Individual Effects on Married Women's Labor Force Participation in Korea

Ju-Moon Park* · Ae-Ree Sohn**

In the past two or three decades female workers were over-represented in low-paying jobs and occupations plagued by sex discrimination due to a traditionally patriarchal culture. The traditional concepts of family perpetuation and old-age security are still widely valued in Korea. Nevertheless, Korean women have played an active role in industrialization. Female labor force participation was greatly influenced by social and cultural restraints, but women's need for role compatibility appeared in the rapid industrialization process and the strength of such social and cultural restraints declined in Korea. Consequently, there has been a considerable recent increase in married women's participation in the labor force largely as a result of socio-economic factors.

I. Introduction

A. Background and Importance

Many labor economists have studied the behavioral pattern of labor supply, especially female labor force participation, which has increased greatly, especially during the industrialization process. Until now many researchers have suggested that female labor be supplied elastically and flexibly as secondary workers, and also argue that female labor force participation is greatly influenced by social and cultural factors. As a result, it is generally recognized among labor economists that changes in the female labor participation rate can play a decisive role in the determination of the total labor supply.

In Korea, the traditional concepts of family perpetuation and old-age security are still widely valued. As Stycos and Weller(1967) mentioned, in Korea it is still difficult for the roles

* Researcher, Korea Institute for Health and Social Affairs.
** School of Public Health, Seoul National University.

of mother and worker to be compatible. Since married women's need of role compatibility surfaced during rapid industrialization, however, the power of such social and cultural contraints in Korea has recently decreased considerably in the married women's labor force. During the period between 1980 and 1985 married women's participation increased markedly from 36.0% to 55.1% (Korean Women's Development Institute, 1985). This rapid increase was not accidental, but inevitable in the process of industrialization (Machiko, 1988) and compared favorably with that of the period 1970 to 1980 when it stabilized (36.7% in 1970). It was suggested that fertility seemed to be related to this increase, that is, women's participation might have been influenced by the attainment of demographic transition in 1983 which was just before the rapid increase in married women's labor force participation : the total fertility rate dropped from 2.7 in 1980 to 2.1 in 1983 and the Bogue Index, which indicates the attainment of demographic transition, was 102% in 1983(Park, 1989). It is also known that other individual-level factors have a great impact on the determination of labor force participation, i. e., many empirical studies show that individual factors have a great impact on it. Examples of such individual factors include the individual's educational attainment, the presence and age of children, the attitude towards economic activities.

Western empirical research has illustrated that the female labor force participation rate has a positive relationship with women's educational attainment (Pame, 1970). The number of children might have an impact on the labor force participation of married women. Bowen and Finegan introduced the number of children and their age structure as other explanatory variables. They succeeded in analyzing the behavioral pattern of married women's labor participation with these variables and empirical results show that married women will increase their participation if they have older children who can take care of their younger siblings.

Women's attitude toward female economic activities is itself considered one determinant influencing the participation. Mahoney argued that women with a positive attitude on female economic activities might participate in the labor market more actively than those with a negative attitude (Mahoney, 1961). One empirical study on this question might provide some insights (Kim, 1972). These findings showed that the participation of married women who had a positive opinion on female economic activities two years ago were higher than those who did not. It further demonstrated that among women who were in the non-labor force at that survey time, the number of those opposed to labor force participation was even greater than those who had supported the idea two years earlier. He concluded that women's attitudes could be regarded as a predictable variable in determining their future behavior. A husband's attitude on female economic activities is also considered an impor-

tant determinant of participation (Kim, 1971).

We can also consider yet other factors, among them family size, monthly income and husband's employment status, and use of home appliances (Kim, 1971 ; Long, 1958 ; Ro, 1986).

As reviewed above, empirical studies show that many individual factors have a great or small impact on married women's labor force participation though there is a difference resulting from social and cultural influences in each country, but such studies are rare in Korea, so the present study will be very meaningful.

B. Objectives of the Study

The principal aim of this study is to explore the effects of individual-level variables on the labor force participation of Korean married women.

Specific objectives follow.

1. to review the overall characteristics of changing women's labor force participation rates, with particular attention to those sectors which have undergone the greatest change,

2. to find out what the major factors influencing Korean married women's labor force participation are and to explore the effects of individual-level variables on participation.

C. Individual Approach in the Present Study

To place the focus of this study in perspec-

Figure 1. Typology of Unit of Analysis

		Level of Measurement	
Unit		Individual	System
of	Individual	Type Ⅰ	Type Ⅱ
Observation	System	Type Ⅲ	Type Ⅳ

tive, we present in the diagram below a typology of research strategies pertinent to social science. The typology has two dimensions : level of measurement and unit of observation (Lee, 1977). Each of these dimensions is dichotomized between the individual and the system levels, so four types are identified.

Type Ⅰ strategy represents most of the research focused so far in population and family planning. Both the level of measurement and the unit of analysis have tended to be at the individual level. The use of data-gathering instrument based on individuals as respondents such as the survey research method has tended to restrict the unit of analysis as well as the individual level. This has resulted in neglect, by and large, of the larger context in which the individuals interact with each other as a possible source of influence on behavior.

Type Ⅱ and Type Ⅲ strategies incorporate both the individual and system levels either in terms of the level of measurement or the unit of observation. Generally, studies that focus on the interactive effect of individuals within organizations would represent these strategies (Khan, 1958 ; Katz, 1951 ; Kim, 1974), which

indicates that organizational effectiveness tends to vary greatly depending on the personal characteristics of the individual workers and the organizational structure in which they work. Recent research on the diffusion of innovations in organization also represent these types as both individual characteristics and organizational structure are taken into account (Mohre, 1969 ; Hage & Aiken, 1970). The Type IV approach has been used in the study of communities by sociologists (Lind, 1938 ; Hawley, 1950) or of cultures by anthropologists (Narroll, 19 64 ; Young, 1965 ; Murdock, 1966). Communities and cultures have been analyzed in terms of structures and patterns based on measurements obtained at the system level, or if obtained at the individual, aggregated to represent system-level characteristics. The effect in a study by Rogers and others (1975) to explain the difference in family planning adoption rates in two Korean villages in terms of communication network patterns within these villages is a good example of this approach applied to the area of family planning.

This study uses one strategy : Type I. It observes the behavior pattern measured at the individual level and thus the basic unit of analysis in this strategy is the individual. As such, it differs from those studies that focus on the system level (Type II), the individual level by aggregating across individuals within a given community (Type III), and the system qua system (Type IV). Therefore, Types II, III and IV strategies are not represented in the present study since we focus on the individual exclusively. Our aim is to explain the difference in married women's labor force participation by looking at individual characteristics.

D. Data and Methodology

The data for the analysis is from the 1988 Korean National Fertility and Family Health Survey, which was conducted by the Korea Institute for Population and Health.

This study's samples are confined to married women aged 15~49 years who were living with their husbands. The survey yielded samples of 8,229 married women, among whom 94.7% were interviewed. The cases with missing or inappropriate values for the major variables were excluded from the sample.

It should be noted that there are potential biases in this selection. The fertility and working experience of women in this sample might have been affected by the socio-economic events which occurred during their childbearing period. For example, women over 40 went through the Korean war (1950~1953) and the post-war baby boom during their childbearing period. The exact effects of these events with respect to working experience cannot be assessed.

As can be seen in Table 1, the independent variables of the present study are the working experience of the woman, average monthly income of household, number of children under 6 years of age, vocation of husband, age of wo-

Table 1. Variables for Individual-level Model

Variable Names	Description
HMEI	Average monthly income of household, in won
CNU6	Number of children under 6 years of age
HVOC	Vocation of husband
	1 if husband has a vocation
	0 other
WAGE	Age of married woman in years
EDUC	Educational attainment of married woman
EDU2	1 if years of schooling are 12 or less
	0 other
EDU3	1 if years of schooling are 12 or more
	0 other
NAEC	Number of additional expected children
WEBM	Married women's working experience before marriage :
	1 = yes ; 0 = no
EDUH	Educational attainment of husband
	0 if years of schooling are 12 years or less
	1 other
WAFM	Married woman's age at first marriage in years
CPWM	Married women's contraceptive practice
	1 if married women are practicing
	0 other

man, educational attainment of woman, number of additional expected children, educational level of husband, and married women's contraceptive practice and age at first marriage. Table 1 shows the list of factors used in the model. The dependent variable of this study is the labor force participation of the respondent. participation of the respondent.

We have argued that individual level attributes should be taken into account for adequate prediction of labor force behavior. From the vast number of such variables that can be considered, a limited number of factors have been chosen on the basis of their utility in previous research and their applicability to our current theoretical concerns. Indices have been constructed to measure them, so that the relationship between them may be analyzed using a multivariate statistical technique.

In our analysis, we first determine which of the selected variables will have significant predictive value for the dependent variable, using the chi-square test, and selected predictors were then submitted to the logistic regression

analysis. The basic strategy was to assess the separate effect of each independent variable on the dependent variable.

The chi-square test was computed for all individual-level variables to determine the potential predictors which were significantly related to the dependent variables. The chi-square test is known to be particularly good for testing linear trends in proportions.

The logistic regression analysis was undertaken to deal with the binary nature of the dependent variable, which had values of 1 or 0. Under this model, the probability of married women's labor force participation, p, was the probability that $y=1$. Under the logistic function, the probability that married women were in the labor force depended on independent variables, X1, X2, X3, $\cdots$, Xm according to the relation, $\hat{P}=1/1+e-(a+\hat{\beta}_i X_i)$, where, e, α and $\hat{\beta}_i$ were respectively the base of the variable influencing the labor force participation of married women. Using this model, the independent effect of each variable could be tested by the significance of $\hat{\beta}_i$ corresponding to the ith variable.

II. Overall Characteristics of Female Labor Force Participation

Since the beginning of export-led industrialization in Korea in the 1960s, female labor force participation in the national economy has undergone a change, both quantitatively and qualita-tively. In 1965, 48% of all women aged over 14 years were economically active. That proportion had increased to 57% by 1980 according to population census reports. Such an increase is even more visible in the urban sector than in the agricultural sector, and in the period 1966~1985, the percentage of the female labor force in primary industries (agriculture, forestry, and fisheries) decreased from 64.4% to 27. 7%, while in manufacturing it jumped from 9.1 % to 23.3% and that in tertiary industry from 26.5% to 49.0%. On the whole, the proportion of the total labor force engaged in primary industry dropped from 59.4% in 1966 to 25.4% in 1985 as rural to urban migration increased rapidly(Park, 1987). It should be noted that due to this migration the average age of rural female laborers has risen to over 30. The importance of women in the labor-intensive export industries is reflected in the ratio of women to men in manufacturing industries. Their percentage increased from 26.8% in 1960 to 38.4% in 1980, while that for men fell marginally from 73.4% to 72.4%.

It is noteworthy that married women comprise most of the female laborers in the agricultural sector, while women in secondary industries, particularly in manufacturing, are predominantly single. The female population in the age group 15 to 24 years increased at an average annual rate of 3.99%, while the average population growth rate was 1.75%. It may be argued here that it was those young female

workers aged 15 to 24 during the 1970s whose ample supply contributed greatly to the rapid growth of the labour-intensive export industries in the 1970s. Most female workers had migrated from rural areas after graduation from middle school or high school.

According to the Korean Women's Development Institute (1985) as well, more than 83% of female workers were younger than 24 so, considering the mean age at first marriage of 24.7 in Korea, most of them were single. Among this group, young females were preferred, because they were said to have a longer attention span than males and would adjust more easily to longer hours on assembly lines. In addition, the substantial wage differentials between female and male workers made female workers more profitable to employ and their employment opportunities increased rapidly, but this age selectivity has altered the division of labour among generations because of the aging of the remaining rural population in agricultural sectors, while the increasing female participation in manufacturing raises the issue of mobilization of female labour in an internationally labour-intensive industrialization strategy. Moreover, 48.1% of all employees were female and 64.4% of that group's activities were accounted for by textile, clothing and electronic goods production. In addition, the female labour force outnumbered their male counterparts in the textile, clothing, electronics, rubber and plastic industries. The industries in which female workers outnumbered male workers-these came to be known as female industries-were initially limited to the textile and garment industries, but this expanded to four industries in 1975 and by 1982 consisted of the textile, clothing, shoe, rubber and plastics, electronic and electrical goods, porcelain and pottery industries, which were the driving force for export oriented economic growth in the 1970s. As a result, in 1975 these "female" manufacturing industries accounted for 70% of total national export earnings according to an Economic Planning Board report.

In the period 1965~1985 the shift from the agricultural sector to the industrial, commercial and service sectors took place at a faster rate for women than for male workers. In particular, the percentage of women who work in clerical positions showed a remarkable increase from 0.1% in 1965 to 33.3% in 1980, but the proportion in administration decreased from 12.1% in 1965 to 1.5% in 1980. These growth rates in different occupations call for a closer look at the pattern of sex differentials in the division of labour and positions in the various white collar sectors over past years. In the agricultural sector where the predominant pattern is characterized by self-employment and family employment, the issues of differential treatment of male and female workers is invisible, but in the urban sectors where the worker's reward is monetary, the wage difference between male and female workers is significant. This is even

more important in light of the fact that the proportion of self or family-employed female workers has dramatically decreased, while that of female workers has more than doubled over the years. In other words, during the past two decades, women have been moving away from family and self-employment to wage employment, from the informal sector to the formal sector, through commercial and temporary contracts, and such a change has been taking place more rapidly for women than for men.

There are other problems which should be taken into consideration before we declare the overall increase in female participation in the national economy to be a positive result of industrialization and the improvement of women's social status. These problems are more visible in the sectors which have experienced the greatest amount of change in the composition of their labour force, particularly in terms of women. Considering female labour force participation in the labour market by marital status, it is generally observed that single women have been most influenced by industrialization and modernization, particularly in the urban sectors. According to the 1975 census, 55.7% of all single women were employed, while the proportion for married women was 44.5%, indicating some differences between single and married women in their employment rate, but there was no significant gap between unmarried women with regard to their employment rates in the urban and rural sectors, while the married wo-

men's employment rate in the urban sectors was significantly lower than in rural areas. In terms of different age groups, the proportion of unmarried woman workers in urban areas was 3.4 times greater than that of married women, while the comparison was reversed, a higher proportion of married women than unmarried women, in rural areas, except for the 20~29 reproductive age group. This indicates the difficulties which women experience in meeting the dual demands of family life and economic employment in the process of industrialization. While the greater proportion of unmarried women was engaged in contractual labour, married women were, in general, self or family-employed. This difference was less significant in the cities than in rural areas. In the cities, the employment patterns between unmarried and married women were also different. Among unmarried employees, 87.7% were in contractual wage labour, 2.9% were self-employed, and 5.7% were temporarily employed. The corresponding proportions for married woman workers were 22.8%, 39.6%, 26.2% and 11.4%, respectively. In rural areas women were predominantly self-employed or were in family employment, and a large proportion of the overall labour demand was met by married women. The rate of contractual employment for married women was quite low, indicating limited opportunities for contractual labour in these areas.

In terms of occupation, a majority of female workers were engaged in production, clerical

and service occupations in urban sectors and in agriculture and in related occupations in rural areas. Among unmarried woman workers in the cities, 51.1% were employed in production, 20.9% in service occupations and 16.1% in clerical work, while the proportion for married female workers was 37.5% in sales, 19.5% in service occupations and 18.3% in production. In the case of married woman workers in rural areas, 88.1% were employed in agriculture, 5.4% in sales, and 3.2% in production, while the proportion for unmarried woman workers was 63.5% in agriculture, 18.4% in production and 8.1% in service occupations.

Turning now to the gender inequality in earnings, it should be noted that despite variations in family shares of employment within categories, the inequality in earnings between the two sexes has been the biggest factor in economic inequality. According to Labour Ministry reports, the average monthly wage of woman workers was only 45% of that for the males. The proportion was 68.5% in the professional/technical occupations, 51.4% in administrative work, 63.2% in clerical occupations, 64.2% in sales, 66.8% in services, 43.4% in agriculture, and 50.2% in production. The most important sources of male/female earnings differential are women's low level of education and tenure and payment practices of companies (Kim, 1988).

According to a Women's White Paper (1985), more than 77% of female wage earners work in the manufacturing sector. Indeed, manufacturing industries accounted for 91.7% of female workers who earned less than 100,000 won a month. This represents 31.1% for female wage earners. Moreover in manufacturing industries, women on the average, earned only about 44.9% of the wages for men, because men worked in the traditionally higher paid maunfacturing industries.

In clerical jobs, women's wages were only 49% that of men. The smallest gap was in administrative/technical work, 84.7% and 72.9%, respectively, but women made few inroads into such markets.

On the whole, Korean female workers were over-represented in low-paying jobs and in occupations plagued by sex discrimination due to a traditionally patriarchal culture.

III. Individual Effects on Married Women's Labor Force Participation

In this chapter, the effects of independent variables adopted in this analysis are studied separately. The main purpose of this section is, therefore, to observe how each one of eleven factors is related to the labor force participation of married women regardless of other potentially related variables.

First of all, let us look into the results of the chi-square test. As can be seen in Table 2, all other factors except for married women's contraceptive practice and the number of addi-

Table 2. Significance Level of Factors Used in the Model

Variable Names	Number of Cases	χ^2-test
Average Monthly Income of Household		p < 0.01
0～500,000 won	5,616	
510,000 won or more	2,175	
Number of Children under Age Six		p < 0.001
0	4,910	
1	1,965	
2	885	
3	31	
Vocation of Husband		p < 0.001
No	739	
Yes	7,431	
Age of Woman		p < 0.001
15～19	13	
20～24	510	
25～29	1,846	
30～34	1,813	
35～39	1,400	
40～44	1,136	
45～49	1,073	
Education of Married Women		p < 0.001
12 years or less schooling	2,421	
12 years or more schooling	5,367	
Education of Married Women		p < 0.001
12 years or less schooling	7,142	
12 years or more schooling	646	
Number of Expected Additional Children		p > 0.05
1	873	
2	133	
3	4	
4	1	
Working Experience before Marriage		p < 0.01
No	3,482	
Yes	2,479	
Educational Attainment of Hushand		p < 0.01
12 years or less schooling	6,143	
12 years or more schooling	1,610	
Age at First Marriage		p < 0.01
15～19	1,326	
20～24	4,984	
25～29	1,413	
30～34	52	
35～39	9	
40～44	1	
45～49	0	
Married Woman's Contraceptive Practice		p > 0.05
Practicing	5,446	
Not practicing	1,030	

tional expected children are statistically significant at the 1 percent level in explaining the labor force participation of married women.

Now, let us apply the significant factors identified in the above chi-square test to the logistic regression model. The model is estimated separately for urban and rural married women. Table 3 shows the list of factors used in the model, together with their mean values. Here, urban married women have a higher level of education and better economic conditions compared to rural married women, and the urban married woman's age at first marriage is higher than that of rural women. Indeed, married women with work experience are fewer in rural areas than in urban areas, but urban married women have fewer children under six years of age compared with rural married women. Table 4 is

a summary of the logistic regression analysis. In order to examine the relationship between married women's labor force participation and their education in detail, married women's education was classified with low level education-schooling of 12 years or less and higher level of education-schooling of 12 years or more. Thus, there are two factors, EDU2 and EDU3.

Education is a statistically significant factor in determining married women's labor force participation for both rural and urban areas, although higher education was insignificant in rural area. Married women with a higher education were more likely to work, especially in rural areas. It can be explained that this tendency is due to the change in the female employment structure and low-educated married women's strong dependency on their husbands' income.

Table 3. List of Variables and Their Means, Used in the Logistic Regression Model

Variables	Means	
	Urban	Rural
Average Monthly Income of Household(in 10,000 won)	53.174	43.826
Number of Children under Six Years of Age(in numbers)	0.557	0.747
Vocation of Husband(No=0 ; Yes=1)	0.966	0.957
Age of Married Women(15 to 49)	26.798	26.198
Married Women's Low Level of Education (schooling of 12 years or less=1 ; else=0)	0.524	0.451
Married Women's Higher Level of Education (schooling of 12 years or more=1 ; else=0)	0.183	0.049
Married Women's Working Experience before Marriage (No=0 ; Yes=1)	0.852	0.762
Husband's Educational Attainment (schooling of 12 years or more=1 ; else=0)	0.365	0.790
Married Women's Age at First Marriage(13 to 49)	23.764	22.909

Table 4. Parameter Estimates for the Logistic Regression Model

Variables	Urban		Rural	
	Regression Coefficient $(\hat{B})$	Standard Error of $\hat{B}$	Regression Coefficient $(\hat{B})$	Standard Error of $\hat{B}$
HMEI	.08807**	.03535	.09124*	.05347
CNU6	−.23495***	.02803	−.17429***	.03489
EDU2	−.31260***	.03965	−.23374***	.06236
HVOC	−.44150***	.07179	.00000	.00005
AGEM	.00410	.00283	.01701***	.00347
WEBM	.14420***	.03637	.18574***	.04823
EDU3	−.12867*	.07034	.21317	.15575
WAFM	−.00774	.00623	−.00687	.00761
EDUH	−.23001***	.04881	−.25534***	.09642

* $p < 0.05$

** $p < 0.01$

*** $p < 0.001$

Married women are less likely to work if there are children aged less than six years of age in the household, both in urban and rural areas, with the relationship stronger in urban areas. The presence of children under six years of age exerts a powerful inhibiting effect on participation in urban areas rather than in rural areas. The difference in both urban and rural areas may be due to the different types of work married women do and socio-cultural influence.

As can be expected, the average monthly income of a household is a statistically significant determinant of married women's labor force participation, with the relationship stronger in urban areas. The relationship between married women's participation and the husband's vocation is not statistically significant in rural areas but is in urban areas, which indicates that rural married women are more likely to work, compared to their urban counterparts, if their husband have jobs.

The educational attainment of the husband is not statistically related to the married woman's labor force participation in either rural or urban areas. In both areas, married women with more educated husbands are less likely to work, while married women with less educated husbands are more likely to work.

The relationship between married women's labor force participation and their work experience before marriage is statistically significant in both urban and rural areas, with a stronger effect in rural areas. Married women who have work experience before their marriage seem positive in their labor force participation.

Age is not statistically related to their partici-

pation in urban areas, but is significantly rela-ted in rural areas, with a small positive effect on rural married women's participation. Age at first marriage has no influence in either rural or urban areas. Married women are simply less likely to work as their age at first marriage increases.

In summary, the present model is not perfect, but the results of the multivariate analysis pro-vide some information about factors associated with married women's labor force participation. It has been shown that it is influenced mostly by socio-economic factors and demographic va-riables such as the husband's vocation and edu-cation, married women's work experience be-fore marriage and education and the average monthly income of the household, the number of children under six years of age and the mar-ried woman's age. In the logistic regression analysis of married women's labor force partici-pation on the nine selected independent variab-les, the number of children under six years of age, the married woman's low education le-vel, the husband's vocation and education, the married woman's work experience before mar-riage ($p < 0.001$), the average monthly income of the household ($p < 0.01$) and the level of the married woman's education ($p < 0.05$) were statistically significant in urban areas. Among these significant factors, the number of children under six years of age, the married woman's education, the husband's education and vocation showed negative effects on participation and the

average monthly income of the household and the married woman's work experience before marriage had positive influences on it. For rural areas, the number of children under six years of age, the married woman's low education le-vel, the husband's education, and the married woman's work experience before marriage and the age ($p < 0.001$) and the average monthly income of the household ($p < 0.05$) were statis-tically significant. The average monthly income of the household, the married woman's age and work experience before marriage had positive effects and the number of children under six years of age, their low level of education and the husband's education had negative influences on it.

IV. Conclusion

The purpose of this paper has been to explore the effects of individual-level variables on Ko-rean married women's labor force participation. We have reviewed the overall characteristics of changing female labor force participation, with particular attention to those sectors which have undergone the greatest extent of change and identified the major factors influencing Ko-rean married women's participation.

As discussed, in the past two or three deca-des Korean female workers were over-represe-nted in low-paying jobs and in occupations pla-gued by sex discrimination due to a traditiona-lly patriarchal culture. The traditional concepts

of family perpetuation and old-age security are still widely valued in Korea. Nevertheless, Korean women have played an active role in industrialization.

In past decades, female labor force participation was greatly influenced by social and cultural restraints, but women's need for role compatibility appeared in the rapid industrialization process and the strength of social and cultural restraints declined. As a result, there has recently been a considerable increase in the married woman's participation in the labor force. According to this analysis, this increase was greatly influenced by socio-economic factors while demographic variables influenced married women's labor force participation, although there is a slight difference between rural and urban areas. The average monthly income of the household, the number of children under six years of age, the married woman's education, the husband's vocation and education and the married woman's work experience before marriage were significant determinants of their participation in urban areas and the average monthly income of the household, the number of children under the age of six, the husband's education, the married woman's age and education and work experience before marriage were significant in the rural areas.

References

Armitage, P., "Tests for Linear Trends in Proportions and Frequencies", *Biostatistics*, 11 : 564, 1955.

Freedman, R. and L. C. Coombs, *Cross-Cultural Comparisons : Data on Two Factors in Fertility Behavior*, New York : The Population Council, 1974.

Garfinkel, J. and S. Selvin, "A Multivariate Analysis of the Relationship between Parental Age and Birth Order and the Human Secondary Sex Ratio", *Journal of Biosocial Science*, 8 : 113, 1976.

Keyfits, N. and W. Flieger, *Population : Facts and Methods of Demography*, San Francisco : W. H. Freeman and Company, 1971.

Kim, S. K., *Determinants of Labor Force Participation of Married Women 30-44 Years of Age*, University of Minnesota, 1971.

Kim, Young Hwa, "Gender Inequality in Earnings in the Structural Labour Market : A Case Study of Korea", *The Women's Studies*, Vol. 9, No. 2, 1986.

Lee, S. B., *System Effects on Family Planning Behavior in Korea Villages*, The University of Michigan, 1977.

Long, C. D., *The Labor Force under Changing Income and Employment*, Princeton, N. J. : Princeton University Press, 1958.

Mahoney, T. A., "Factors Determining Labor Force Participation of Married Women",

Industrial and Labor Relations Review, July 1961.

Meng, K. H., *Factors Affecting the Korean Secondary Sex Ratio : Epidemiologic and Demographic Considerations,* 1983.

Park, Ju Moon, "Relationships between Urban Population Concentration and Employment", *The Journal of the Population Association of Korea,* Vol. 10, No. 2, Seoul, 1987.

_____, "Korean Urbanization in the Developmental Context", *Working Paper,* Institute of Social Studies, The Hague, 1989.

_____, "South Korean Women : Not Marginalised", *Issues,* Institute of Social Studies, The Hague, 1989.

Standing, G., *Labor Force Participation and Development,* Geneva : ILO, 1977.

기혼여성의 취업에 미친
영향분석

박 주 문*·손 애 리**

본 연구는 여성의 취업에서 큰 변화를 겪었던 산업에 관심을 갖고 변화하는 여성 취업의 일반적 특징을 고찰하고, 기혼여성의 취업에 영향을 미친 주요결정요인을 조사하였다.

본 분석을 위해 1988년에 한국인구보건연구원에서 실시했던 "전국 출산력 및 가족 보건 조사자료"가 사용되었으며, 15~49세의 기혼부인을 분석대상으로 하였다.

지난 30여년동안 한국여성은 주로 임금이 낮은 제조업분야에 종사하였으며, 동일 직종에 종사할지라도 남자에 비해 상대적으로 낮은 임금으로 인한 차별을 받아왔으며, 가계계승과 노후의탁 등 전통적 자녀가치관의 만연으로 인한 사회문화적 제약도 컸었다. 이러한 제약에도 불구하고 여성의 활발한 경제활동은 한국의 산업화에 크게 공헌하였으며, 급격한 산업화과정에서 나타난 여성들의 역할양립에 대한 욕구는 여성취업율의 증가로 이어져 기혼여성의 취업에 상당한 증가를 거양하였다.

본 분석에서 기혼부인의 취업에 유리하게 영향을 미친 변수는 도시의 경우에는 가구의 소득수준, 6세이하의 자녀수, 남편의 교육수준과 직업 그리고 기혼여성의 교육수준과 혼전 취업경험 등이었고, 농촌의 경우에는 기혼여성의 교육수준과 연령, 6세이하의 자녀수, 남편의 교육 그리고 기혼여성의 혼전 취업경험 등으로 나타났다. 여기서 흥미로운 사실은, 고졸 이하 기혼여성의 경우 도시·농촌 양지역 모두에서 교육수준과 취업간에 유의한 부(−)의 관계를 나타내나 대졸 이상의 경우는 도·농 간에 차이를 나타내, 농촌의 경우 도시와는 달리 교육수준과 취업간에 유의하지 않은 정(+)의 상관성을 보이고 있다는 것이다. 이는 교육수준이 낮은 농촌 부인의 남편소득에의 의존경향과 아울러 농촌의 취약했던 고용구조의 개선으로 고급여성인력의 취업이 최근 활발해진 결과로 보여진다.

결론적으로, 최근 기혼여성의 취업은 남편의 교육수준과 직업, 기혼여성의 혼전 취업경험 그리고 교육수준과 같은 사회경제적 요인에 의해 크게 영향을 받았으며, 6세이하의 자녀수나 기혼여성의 연령과 같은 인구학적 변수들도 도시와 농촌간에 약간의 차이는 있지만 취업에 영향을 주었음을 알 수 있다.

＊본원 주임연구원.
＊＊서울대학교 보건대학원.