has a most profound impact on the economic status of women.⁷ Basically, it means improving their work skills and thereby broadening their employment opportunities. But lack of it or an insufficient amount often means rejection and poverty rather than a production and satisfying work life.

In Ghana, education as an indicator was proven. In Ghana, Feldman(1967) found that uneducated men and women reported a more traditional ideology that is patriarchal authority and a more husband dominated decision-making than the educated ones.⁸

According to Kandel and Lesser's research on marital decision-making in American and Danish urban families, husbands who have less education than their wives have less power. And when the wife is employed out of the home, her husband has less power than when she is not employed.⁹

Thus, wives' education and economic status have more power in their marriage and thus more aptly participate in the decision-making.

(3) Duration of Marriage

In Korea, mother-in-law commands great authority. This was also proved in Taiwan. In studying Taiwanese family life which has similar tradition and custom, Wolf noted as a young bride a woman enters the group in the lowest status, but as her children grow she gains influence with her husband and builds loyalty in her sons.¹⁰

In Japan, the low status of the daughter-in-law's authority derives from the fact that 1) she is a woman, 2) she is young, 3) she is unskilled in the household and in production labor, 4) she is an outsider in that family and 5) she serves the in-

laws.. The power of housewife such as home management, the education of the children, the decision-making of life style belongs in the hands of mother-in-law. The Daughter-in-law was supposed to wait until the authority was finally delegated from the mother-in-law. The authority relationship between the mother-in-law and the daughter-in-law was deep rooted. Although the custom was gradually disintergrated in the postwar period, the above-mentioned relationship of authority will be likely to remain as long as the lineal family system remains.¹¹ The feature is more conspicuous in the rural area as proved in Japan.

Thus, it is assumed that as marital longevity increases, more women participate in the decision-making process in the domestic and public domains.

(4) Economic Status

Female employment helped to prompt a shift in the distribution of power within the family. David Heer's survey of Irish Catholic couples in Boston, showed that in both lower-class, and middle-class families women who worked enjoyed considerably more influence over "really important decisions" than did wives who were not employed. The same finding appeared in Deborah Kliger's study of middle-class households in New York, where employed women substantially affected decisions on "major purchases, loans, savings and investments."¹² Thus, as a wife left home, she gained authority over decisions involving

transactions with the external environment, while losing at least some control over household concerns.

Robert Blood reasoned that a woman's contribution to the decision-making process correlated directly with her value as measured by the outside world. She had a moral right to help determine how her earnings were spent, she enjoyed the benefit of outside contacts, which she might use as a source of ideas and arguments in pressing her position, and she could draw upon the social skills and confidence which came from functioning effectively in an occupational setting. The housewife, in contrast, provided no monetary assistance to the household and performed a job that was accorded little prestige or status. She benefited from, but did not add to, the family resources, she had little base for demanding a large voice in major economic decisions. One of the consequences of female employment, therefore, was to lesson the dominance of the male by breaking his monopoly on the outside world and giving his spouse some of the authority derived from participating in an "external" environment.¹³

According to Mirra Komarovsky, (Blue-Collar Marriage, New York, 1962), millions of lower-class women lacked both the sophistication and experience to envision the possibility of an alternative life style. Such women agreed without hesitation that their husbands' sphere responsibility should be

separate from their own. The wife of the blue-collar work rarely asked the question "who am I?", first, because it never occurred to her, and second, because she already knew the answer. Brought up to be a wife and mother, she accepted her ascribed status as both natural and right.

Another example is also found in Ernestine Friedl's study of a Greek village. Men hold power and authority in the public sphere and are also the official decision makers in the home. But women have an effective voice in many domestic decisions because of the dowries they bring to their husbands. In the nuclear family structure, there is no male hierarchy within the domestic group, and the wife, through control of economic resources, is able to counteract her husband's dominance.

Thus, women with high economic status either with her resources from occupation or having dowries, or properties, they have power and authority and tend to participate more in decision-making.

(5) Consciousness about Discrimination

Its principal assumption is that inequality between the sexes is rooted within the social structure itself, through the allocation of different spheres of responsibility to men and women. In tradition and practice, most societies have developed an elaborate and segregated network of roles for each sex, with little interaction or exchange between the two sexes. The

division of labor, in most cases, has led to a division of authority as well. The expectation that male will make "major" decisions is related directly to the activities carried out by men and women and the connotations attached to those activities. There may be no inherent difference between the value of holding a job and the value of keeping a house, but one has been accorded greater weight and prestige than the other. Thus, the very existence of different sets of activities for men and women has been a means of maintaining and reinforcing an imbalance of power between the sexes. In practice, if not in principle, separate has meant unequal.¹⁶

Females clearly fit into Louis Wirth's definition of a minority group. They have been "singled out for differential or unequal treatment ... because of their physical and cultural characteristics," and they have been excluded from "full participation in society" on the basis of their sex.¹⁷

Therefore, it is postulated that the more a woman is conscious of discrimination against women by men, the more likely she is to be in the decision-making process.

(6) Consciousness about Their Status

Women's consciousness about their status was aroused by Betty Friedan's "The Feminine Mystique" and an ensuing women's liberation movement throughout the world. The above represents the ideological theory of change which points out to subtle

attitudes that allow men to dominate women. The other two conventional ones are the technological theory of change represented by W. F. Ogburn who says that labor-saving devices, improved family planning methods, better health and longer life span as some of the important factors that have freed women from the family and contributed to rise in their labor force participation.

Parsons and Bales developed the theory of the division of labor. According to their theory, American men and women value equality of opportunity and achievement, but their roles are different: men achieve in work outside the home; women cultivate the opportunity of the child to realize his full potential by staying inside the home.¹⁸

Giele refutes above mentioned theories although she recognizes such merit and says that if the change in men's and women's roles is a process of differentiation with its greater potential for recognizing human qualities that are shared across the sexes, then it should be possible to identify forces in the larger society that have contributed to split up traditional sex roles into several component parts, allowing some previously performed by only one sex to be carried out by persons with requisite qualifications without regard to sex.

In such a process of differentiation going on in men's and women's roles, cross-over is possible in many aspects of role

performance between men and women. Therefore, Giele's theory is that a shared consciousness is possible in which men and women, can perceive more clearly each other's problems and satisfactions, and as a result identify with the other.¹⁹

Although Giele's theory emphasizes a shared consciousness of men and women, our postulation is that women's consciousness about the status of women is derived from feminist ideology shared by women throughout the world. However, we recognize the validity of other theories which certainly contributed to the raising of consciousness about women's status.

(7) Residential Area

A new type of family system is emerging in urban society. This urban family type which has its model representation among the young, better educated, middle class couples, tends to direct future change in the family system. In this emerging urban family system, relatively egalitarian authority patterns and shared division of labor patterns characterize most of the marital relationship.²⁰

It is postulated that most changes in the Korean family systems have developed in urban communities and, in varying degrees, have been diffusing to rural communities through the institutionalized and informal linkages between the rural and urban population. The study done by Ha Sang Rak reveals that the nuclear family systems in Korean urban areas constitute 70%.

closely followed by 64% in the rural areas.²¹ The gap is quite small between the two areas.

These premises do not mean that changes in rural family patterns occur only through the diffusion of urban family patterns to the rural communities. Endogenous changes in rural community organization and family patterns, life styles are associated with the modernization programs which include technological and economic development. These effects are reflected in the rising levels of living and education among the rural persons. In turn, these developments generally reinforce changes in rural family patterns introduced by the diffusion of the developing urban family patterns.

Therefore, it is postulated that urban women participate more in the decision-making process than rural women.

CHAPTER IV : RESEARCH FINDINGS AND INTERPRETATIONS

The respondents in the sample were randomly chosen on the basis of the population ratio from Seoul, the provinces of Kyunggi, Kangwon, Chungchong, Kyungsang, Chulla and Cheju Island. Therefore, it might be said that the sample represents the general characteristics of Korean women in regard to their status in national development.

I. Dependent Variable

The dependent variable, women's status, defined as the degree to which women participate in the decision-making process. This includes power and/or authority in the domestic and public domains and is operationalized as follows:

- (1) Women's participation in the decision-making process
in the domestic domain

How well women participate in the decision-making process in the domestic domain is measured by four categories--almost always, frequently, almost never and no answer.

- (2) Women's participation in the decision-making process
in the public domain

How well women participate in the decision-making process in the public domain is categorized into four items--almost always, frequently, almost never and no answer.

Table IV-1 and Figure IV-1(1)(2) show that out of the 866

women who answered the questions, 410 (47.3%) were almost always, 383 (44.2%) frequently, 67 (7.7%) women gave no answer to the question. Out of the 866 women, 185 (21.4%) were almost always, 405 (46.8%) frequently and 269 (31.1%) almost never took part in the decision-making process in the public domain, and 7 (0.8%) women did not reply to the question. Therefore, most respondents (91.5%) tend to participate in the domestic affairs, while only 590 (68.2%) women are engaged in the decision-making process outside the home.

Table IV-1 : Participation in D-M Process

	Domestic Domain	Public Domain
Almost Always	410 (47.3)	185 (21.4)
Frequently	383 (44.2)	405 (46.8)
Almost Never	67 (7.7)	269 (31.1)
No Answer	6 (0.7)	7 (0.8)
Total (%)	866 (99.9)	866 (100.0)

Figure IV-1(1)
Domestic Domain

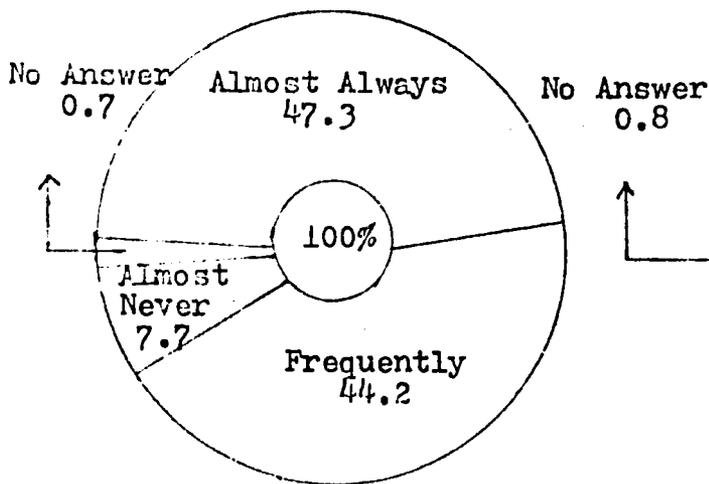
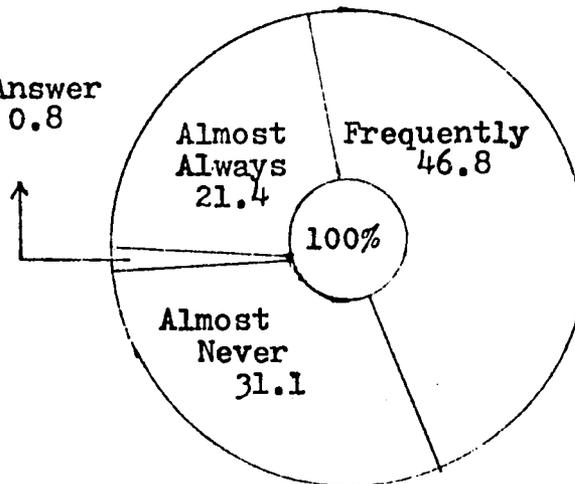


Figure IV-1(2)
Public Domain



In recent years, the importance of having women participate fully in the tasks and benefits of national development has received wide recognition throughout the world. The findings demonstrate that most Korean women are in line with the worldwide trend and take part in the decision-making process at home. However, many women are far away from full participants in the decision-making process outside the family unit. This situation reflects the fact that the main interest of Korean women lies with the decisions within the domestic sphere.

II. Independent Variables

As mentioned earlier, the following seven factors were selected to explain the degree to which women participate in the decision-making process in the domestic and public domains. They are age, education, duration of marriage, economic status, consciousness of discrimination against women by men, consciousness about the status of women, and residential area. These variables are operationalized as follows:

(1) Age

How old a woman is measured by four categories--over 40 years old, 20-40 years old, under 20 years old, and no answer. Among the 866 respondents, 423 (48.9%) belonged to the age group between 21 - 40, 364 (42%) over 40, 72 (8.3%) between 21 - 40, and seven women did not reply to the question. Therefore, the sample is mainly composed of women over 20

years old (90.9%).

(a) Domestic Domain

In Table IV-2(1) the data indicates that out of the 410 active participants in the decision-making process in the domestic domain, a majority (73.4%) were over 40 years of age. Of the 383 frequent participants, 285 (74.4%) were between 21 and 40 years old. Of the 67 rare participants, 48 (71.6%) belonged to the age group between 21 and 40. Thus, it is found that women over 40 are inclined to almost always participate in the decision-making process, while women under 40 tend to frequently or almost never take part in the decision-making process.

Place Table IV-2(1) About Here

Cross tabulation, which provides a measure of the extent of association between two sets of attributes, further illustrates the above contention. The degree of participation in the domestic decision-making process was cross-tabulated with the age variable. The value of the contingency coefficient ($C=.53$, $p<.001$) implies a high degree of association between the two variables.

(b) Public Domain

Table IV-2(2) demonstrates that out of the 185 full

participants in the decision-making process in the public domain, a majority (73%) belonged to the age group over 40. Of the 405 frequent participants, 201 (49.6%) were between 21 and 40, while 170 (42%) were over 40. Of the 269 rare participants, 174 (64.7%) were between 21 and 40. Thus, the sample indicates that women over 40 are likely to almost always or frequently participate in the decision-making process, while women under 40 are inclined to frequently or almost never participate in the decision-making process.

Table IV-2(1) : Age
(Domestic Domain)

	Over 40	20-40	Under 20	No Answer	Total
Almost Always	301 (172.3)	88 (200.3)	19 (34.1)	2 (3.3)	410
Frequently	52 (161.0)	285 (187.1)	43 (31.8)	3 (3.1)	383
Almost Never	8 (28.2)	48 (32.7)	10 (5.6)	1 (0.5)	67
No Answer	3 (2.5)	2 (2.9)	0 (0.5)	1 (0.1)	6
Total	364 (364.0)	423 (423.0)	72 (72.0)	7 (7.0)	866

C = .53

p < .001

*Expected frequencies are in the parentheses.

Table IV-2(2) : Age
(Public Domain)

	Over 40	20-40	Under 20	No Answer	Total
Almost Always	135 (77.8)	45 (90.4)	2 (15.4)	3 (1.5)	185
Frequently	170 (170.2)	201 (197.8)	30 (33.7)	4 (3.3)	405
Almost Never	59 (113.1)	174 (131.4)	36 (22.4)	0 (2.2)	269
No Answer	0 (2.9)	3 (3.4)	4 (0.6)	0 (0.1)	7
Total	364 (364.0)	423 (423.0)	72 (72.1)	7 (7.1)	866

$C = .39$

$p < .001$

*Expected frequencies are in the parentheses.

The cross-tabulation of the participation degree with the age variable in the public domain is resulted in neither strong nor low degree of the relationship between the variables as shown in the value of the contingency coefficient ($C=.39$, $p < .001$).

Therefore, our basic hypothesis is upheld that the degree of participation in decision-making is relative to age: An older woman has more influence in this process. It is also found that she tends to more actively participate in the

domestic decision-making process ($c=.53$) than the public decision-making process ($c=.39$).

(2) Education

The educational background is categorized in terms of five items--college or higher education, high school, middle school, elementary or minimal education and no answer. Among the 866 respondents, 307 (35.5%) received a high school education, 261 (30.1%) primary school or less, 209 (24.1%) middle school, 79 (9.1%) college or higher education, and 10 (1.2%) did not contribute information to the question. Hence, the sample ranges largely from the elementary school graduates to the high school graduates with a relatively equal distribution.

(a) Domestic Domain

As Table IV-3(1) indicates, out of the 410 eager participants in the decision-making process in the domestic domain, 249 (60.7%) were high school graduates. Of the 383 frequent participants, 147 (38.4%) had an educational background of elementary or minimal education, while 145 (37.9%) received a middle school education. Of the 67 rare participants, 44 (65.7%) received an elementary or minimal education. Thus, the data shows that women who graduated from high schools are likely to always participate in the decision-making process. On the other hand, women who received a middle school or a

lesser degree of education tend to frequently or rarely take part in the decision-making process. One thing that should be noted here is that among the 79 women who received an education of college or more, a majority are inclined to fully participate (50.6%) or frequently participate (45.6%).

Table IV-3(1) : Education
(Domestic Domain)

	College or more	High School	Middle School	Primary School or less	No Answer	Total
Almost Always	40 (37.4)	249 (145.4)	48 (99.0)	69 (123.6)	4 (4.7)	410
Frequently	36 (34.9)	50 (135.8)	145 (92.4)	147 (115.4)	5 (4.4)	383
Almost Never	3 (6.1)	4 (23.8)	16 (16.1)	44 (20.2)	0 (0.8)	67
No Answer	0 (0.6)	4 (2.1)	0 (1.5)	1 (1.8)	1 (0.1)	6
Total	79 (79.0)	307 (307.1)	209 (209.0)	261 (261.0)	10 (10.0)	866

$C = .49$

$p < .001$

*Expected frequencies are in the parentheses.

(b) Public Domain

Table IV-3(2) shows that out of the 185 full participants

in the decision-making process in the public domain, 67 (36.2%) were graduated from high schools, while 55 (29.7%) from college or higher education. Out of the 79 women with a college or higher degree, a majority (69.6%) were active participants in the process of decision-making. Of the 405 frequent participants, 176 (43.5%) had an elementary or minimal education, while 146 (36.1%) graduated from middle schools. Of the 269 rare participants, a majority (65.8%) were composed of women with a primary school or less education. Therefore, women with more than high school education are likely to almost always participate in the decision-making process, while women with less than middle school education tend to frequently or rarely participate in the process of decision-making.

Place Table IV-3(2) About Here

A contingency coefficient of .56 indicates a high association of the two variables ($C=.56$, $p < .001$).

The above findings are in keeping with our working hypothesis that participation in decision-making is tied to education: A more educated woman exerts greater influence in this process. And she is more actively associated with the public decision-making process than with the domestic decision-making process.

Table IV-3(2) : Education
(Public Domain)

	College or more	High School	Middle School	Primary School or less	No Answer	Total
Almost Always	55 (16.9)	67 (65.6)	38 (44.7)	22 (55.8)	3 (2.1)	185
Frequently	16 (37.0)	176 (143.6)	146 (97.7)	61 (122.1)	6 (2.8)	405
Almost Never	8 (24.5)	59 (95.4)	25 (64.9)	177 (81.1)	0 (3.1)	269
No Answer	0 (0.6)	5 (2.5)	0 (16.2)	1 (20.2)	1 (0.8)	7
Total	79 (79.0)	307 (307.0)	209 (209.1)	261 (261.0)	10 (10.0)	866

C = .56

p < .001

*Expected frequencies are in the parentheses.

(3) Duration of Marriage

The longevity of marriage is measured by five items-- more than 20 years, 10-19 years, 1-9 years, unmarried and no answer. Among the 866 respondents, 249 (28.8%) were married for 10-19 years, 232 (26.8%) for 1-9 years, 161 (18.6%) for more than 20 years, while 205 (23.7%) were unmarried and 19 (2.2%) did not respond to the question. Thus, the sample

is about equally distributed among each group.

(a) Domestic Domain

In Table IV-4(1), we see that out of the 410 active participants in the decision-making process in the domestic domain, 147 (35.9%) were married for 10-19 years, 103 (25.1%) for 1-9 years and 100 (24.4%) for more than 20 years. But out of the 161 women who remained married for more than 20 years, a majority (62.1%) were eager participants in the process of decision-making. Of the 383 frequent participants, 115 (30%) were married for 1-9 years and 92 (24%) for 10-19 years, while 114 (29.8%) were unmarried. Of the 67 rare participants, 35 (52.2%) were unmarried and 12 (17.9%) were married for 1-9 years. Thus, the data indicates that women who have been married for a longer period of time are more inclined to actively participate in the decision-making process.

Place Table IV-4(1) About Here

A contingency coefficient of .31 shows that the participation degree is positively but weakly related to the duration of marriage.

(b) Public Domain

In Table IV-4(2) the data demonstrates that out of the 185 active participants in the decision-making process in the

Table IV-4(1) : Duration of Marriage
(Domestic Domain)

	More than 20 Years	10-19 Years	1-9 Years	Unmarried	No Answer	Total
Almost	100	147	103	55	5	410
Always	(76.2)	(117.9)	(109.8)	(97.1)	(9)	
Frequently	52	92	115	114	10	383
	(71.2)	(110.1)	(102.6)	(90.7)	(8.4)	
Almost	7	9	12	35	4	67
Never	(12.5)	(19.3)	(18.0)	(15.9)	(1.5)	
No Answer	2	1	2	1	0	6
	(1.1)	(1.7)	(1.6)	(1.4)	(0.1)	
Total	161	249	232	205	19	866
	(161.0)	(249.0)	(232.0)	(205.0)	(19.0)	

C = .31

p < .001

*Expected frequencies are in the parentheses.

public domain, 75 (40.5%) were married for 10-19 years. Of the 405 frequent participants, 131 (32.4%) were married for a period of 1-9 years. Of the 269 rare participants, a majority (50.6%) were unmarried. Among those women who were married, women with married life of 1-9 years were the largest rare participant group. Thus a woman with 10-19 years of married life is more likely to be active in the decision-making process, while an unmarried woman or a woman with less

experience in married life tends to be a passive participant in the decision-making process.

Table IV-4(2) : Duration of Marriage
(Public Domain)

	More Than 20 Years	10-19 Years	1-9 Years	Unmarried No Answer	Total	
Almost Always	55 (34.4)	75 (53.2)	38 (43.6)	11 (43.8)	6 (4.1)	185
Frequently	90 (75.3)	131 (116.5)	126 (108.5)	55 (85.2)	3 (8.9)	405
Almost Never	16 (50.9)	81 (87.4)	67 (72.1)	136 (63.2)	9 (5.9)	269
No Answer	0 (1.3)	2 (2)	1 (1.9)	3 (1.7)	1 (0.2)	7
Total	161 (161.0)	249 (249.1)	232 (232.1)	205 (205.3)	19 (19.1)	366

$$C = .44$$

$$p < .001$$

*Expected frequencies are in the parentheses.

A contingency coefficient of .44 indicates a mediocre association of the two variables ($C=.44$, $p < .001$).

The findings are in line with our original hypothesis that marital longevity increases the influence of a woman in the decision-making process. However, a weak or mediocre value on contingency coefficients ($C=.31$ or $C=.44$) shows

that though a woman with a longer marital life tends to participate in the process of decision-making, the longevity of marriage does not provide a sufficient condition to show the increase in the degree of participation.

(4) Economic Status

The economic status is measured by the amount of the monthly pay scale such as more than w200,000, w100,000-w199,000, w50,000-w99,000, w30,000-w49,000, less than w30,000 and no answer. Among the 866 respondents, 316 (36.5%) received less than w30,000 per month, 307 (35.5%) earned a wage of w30,000-w49,000, 152 (17.6%) received a wage of w50,000-w99,000, 39 (4.5%) in the w100,000-w199,000 category, 18 (2.1%) more than w200,000 and 34 (3.9%) did not contribute information. Thus, a majority (72%) are composed of women with an income of less than w50,000 per month.

(a) Domestic Domain

Table IV-5(1) shows that out of the 410 active participants in the decision-making process and out of the 39 women who earned wages between w100,000-w199,000, a majority (64.1%) also fully participated in the process of decision-making. Of the 383 frequent participants, 225 (58.8%) were paid less than w30,000. Of the 67 rare participants, 24 (35.8%) received less than w30,000, while for 19 (28.4%) the wage scale was between w30,000-w49,000. Thus, we can infer two facts from

the data: First, since the sample is mostly composed of women with an income of less than w50,000, participants are also concentrated in the groups for the pay scale of less than w50,000. Secondly, though the number of women who are paid more than w100,000 constitute a minority group, this group tends to almost always take part in the decision-making process.

Table IV-5(1) : Economic Status
(Domestic Domain)

	Over w200,000	w100,000 -199,000	w50,000 -99,000	w30,000 -49,000	Less Than w30,000	No Answer	Total
Almost Always	18 (8.5)	25 (11.5)	118 (72.0)	190 (115.4)	67 (149.6)	8 (16.1)	410
Frequently	7 (8)	12 (17.3)	31 (67.2)	38 (135.3)	225 (139.8)	10 (15)	383
Almost Never	0 (1.4)	1 (3)	9 (11.8)	19 (23.8)	24 (24.5)	14 (2.6)	67
No Answer	1 (0.1)	1 (0.3)	2 (1.1)	0 (2.1)	0 (2.2)	2 (0.2)	6
Total	18 (18.0)	39 (39.1)	152 (152.1)	307 (307.1)	316 (316.1)	34 (33.9)	866

$C = .48$

$p < .001$

*Expected frequencies are in the parentheses.

A contingency coefficient of .48 implies that there is a positive and mediocre relationship between the two variables

($C=.48$, $p < .001$).

(b) Public Domain

Table IV-5(2) indicates that out of the 185 active participants in the decision-making process in the public domain, 92 (49.7%) received a wage of w50,000-w99,000. Of the 405 frequent participants, 202 (49.9%) received wages of less than w30,000. Of the 269 rare participants, 137 (50.9%) belonged to the group of w30,000-w49,000. Thus, the data shows that women who are paid more than w50,000 are more inclined to take part fully in the decision-making process, while women who are paid less than w50,000 tend to frequently or rarely participate in the process of decision-making.

Place Table IV-5(2) About Here

A contingency coefficient of .48 demonstrates that a positive and mediocre association exists between the two variables ($C=.48$, $p < .001$).

The findings are in keeping with our hypothesis that the higher the economic status of a woman the more likely she is to take part in the decision-making process.

(5) Consciousness of Discrimination against Women by Men

The degree to which women are aware of their consciousness level concerning the biological, legal, political, economic,

Table IV-5(2) : Economic Status
(Public Domain)

	Over w200,000	w100,000 -199,000	w50,000 -99,000	w30,000 -49,000	Less Than w30,000	No Answer	Total
Almost	8	17	92	39	25	4	185
Always	(3.9)	(8.3)	(32.5)	(65.6)	(67.5)	(7.3)	
Frequently	9	13	40	130	202	11	405
	(8.4)	(18.2)	(71.1)	(143.6)	(147.8)	(15.9)	
Almost	1	7	20	137	87	17	269
Never	(5.6)	(12.1)	(47.2)	(95.4)	(98.2)	(10.6)	
No Answer	0	2	0	1	2	2	7
	(0.2)	(0.3)	(1.2)	(2.5)	(2.6)	(0.3)	
Total	18	39	152	307	316	34	866
	(18.1)	(38.9)	(152.0)	(307.1)	(316.1)	(34.1)	

$$C = .48$$

$$p < .001$$

*Expected frequencies are in the parentheses.

social and educational discrimination against women by men is categorized by four items--high, medium, low and no answer.

Among the 866 respondents, 333 (38.5%) were highly conscious of discrimination against women by men, 284 (32.8%) conscious but not enthusiastic, 230 (26.6%) lowly conscious and 19 (2.2%) did not provide an answer to the question. Thus, the respondents are almost equally divided into three categories.

(a) Domestic Domain

In Table IV-6(1), it is shown that out of the 410 active participants in the decision-making process in the domestic domain, 209 (51%) were highly conscious of discrimination against women by men. Of the 383 frequent participants, 156 (40.7%) were conscious but not enthusiastic. Of the 67 rare participants, 27 (40.3%) were minimally aware. Thus, the data indicates that women being highly aware of discrimination are the most likely to almost always or frequently participate in the decision-making process. On the other hand, women that are conscious of discrimination reveal a tendency to rarely participate in the process of decision-making.

Place Table IV-6(1) About Here

A contingency coefficient of .29 shows that a positive but weak relationship exists between the two variables ($C=.29, p < .001$).

(b) Public Domain

In Table IV-6(2), the data indicates that out of the 185 active participants in the decision-making process in the public domain, 124 (67%) were highly conscious of discrimination. Of the 405 frequent participants, 168 (41.5%) were conscious but not enthusiastic, while 147 (36.3%) were highly

Table IV-6(1) : Consciousness of Discrimination
(Domestic Domain)

	High	Medium	Low	No Answer	Total
Almost Always	209 (157.7)	107 (134.5)	88 (108.9)	6 (9)	410
Frequently	107 (147.3)	156 (125.6)	115 (101.7)	5 (8.4)	383
Almost Never	15 (25.8)	18 (22.0)	27 (17.8)	7 (1.5)	67
No Answer	2 (2.3)	3 (2)	0 (1.6)	1 (0.1)	6
Total	333 (333.1)	284 (284.1)	230 (230.0)	19 (19.0)	866

C = .29

p < .001

*Expected frequencies are in the parentheses.

conscious. Of the 269 rare participants, 133 (49.4%) were minimally conscious. Thus, it can be said that women who are highly conscious of discrimination are inclined to actively or frequently take part in the decision-making process. Women being minimally conscious of discrimination reveal a tendency to rarely take part in the process of decision-making.

Table IV-6(2) : Consciousness of Discrimination
(Public Domain)

	Much	Medium	Low	No Answer	Total
Almost Always	124 (71.1)	41 (60.7)	12 (49.1)	8 (4.1)	185
Frequently	147 (155.7)	168 (132.8)	84 (107.6)	6 (8.9)	405
Almost Never	60 (103.4)	75 (88.2)	133 (71.4)	1 (5.9)	269
No Answer	2 (2.7)	0 (2.3)	1 (1.9)	4 (0.2)	7
Total	333 (332.9)	284 (284.0)	230 (230.0)	19 (19.1)	866

C = .47

p < .001

*Expected frequencies are in the parentheses.

A contingency coefficient of .47 implies that there exists a positive and mediocre association between the two variables (C = .47, p < .001).

The findings confirm our hypothesis that the higher level of awareness that a woman possesses concerning discrimination against women by men, the more likely she is to be in the

decision-making process. Moreover, she tends to be more active participants in the public domain ($C=.47$) than in the domestic domain ($C=.29$).

(6) Consciousness about the Status of Women

Regarding the question of whether women agree with the Women's Liberation Movement for complete equality between men and women, the response is measured by four categories--agree, partly agree, disagree and no answer. Among the 866 respondents, 711 (82%) were highly conscious about the status of women, 126 (14.6%) conscious but not enthusiastic, 19 (2.2%) minimally conscious and 10 (1.2%) did not respond when asked. Thus, most of the women who responded to the question (82%) are completely interested in equality between men and women.

(a) Domestic Domain

In Table IV-7(1) the data shows that out of the 410 active participants in the decision-making process in the domestic domain, 375 (91.5%) agreed with the Women's Liberation Movement. Of the 383 frequent participants, 325 (84.9%) also reacted positively. Of the 67 rare participants, 53 (79.1%) partly agreed with the Women's Liberation Movement. Therefore, the respondents either completely or partially in agreement with the Women's Liberation Movement for complete equality between men and women and are actively taking part in the decision-making process. Even women who are rarely participating in

the process of decision-making possess partly a consciousness about the status of women.

Table IV-7(1) :
Consciousness about the Status of Women
(Domestic Domain)

	Agree	Partly Agree	Disagree	No Answer	Total
Almost Always	375 (336.6)	32 (59.7)	1 (9)	2 (4.7)	410
Frequently	325 (314.5)	39 (55.7)	4 (8.4)	2 (4.4)	383
Almost Never	11 (55)	53 (9.8)	11 (1.5)	4 (0.8)	67
No Answer	0 (4.9)	2 (0.9)	3 (0.1)	1 (0.1)	6
Total	711 (711.0)	126 (126.1)	19 (19.0)	10 (10.0)	866

$$C = .58$$

$$p < .001$$

*Expected frequencies are in the parentheses.

A contingency coefficient of .58 shows a high association between the two variables ($C=.58$, $p < .001$).

(b) Public Domain

In Table IV-7(2), the data indicates that out of the 185 active participants in the decision-making process in the public domain, 171 (92.4%) were in full agreement with equal

treatment for men and women. Of the 405 frequent participants 357 (88.2%) agreed. Of the 269 rare participants, 183 (68%) also were in agreement. Thus, all the respondents are conscious about the status of women regardless of the degree to which women participate in the decision-making process.

Table IV-7(2) :
 Consciousness about the Status of Women
 (Public Domain)

	Agree	Partly Agree	Disagree	No Answer	Total
Almost Always	171 (151.9)	10 (26.9)	1 (4.1)	3 (2.1)	185
Frequently	357 (332.5)	41 (58.9)	4 (8.9)	3 (4.7)	405
Almost Never	183 (220.9)	75 (39.1)	10 (5.9)	1 (3.1)	269
No Answer	0 (5.8)	0 (1.0)	4 (0.2)	3 (0.1)	7
Total	711 (711.1)	126 (125.9)	19 (19.1)	10 (10.0)	866

C = .46

p < .001

*Expected frequencies are in the parentheses.

A contingency coefficient of .46 shows that a positive and mediocre association exists between the two variables (C=.46, p < .001).

The findings are in line with our hypothesis that the more a woman is aware of the status and roles of women in national development, the more likely she is to participate in the decision-making process. Furthermore, a woman that possesses a high awareness about the status of women tends to be more active in the process of decision-making at home ($C=.58$) than outside the home ($C=.46$).

(7) Residential Area

The place in which a woman lives is dealt with in terms of five areas--metropolitan, city, country, village (farm or fishing) and no answer. Among the 866 respondents, 304 (35.1%) lived in the country, 212 (24.5%) in the metropolitan area, 189 (21.8%) resided in village, 153 (17.7%) in the city and 8 (0.9%) did not reply to the question. Thus, the respondents are relatively equally dispersed among the places under consideration.

(a) Domestic Domain

Table IV-8(1) indicates that out of the 410 active participants in the decision-making process in the domestic domain, 134 (32.7%) lived in the metropolitan area, while 133 (32.4%) resided in the country. Of the 383 frequent participants, 143 (37.3%) lived in the country. Of the 67 rare participants, 27 (40.3%) also lived in the country. Thus, the data implies that women living in the metropolitan area

tend to actively take part in the decision-making process, though the number is not conspicuous. On the other hand, women residing in a country environment do not show any particular characteristics in their behavior of participation in the process of decision-making.

Table IV-8(1) : Residential Area
(Domestic Domain)

	Metropolitan City		Country Village	No Answer	Total	
Almost	134	54	133	84	5	410
Always	(100.4)	(72.4)	(143.9)	(89.5)	(3.8)	
Frequently	64	80	143	93	3	383
	(93.8)	(67.7)	(134.5)	(83.6)	(3.5)	
Almost	11	17	27	12	0	67
Never	(16.4)	(11.8)	(23.5)	(14.6)	(0.6)	
No Answer	3	2	1	0	0	6
	(1.5)	(1.1)	(2.1)	(1.3)	(0.1)	
Total	212	153	304	189	8	866
	(212.1)	(153.0)	(304.0)	(189.0)	(8.0)	

C = .21

p < .001

*Expected frequencies are in the parentheses.

A contingency coefficient of .21 indicates that there is a positive but weak relationship between the two variables (C=.21, p < .001).

(b) Public Domain

Table IV-8(2) shows that out of the 183 active participants in the decision-making process in the public domain, 76 (41.1%) lived in the metropolitan area, while 57 (30.8%) resided in the country. Of the 405 frequent participants, 146 (36.1%) lived in the country, while 105 (25.9%) lived in village. Of the 269 rare participants, 100 (37.2%) lived in the country. Thus, the respondents living in the metropolitan area are inclined to almost always participate in the decision-making process, while women living in the country or village tend to frequently or almost never participate in the process of decision-making.

Place Table IV-8(2) About Here

A contingency coefficient of .36 indicates that a positive but weak relationship exists between the two variables ($C=.36$, $p < .001$).

The findings are in keeping with our basic hypothesis that the longer a woman lives in an urban setting, the more likely she is to participate in the decision-making process. However, the relationship between residential areas and the participation degree is weak ($C=.21$ and $C=.36$). This finding might be attributed to the following two factors: First, the

largest group of the respondents lived in the country and this group did not show any conspicuous features concerning the participation in the decision-making process. Secondly, women living either in the urban area or rural area tended to frequently participate in the process of decision-making.

Table IV-8(2) : Residential Area
(Public Domain)

	Metropolitan City	Country	Village	No Answer	Total	
Almost	76	24	57	26	2	185
Always	(45.3)	(32.7)	(64.9)	(40.4)	(0.4)	
Frequently	70	82	146	105	2	405
	(99.2)	(71.6)	(142.2)	(88.4)	(3.7)	
Almost	64	45	100	57	1	269
Never	(65.9)	(47.5)	(94.4)	(58.7)	(2.5)	
No Answer	2	2	1	1	3	7
	(1.7)	(1.2)	(2.5)	(1.5)	(0.1)	
Total	212	153	304	189	8	866
	(212.1)	(153.0)	(304.0)	(189.0)	(8.0)	

$$C = .36$$

$$p < .001$$

*Expected frequencies are in the parentheses.

In all, the contingency coefficients demonstrate that the seven selected independent variables are positively related to the degree to which women participate in the decision-making process both in the domestic and public domains.

In the domestic domain, the most important independent variable is consciousness about the status of women (C=.58). Other independent variables, age (C=.53), education (C=.49), economic status (C=.49), duration of marriage (C=.31), consciousness of discrimination against women by men (C=.29) and residential area (C=.21), show their importance in the descending order. Thus, consciousness about the status of women, age, education and economic status are good indicators of women's participation in the domestic decision-making process.

In the public domain, the most significant independent variable is education (C=.56). Other independent variables, economic status (C=.48), consciousness of discrimination against women by men (C=.47), consciousness about the status of women (C=.46), duration of marriage (C=.44), age (C=.39) and residential area (C=.36) demonstrate their significance in the descending order. Thus, in general, education, economic status, and consciousness about the status of women can relatively well explain the dependent variable.

These findings have confirmed the central hypothesis of this paper that Korean women will perform more effective roles in national development as they become more involved in decision-making. Therefore, we can conclude that as women become better-educated, economically better-off and highly conscious about the status of women, their participation in

the process of decision-making will be increased. And this increased participation will make women greatly contribute to national development.

CHAPRER V : SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

Korea needs additional vigorous studies to explore, investigate and identify impeding factors in the advancement of the legal, political, social and economic status of Korean women in relation to their integration into national development.

In this study, seven indicators were chosen to clarify the decision-making process which reflects the status of women in Korea. They were age, education, duration of marriage, economic status, consciousness of discrimination against women by men, consciousness about the status of women and residential area. For further research, more indicators such as religion, occupation, family system, political socialization, etc. should be added.

A study on the problem of Korean women from the point of view of Korean men would provide valuable insights (e.g., a comparison of men's attitude toward women's status with women's attitudes toward their own status) and new directions related to the advancement and participation of women in Korea.

The research on "decision-making" or "family power structure" in the United States has been a one-sided study giving the wives' view-points only according to Constantina Safilios-Rochschild. Therefore, data on decision-making is generally barely comparable. Men's views should be supplemented in order to give a balanced and objective view.

In this research, there was no mention of the influence

techniques used by wives, whether verbal or non-verbal. These influence techniques need to be further pursued. More information would be necessary about the differentiation of used influence techniques according to the importance accorded to the decision; the degree of effectiveness of the influence techniques used as perceived by each spouse, and the course of behavior followed in case of failure to convince the disagreeing spouse.

In addition, methodological problems should be solved. The calculation and use of an over-all decision-making scope is methodologically not suitable. In this study, all decisions are given an equal weight. Some decisions, however, are more important and are made frequently, requiring much more time and energy than other decisions.

In Korea, Blood and Wolf's (1960) "Resource Theory" and Heer's "Exchange Theory" should be applied and modified whenever it suits the conditions in Korea.

A comparative study of the findings of this project with the findings of a similar project in other countries would constitute an excellent follow-up research. The models of other countries could be categorized; into 3 areas; the industrially advanced countries, the developing countries, and the countries in between. Even these three categories do not neatly fit in to precise model form because each country has it's own unique cultural context and it's own peculiar characteristics albeit

the differences in the degree of economic development.

However, by encouraging a comparative study, the theory concerning the problem of the integration of women's status into development can be developed and constructive results can be obtained which can be applied to actual practice.

CHAPTER VI: SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

The problem of women's participation in development is one of the three themes of the International Women's Year. It covers the political, economic, and social participation. To understand the problem, we reviewed the existing situation in Korea for the full integration of women in national development. The programs for this purpose should be done with a view to assuring that women's capabilities and needs are fully taken into consideration. This requires a long, painstaking effort to enable women to make a more productive and constructive contribution to development.

The women's studies concerning the status of women in Korea was substantial. However, the problem of the integration of women's status into development is a rather new concept. Therefore, in accordance with the world trend, with its emphasis on women in development, the pursuance of the study on women's status in development is a very essential and timely one.

This study is the first attempt to integrate women's status into development, therefore, it was general in scope. However, focusing on decision-making is an indicator to assess and evaluate the status of women in Korea.

This study sampled 866 Korean women from Seoul, the provinces of Kyunggi, Kangwon, Chungchong, Kyungsang, Chulla

and Cheju Island. The generalizations of our findings can be summarized as follows:

- 1) The degree of participation in decision-making is relative to age: an older woman has more influence in this process. And she tended to be more actively participating in the domestic decision-making process rather than the public decision-making process.
- 2) The degree of participation in decision-making is tied to education: A more educated woman exerts greater influence in this process. And she is more actively associated with the public decision-making process rather than with the domestic decision-making process.
- 3) Marital longevity increases the influence of a woman in the decision-making process. A woman with a longer marriage life, tends to participate more actively in decision-making in public domain rather than in the domestic domain.
- 4) The higher the economic status of a woman the more likely she is to take part in the decision-making process in the domestic and public domains.
- 5) The more a woman is conscious of discrimination against women by men, the more likely she is to

be in the decision-making process. Moreover, a highly conscious woman tends to be a more active participant in the public domain rather than in the domestic domain.

- 6) The more a woman is conscious about the status and roles of women in national development, the more likely she is to participate in the decision-making process. Furthermore, a woman being highly conscious about the status of women is likely to be more active in the process of decision-making in the domestic sphere rather than in the public domain.
- 7) The longer a woman lives in an urban setting, the more likely she is to participate in the decision-making process. She tends to more actively take a greater part in the public decision-making process rather than in the domestic decision-making process.

Thus, our findings show that the degree to which a woman participates in decision-making can best be explained by such variables as age, education, economic status and consciousness about the status of women. Thus, when a woman is better-educated, economically better-off, and more conscious about her status, she is likely to take part in the process of

decision-making which affects her status, and which will heighten and positively contribute to national development.

After this broad, general picture about the developmental aspect, specific fields such as population, health, training for urban jobs, training of agricultural techniques, and the role of communication and mass media in influencing public opinion toward development should be vigorously studied and pursued.

Human beings are the most important resources for development. They are, at the same time, both the agents and the beneficiaries of development. The quality of the societies in which they live and develop will be determined by the extent to which they are involved in the process of transformation.

About half of the human resources available for development are women. But, the majority of women have been excluded from development in most countries. We have to face this fact that available human resources are wasted or neglected. We have to correct this situation. In such an endeavor, not only women, but men, families, communities, nations, and the world will be benefited .

In order to fully utilize this half of the human resources in the world for development, the status of women should be advanced.

In so doing, social justice will be attained in which women will find self-fulfillment and self-respect through contributing to national development.

Now, at the conclusion of this study, we recommend the following programs for the best utilization of women's resources for national development.

Access to education and training is a key to social and economic progress. Equal education for women is hampered by a whole set of mutually-dependent ideas and traditions that define and limit the female role. In Korea, the shortage of educational facilities, in combination with a belief that boys should be educated first, effectively excludes many girls. Where there are few schools in the rural areas, students ordinarily must be prepared to travel some distance, and girls' attendance is limited by beliefs that they should not travel alone, or live apart from family supervision. In poor families, children's labor often contributes vitally to the economic viability of the household. Girls' education is precluded or curtailed by the belief that it is more appropriate for daughters than sons to be responsible for time-consuming household chores, care of younger children, and in some regions, farming or marketing activities.

Furthermore, lack of appropriate employment opportunities for educated individuals dampens enthusiasm for

costly education. Where jobs are scarce, they tend to go to men first, so parents reasonably conclude that the investment in education for their daughters offers a questionable return, than does education for their sons.

Some of the solutions to the problem of inequality in education are obvious: none of them are necessarily easy. Equal access to existing educational facilities and positions would be a first step. Equal access to non-academic employment, which would justify the time and financial investment in education, is also crucial.

The vocational training for girls should be intensified. Especially, integrated or special training programs should be developed for girls and women in rural areas to enable them to participate fully and productively in economic and social development and to learn advanced technology in agriculture. Such programs should include training in modern methods of agriculture and use of equipment, co-operatives, marketing, and in health, nutrition, family planning and education.

Text books should be revised to present an image of women in positive and participatory roles in society.

Vocational training should be available to boys and girls to provide them with equal employment opportunities.

In Korea, 39.6% of the economically active population

are women and nearly 37% of women of working age (over 14) are in the labor force. This shows that women's contribution is substantial and has not been fully recognized. The majority of women are engaged in a limited number of occupations at lower levels of skill and responsibility.

The government should formulate policies to give equal opportunity and treatment for woman workers. Equal pay for equal work is recommended. Minimum wages should be applied to women. And protective legislation for women should be enforced and reviewed from time to time.

In view of the fact that a major obstacle in improving the status of women lies in public attitudes and values regarding women's roles in society, the mass communication media plays an important role for shaping opinions regarding women and can exercise a significant influence in helping to remove prejudices against women. The government and various voluntary organizations should encourage the mass media to take an objective view towards women and to ensure that information should be provided on the current status of women in various countries, with particular emphasis on the changing roles of men and women.

The mass media should seek to raise public consciousness with respect to these changing roles and should be urged to project a more positive view of women and to take into

account the diversity of women's roles and their actual and potential contribution to society at large.

The authors would like to see these recommendations implemented by the government and social institutions, thus helping highten women's status, which will contribute greatly to national development.

FOOTNOTES

CHAPTER I

¹-The History of Korean Women" consisting of 3 volumes is published by Ewha Womans University. The same book, abridged and translated into English was entitled "Women of Korea".

²For example, Bae Kyung Sook's Women and Law published in Korean and also in English. Her book consists of three parts: The Women's movement around the world, laws concerning all the citizens, and family law. The third part is the most important of all.

Chung Kwang Hyun wrote books on Family Law and Family Inheritance Law. Lee Tae Young, a noted female lawyer, wrote an article on "The Legal Status of Korean Women" which was included in the book, A History of Korean Women. There is also an article on "The Women's Status from the Viewpoint of Civil Code." Thus, the studies on the legal status of Korean women are available. Primarily civil law scholars and experts deal with the problems of women.

³Among the works on working women is "An Analysis of Working Conditions of Women Workers in Korea" by Kim Ok Yul and Kim Tai Hi which is a survey conducted on the women in the manufacturing industries throughout Korea. A more recent study was done by Lee Hyo Chai and Cho Hyoung, "The Characteristics of Female Labor Force Participation in Korea" in 1976. The studies dealing with working women's awareness and attitude are Lee Dong Won's "The Working Woman's Attitude Toward Occupation and The Family," Lee Hyo Chai and Lee Dong Won's "University Women's Occupational Structure and Their Job Consciousness," and Kim Ok Yul's "Korean Women's Job Awareness,"

Many graduate students have been concerned with women in employment, especially noting discrimination against women in trade and industry. Among them, we find Kim Choon Kyung's The Present Situation of Korean Working Women and Their Basic Problems. Kim Soon Ok wrote an interesting thesis on "The Study of the Impact of Employed Women on Their Conjugal Conflict." Choi Chan Hi wrote a thesis on the "Women's Status from the Viewpoint of Labor Law." "The Social Status of Women in the Banking Industry" was studied by Lee Han Soon.

YWCA also conducted a survey on women in the banking industry and brought attention to the problem faced by women in that industry. Some recommendations were made to alleviate discrimination against women employees.

⁴For example, see Kang Wu Chul, Kim Dae Whan and Lee Kun Su, "Social Function of Woman Leaders in Rural Development."

⁵Peggy R. Sanday, "Female Status in the Public Domain," edited by Michelle Zimbalist Rosaldo and Louise Lamphere, Women Culture and Society (California: Stanford Univ. Press, 1974), p. 190; see also Michelle Zimbalist Rosaldo, "Woman Culture and Society: A Theoretical Overview," in Women Culture and Society, pp.17-42; Karen Sacks, "Engels Revisited: Women, the Organization of Production, and Private Property," in Women Culture and Society, pp.207-22.

⁶Michael G. Smith, Government in Zazau, London, 1960, pp. 18-9.

⁷Claude E. Welch, Jr., Political Modernization, 1967.

⁸Sidney Siegel, Nonparametric Statistics for the Behavioral Sciences (New York: McGraw-Hill Book, 1956), p. 196.
k stands for columns and r represents rows.

⁹John H. Mueller and Karl F. Schuessler, Statistical Reasoning in Sociology (Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1961), pp.264-57.

CHAPTER II

¹Mayra Buvinic, Women and World Development An Annotated Bibliography, (Washington D.C.: Overseas Development Council, 1976), p. 1.

²Ibid., p. 2.

³Ibid.

⁴Peggy R. Sanday, "Female Status in the Public Domain," ed. by Michelle Z. Rosaldo and Louise Lamphere, Women Culture and Society, (Stanford: Stanford University Press, 1974), pp.189-206..

⁵William H. Chafe, The American Woman, (London: Oxford University Press, 1972), p. 194.

⁶Quoted in Louise Lamphere, "Strategies, Cooperation, and Conflict, Among Women in Domestic Groups," in Women Culture and Society, p. 99.

⁷Michael G. Smith, Government in Zazau, London, 1960, pp.18-9.

⁸Lamphere, op. cit., p. 99.

⁹Ulmer S. Sidney, ed., Political Decision-Making, (New York: Nostrand Reinhold, 1970), p. 3.

¹⁰Richard C. Snyder, "A Decision-Making Approach to the Study of Political Phenomenon," in Roland Young, ed., Approaches to the

Study of Politics. (Evanston, Ill.: Northwestern University Press, 1958), pp. 11-12. David Easton, A Framework for Political Analysis. (Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1965), p. 20.

¹¹Buvinic, op. cit., p. 5.

¹²Office of Labour Affairs, ROK. Year Book of Labour Statistics, 1976, p. 4.

¹³Irene Tinker, "The Adverse Impact of Development on Women," ed. by Irene Tinker and Michele Bo Bramsen, Women and World Development, (Washington, D.C.: Overseas Development Council, 1976), pp.22-34.

¹⁴The Choongang Ilbo, April, 26, 1977 and the summary of an article in The Economist in the Chosun Ilbo, May 12, 1977.

¹⁵Ester Boserup and Christina Liljencrantz, Integration of Women in Development, Why, When, How, UNDP, May, 1975, p.6.

¹⁶Ibid., p. 7.

¹⁷Quoted in Ingrid Palmer, "Rural Women and the Basic-Needs Approach to Development," International Labor Review, January-February, 1977, p. 105

¹⁸Ibid., p. 107.

¹⁹Quoted in Boserup & Liljencrantz, op. cit., p. 10.

CHAPTER III

¹Peggy R. Sanday, "Female Status in the Public Domain," ed. by M. Rosaldo and L. Lamphere, Woman, Culture, and Society, p. 190.

²W. J. Goode, The Family, (Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, 1964), p. 75.

³Denise B. Kandel and Gerald S. Lesser, "Marital Decision-Making in American and Danish Urban Families: A Research Note," Journal of Marriage and the Family, February, 1972, p. 134.

⁴Ibid.

⁵Mayra Buvinic, Women and World Development An Annotated Bibliography, p. 20.

⁶ Esther Peterson, "The Impact of Education," ed. by Seymour M. Farber and Roger H. Wilson, The Potential of Woman, (New York: McGraw-Hill, 1963), pp. 188-9.

⁷ Ibid., p. 197.

⁸ Constantina Safiliros-Rothschild, "The Study of Family Power Structure: A Review 1960-1969," Journal of Marriage and the Family, November, 1970, p. 547.

⁹ Kendal and Lesser, op. cit., p. 136.

¹⁰ Louise Lamphere, "Strategies, Cooperation, and Conflict Among Women in Domestic Groups," in Woman, Culture, and Society, p. 105. and Margery Wolf, Women and the Family in Rural Taiwan, 1972.

¹¹ Kiyomi Morioka, Family Sociology, (Tokyo: Yuhikaku, 1967), pp. 62-3.

¹² William H. Chafe, The American Woman (London: Oxford University Press, 1972), pp. 222-3.

¹³ Ibid.

¹⁴ Ibid., p. 119.

¹⁵ Lamphere, p. 106.

¹⁶ Chafe, p. viii.

¹⁷ Ibid., p. ix.

¹⁸ Janet Zollinger Giele, "Changes in the Modern Family: Their Impact on Sex Roles," The Women's Movement, ed. by Helen Wortis and Clara Rabinowitz, (New York: Wiley, 1972), pp. 66-7.

¹⁹ Ibid., p. 68.

²⁰ Lee G. Burchinal and Ward W. Bauder, "Decision-Making and Role Pattern Among Iowa Farms and Non-Farm Families," Journal of Marriage and the Family, November, 1965, p. 526.

²¹ Ha Sang Rak, The Chungang Ilbo, May 9, 1977.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Bae, Kyung Sook, Women and Law. Seoul: Pakyoungsa, 1972.
- Blood, Robert O. Jr. and Wolfe, Donald W. Husbands and Wives, New York: The Free Press, 1960.
- Boserup, Ester and Liljencrantz, Christina, Integration of Women in Development. UNDP, May, 1975.
- " , Woman's Role in Economic Development, London: George Allen & Unwin, 1970.
- Burchinal, Lee G. & Bauder, Ward W. "Decision-Making and Role Patterns among Iowa Farms and Non-Farm Families," Journal of Marriage and the Family, November, 1965, pp.525-30.
- Buvinic, Mayra, Women and World Development An Annotated Bibliography, Washington D.C.: Overseas Development Council, 1976.
- Chafe, William H., The American Woman, London: Oxford University Press, 1972.
- Choi, Jai Seuk, "Family Power Structure in Korean Rural Areas," The Journal of Asian Women, Vol. VIII, 1969, pp.241.
- Easton, David, A Framework for Political Analysis, Englewood Cliffs, N.J.: Prentice-Hall, 1965.
- Farber, Seymour M. & Wilson, Roger, ed., The Potential of Woman, New York: McGraw Hill, 1963.
- Giele, Janet Zollinger, "Changes in the Modern Family: Their Impact on Sex Roles," in Wortis, Helen & Rabinowitz, Clara, ed. The Women's Movement, New York: John Wiley, 1972.
- Goode, J., The Family, Englewood Cliffs: Prentice-Hall, 1964.
- Han, Nam Jae, "Allocation of Power within Urban Family of Korea," The Korean Journal of Sociology, Vol. 6, 1970-1, pp.55-67.
- Hawkes, Glenn R. & Taylor, Minna, "Power Structure in Mexican-American Farm Labor Families," Journal of Marriage and the Family, November, 1975, pp.807-11.
- Horowitz, Irving L., Three Worlds of Development, 2nd ed., New York: Oxford University Press, 1973.
- Huber, Joan, ed., Changing Women in a Changing Society, Chicago:

University of Chicago Press, 1973.

Kandel, Denise B. & Lesser, Gerald S., "Marital Decision-making in American and Danish Urban Families: Research Note," Journal of Marriage and the Family, February, 1972, pp. 134-7.

Kim, Dae Whan, Sociology, Rev., Seoul; Bupmunsa, 1975.

Kim, Jeung Han & Ahn, Ei Jun, The New Civic Code, (I), Seoul; Bupmunsa, 1969.

Kim, Ju Soo, Family Inheritance Law, rev., Seoul; Bupmunsa, 1970.

Kim, Ok Yul & Kim, Tai Hi, "An Analysis of Working Conditions of Woman Workers in Korea," The Journal of Asian Women, Vol. XI, 1972, pp. 1-46.

Kim, Ok Yul, Han Wan Sang, & Kim, Tai Hi, "Occupation and Social Participation of Professional Women in Korea," The Journal of Asian Women, Vol. XII, 1973, pp. 5-54.

Kim, Ok Yul, Kim, Joo Sung, & Park, He-Kyong, "A Survey on Family Planning for Workers," The Journal of Asian Women, Vol. XIII, 1974, pp. 5-46.

Korean Women's Political Consciousness, Korea Women's Institute, 1967.

Lamphere, Louise, "Strategies, Cooperation, and Conflict Among Women in Domestic Groups." Edited by Rosaldo, Michelle Z. & Lamphere, L., Women, Culture, and Society, Stanford: Stanford University Press, 1974, pp. 97-112.

Lee, Han Bin, Theory and Strategies for National Development, Seoul: Paxyoungsa, 1969.

Lee, Hyo Chai & Cho, Hyoung, "The Characteristics of Female Labor Force Participation in Korea (1970)," Journal of Korean Cultural Research Institute Vol. 27, 1976, pp.267-93.

Lee, Hyo Chai and Kim, Ju Sook, The Status of Korean Women, Seoul: Ewha Womans University Press, 1976.

McGrath, Patricia, The Unfinished Assignment: Equal Education for Women, Worldwatch Paper 7, Washington: D.C.: Worldwatch Institute, July, 1976.

Morioka, Kiyomi, Family Sociology, Tokyo; Yuhikaku, 1967.

Ministry of Education, Korea, Statistical Year Book of Education, 1976.

Mueller, John H. & Schuessler, Karl F., Statistical Reasoning in Sociology, Boston: Houghton Mifflin, 1961.

National Commission for UNESCO, Korea. Report of a Seminar for the Improvement of Woman's Status, 1975.

National Council of Women, Korea. Resource Materials for International Women's Year, 1975.

Office of Labour Affairs, ROK, The Present Situation of Woman Workers, 1972.

Office of Labour Affairs, ROK, Year Book of Labour Statistics, 1975, 1976.

Palmer, Ingrid, "Rural Women and the Basic-needs Approach to Development," International Labor Review, Vol. 115, January-February 1977.

Papanek, Hanna "Women in Cities: Problems and Perspectives," in Women and World Development, edited by Tinker, Irene, & Bo Bramsen, Washington D.C.: Overseas Development Council, 1976, pp.54-69.

Safilios-Rothschild, Constantina, "The Study of Family Power Structure: A Review 1960-1969," Journal of Marriage and the Family, November, 1970, pp. 539-49.

Siegel, Sidney, Nonparametric Statistics for the Behavioral Sciences, New York: McGraw-Hill, 1956.

Sidney, Ulmer S., Political Decision-Making, New York: Van Nostrand Reinhold, 1970.

Smith, Michael G., Government in Zazau, London, 1960.

Snyder, Richard C., "A Decision-Making Approach to the Study of Political Phenomenon," Roland Young, ed., Approaches to the Study of Politics, (Evanston, Ill: Northwestern University Press, 1958.

Tinker, Irene, "The Adverse Impact of Development on Women," Women and World Development, edited by Tinker, Irene, & Bramsen, Washington D.C.: Overseas Development Council, 1976.

Vroom, Victor H. & Yetton, Philip W., Leadership and Decision-Making, Pittsburgh: University of Pittsburgh Press, 1973.

Welch, Claude E. Jr., Political Modernization, 1967.

Womanpower in Korea, 1970, Manpower Development Research
Institute, Seoul, Korea.

Wortis, Helen & Rabinowitz, Clara, The Women's Movement,
New York: John Wiley, 1972.

The Chosun Ilbo

The Chungang Ilbo