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# The 2021 Korean Women Manager Panel Survey

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The 2021 Korean Women Manager  
Panel Survey



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## I . Introduction

### 1. Necessity of the Research

The number of Korean women entering the labor market has gradually increased over the past decade. However, representation of women in the labor market has been at a standstill without any major growth. We can confirm quantitative growth of women's participation in the workforce using objective indicators. When it comes to qualitative growth, however, negative assessment accounts for a majority at home and abroad. South Korea ranked at the very bottom of the Economist's glass-ceiling index 2021 for the 9<sup>th</sup> consecutive year. According to the analysis of the number of women managers announced in 2021 by the Federation of

Korean Industries, Korea's women chief executive officers accounted for a mere 3.6 percent, and women board members made up a mere 4.5 percent. South Korea also ranked 77<sup>th</sup> in the women's work opportunity index published by the U.S. Council on Foreign Relations (CFR), falling behind African countries. In other words, these indexes confirm that Korean women have not only issues of representation in the labor market and in the enterprises but also have difficulties simply retaining their careers in the labor market.

As such, it is necessary to gradually achieve gender equality by supporting women's career retention and by enhancing their representation at the national level. To this end, the Korean government established Plans for Raising Representation of Women in the Public Sector and has since been implementing the plans. This effort is expected to contribute to greatly enhancing representation of women in the private sector as well.

Through a tracking survey of women managers since 2007, the Women Manager Panel Survey has identified and confirmed important factors influencing their career success or interruption. These factors include women's career development, promotion, transfer of workplace, dropping out of the labor market and re-entry, and so forth. At the present, objective indicators on female managers in Korea are brought into question at home and abroad as well. In this situation, the results of the Women Manager Panel Survey need to be continually established as objective data to resolve impending issues, including expansion of the proportion of women managers, career success, enhancement of women's representation and power in the organization.

## 2. Purpose of the Research

The Women Manager Panel Survey has three major purposes as follows: First, by tracking the career growth of women managers in the private enterprises, the survey aims to examine the main success or failure factors influencing their growth, and social and environmental restrictions and to establish related statistical data. Second, it aims to provide rudimentary policy data to overcome gender discriminatory factors and to secure diversity in the overall Korean society, including women's participation in the labor market. Third, it aims to produce rudimentary data to analyze various changes in women's work related to social changes.

This survey began in 2007 with a plan to identify problems and social barriers in the career building process of women managers in the private businesses. The survey has since been used as rudimentary data in analyzing glass ceilings in businesses, the roles of enterprises and society related to women's career break, and realities of Korean society in relation to work-family reconciliation and representation of women as well as in assessing future directions. The results of the survey have also become useful data in establishing related policies.

Over the 12 years of tracking female managers, the Women Manager Panel Survey needed a lot of changes regarding its early-phase planning and operation. Therefore, we planned the second-cycle survey in 2019, then conducted the second-cycle survey in a new form in 2020. Through the second survey, we could produce research outcomes that sufficiently reflected changes of the times, including changes in the labor market, identities of managers, and emergence of a new industry.

The Women Manager Panel Survey will continually identify the current state of Korean women in the labor market by keeping track of their career process and factors impacting the process in Korean society.

Through this effort, the survey is expected to perform the role of single data in Korea to be used in assessing future directions for policies on women managers.

### 3. Research Content

We conducted the second-wave second-cycle survey in 2021. The research content largely included the following five activities: First, we finalized the questionnaire for the second-wave second-cycle survey, developed issue questions for the year 2021, then completed this survey. The second-wave second-cycle survey was conducted of the second-cycle panel, including 3,500 female managers and 1,511 male managers, and 604 human resource (HR) officers of 604 panel enterprises that were newly established in 2020. Issue questions comprised questions about the ‘current status of work-life balance system after the COVID-19 pandemic’ to identify working conditions of male and female managers and the way enterprises responded to the pandemic for the second year in 2021.

Second, we conducted rudimentary and in-depth analyses of the first-wave second-cycle data, performed self-verification of the data, and examined the use of the data. The rudimentary analysis was conducted of all questions regarding the data on male and female managers and HR officers as well. The in-depth analysis was conducted by theme with a goal to prepare a proposal for improving the second-cycle questionnaire.

Third, we conducted data cleaning and standardization to improve the quality of the first-cycle data, including the first to seventh-wave data. We also performed duties related to the approval of data changes in the Statistics Korea’s Korean Statistics Information Service (KOSIS) based



on the first-cycle data. This aimed to enhance the user convenience and the use of the first-cycle survey data, the quality improvement of which was completed in 2018.

Fourth, we released the data on the homepage of the **Korean Women Manager Panel of the** Korean Women's Development Institute. The released data included the first-cycle data, the quality improvement of which was completed, and the first-wave second-cycle data. By providing both the first-cycle data and the first-wave second-cycle data for users, we expect they will actively use the data in the future.

Fifth, we hosted a forum twice for HR officers of panel enterprises plus the panel of male and female managers, and held a symposium once for experts. To the forum, we invited the second-cycle panel of male and female managers to discuss pending or current issues and to verify the questionnaire and its validity. We also asked for cooperation from the panels for the survey, promoted public relations, and collected their opinions in the field. The expert symposium provided a platform for presenting the results of analyses of the first-wave second-cycle data by theme and for discussing the issues to conduct this survey.

## II. Overview of the Research

### 1. Subjects of the Survey

The second-cycle panel consists of male and female workers whose positions are managers or above in businesses with 100 or more regular employees. Because there is no separate sampling frame for the subjects of this survey—male and female workers whose positions are managers or above in businesses with 100 or more regular employees—we

identified those subjects based on the results of the first-phase sample survey by applying the two-phase sampling method. We then specifically sampled male and female workers in the manager position and above through the second-phase sample survey.

The sampling frame of this survey derived from the National Business Survey as of the end of December 2017. We completed a survey of 3,348 enterprises according to the result of the first-phase sampling. We finally established the second-cycle panel, including 3,500 female workers and 1,511 male managers in the manager position or above in the 604 businesses according to the result of the second-phase sampling. In other words, the 2021 survey was conducted of the second-cycle panel of 5,011 male and female managers, including 3,500 women and 1,511 men, plus 604 HR officers of the 604 enterprises to which the panel belonged.

## 2. Survey Method

We conducted a preliminary survey of the whole panel and HR staff for the second-wave second-cycle survey, and completed the procedure for Statistics Korea's approval of data changes regarding the improved questionnaire. We then conducted the main survey using all the available survey methods, including Web, mobile, and fax surveys, considering the COVID-19 pandemic.

## 3. Changes and Improvements to the Questionnaire

The second-cycle Women Manager Panel Survey-which is an annual survey-divided its questions into annual and biennial items for a greater convenience of respondents. The survey also reduced the fatigue and dropout rate of the questionnaire. Its questionnaire has the following

three types.

First, the questionnaire type for HR officers finalized questions on enterprise information as biennial items. By reflecting expert counsel, we added, revised, or deleted some questions to improve this type of questionnaire. The questionnaire comprised a total of 48 question items, including 10 general questions, 17 questions on human resource management, 6 questions on the way of working and culture, 8 questions on maternity & paternity protection and work-life balance system, and 7 questions on the workforce. Of the total 48 questions, biennial survey items totaled 12 questions, including questions on the personnel committee and the proportion of women in the labor union.

Second, the questionnaire type for long-term workers was designed to survey persons with continuous service who continued to work for the enterprises which responded to the first-wave survey in 2020 and those who changed jobs to other enterprises from the time of the survey in 2020 until the time of the survey in 2021. We revised, complemented, and newly developed the questions so that those who continued to work or changed jobs could answer questions regarding their continuous service or turnover situations. This type of questionnaire consisted of a total of 60 questions, including 3 questions on previous workplace, 11 questions on current workplace, 6 questions on organizational culture, 10 questions on relationship and network in the workplace, 11 questions on career development and leadership, 23 questions on family relations, and 6 other questions. The composition of this questionnaire currently includes issue questions of the year 2020 related to COVID-19. Issue questions comprise important issues of the year when we should grasp the perceptions of managers. The questionnaire has 19 questions for a biennial survey, including questions on mentors and family plan.

Third, the questionnaire type for dropouts was newly developed and added to the survey. This type of questionnaire divided retirees who left the labor market (or who had no employer to work for at the time of the survey) and who started a business after early retirement. The questionnaire was then used to examine causes for their dropping out of the labor market, and to collect data related to their business startup or reemployment. The questionnaire is composed of a total of 18 questions, including 4 general questions on retired workplace or business startup, 5 questions on retirement situation and education & training, and 9 questions on family life.

Questions are constituted in such a way that both male and female managers can answer the same questions in all questionnaire types. For exception, questions on the respondent's pregnancy and childbirth are designed to be answered by women managers only.

#### 4. Calculation and Estimation of Weights

We calculated and estimated weights for the results of the first-wave second-cycle survey that was conducted in 2020 through the following processes: i) corrected the difference in sample rates in the sampling process, ii) made non-response adjustments to adjust non-responses of sample enterprises in the actual inspection process, and iii) conducted post-stratification adjustments using the latest information on the population.

### III. Rudimentary Analysis of the First–Wave Second–Cycle Survey Results

## 1. Male and Female Managers

### 1) Individual Characteristics

The highest proportion of male and female managers graduated from colleges or universities. The proportion of graduate school education increased as their positions went up under executive positions. As such, we found that education levels were used as a means of promotion. The distribution of majors of study turned out to be quite different: while the highest proportion of male managers majored in business administration, public administration, and law, the highest proportion of female managers specialized in health and welfare. When it comes to financial conditions, the highest proportion of both male and female managers belonged to the category of 300 to 500 million won of asset. By gender, male managers were financially securer than female managers. Female managers spent far more time on housework and care work than their male counterparts regardless of their promotion to higher positions. There was a gender difference in the effect of education level on the number of children: the higher the education level of women managers, the smaller the number of their children. On the other hand, male managers had the opposite effect. Female managers had lower satisfaction with life than male managers, and showed the lowest level of satisfaction with work life.

### 2) Career Path

Female managers were largely distributed in smaller-sized enterprises compared to male managers and in the social service industry. When examined by position, 64.6% of female managers were in the manager position, and a higher proportion of male managers were in the deputy

general manager position or above positions than female managers. This difference in the distribution of positions is an objective testament to the existence of glass ceiling in Korean society. Female managers frequently changed their jobs compared to male managers, and their age was higher in the same ranks. In other words, women worked for smaller-sized enterprises, frequently changed their jobs, and required more years of working career for promotion. As for the industry they belonged to, women managers were concentrated in a few industries, including health and social welfare service. On the other hand, male managers were generally evenly distributed throughout all industries, except for manufacturing accounting for the highest portion. That is to say, there were clear gender gaps in all industries between the career paths of male and female managers.

### 3) Current Workplace

Female managers had a noticeably low probability of promotion compared to male managers. As they had lower satisfaction in the same ranks, female managers tended to have lower loyalty to the company. Overtime work hours were longer with male managers than female managers in the deputy general manager position or below positions. But overtime work hours were longer with female managers in the general manager or executive position. This is believed to be related to the gender division of roles in the family. As for wages, monthly average wage including incentives was higher with male managers than female managers in all industries.

When we examined the work-life balance system, it was very easy to use flex time or flexible work hours, but male and female managers did

not actually use the system a lot. Only a few enterprises implemented flexible work arrangements, but once the system was adopted, there was no major restriction on using the system. Also, a very small number of enterprises allowed their workers to work from home or remote work. Male managers used this home-based work system more than female managers did. The proportion of those who actually used maternity leave was very low, and male managers had difficulty using the leave system. We found that it was urgent to provide policy support to raise the actual use of the statutory systems aside from the situation where the systems were introduced. Though childcare leave is a statutory system, very few actually used the system. Likewise, though many businesses operated the miscarriage and still-birth leave system, it was difficult to find those who actually used the system. It was also difficult to find those who actually used shorter working-hour system during pregnancy. Due to restrictions on establishing childcare facilities in the workplace, approximately 30 percent of the enterprises to which male and female managers belonged installed childcare facilities in the workplace. Only about a third of the proportion of the installation was used. Also, it was very difficult to find those who actually used shorter work hours during pregnancy. The proportion of enterprises implementing the childcare expense support system was low, and so was the proportion of managers using the system. The proportion of managers using the training leave system was very low.

The sick leave system was implemented in almost all enterprises, but the proportion of managers using the system was low. Though family care leave was a statutory system, the proportion of using the system was low, and almost no manager actually used the system. In other words, though there are many statutory systems in Korea, they are hardly

used in many cases. Therefore, it is necessary to make effort to promote the overall use of the statutory systems.

#### 4) Relationship and Network in the Workplace

There were about 19 persons in the team to which female managers belonged, and the average proportion of women in the team accounted for approximately 60 percent. Also, the proportion of women in the team where female managers belonged was higher than that of the team where male managers belonged. The proportion of women managers in the team leader position was 28%, and a majority of the team leaders was in small-sized enterprises. By gender, more male managers took the team leader position than female managers did.

Neither male nor female managers were uncomfortable due to gender in the organization and the gender of immediate supervisors was mostly men. However, 35.0% of female managers' immediate supervisors were women, about four times more than their male counterparts. In other words, we found that the presence of high-ranking women was very important in getting promotion and raising representation of women. The rate of operating the diversity committee was rather low.

Both men and women had more mentors in larger business places, with approximately 70 percent of male and female managers having mentors. Specifically, however, male managers had slightly more mentors than female managers. Regarding network as well, male managers had more and diverse networks than female managers.

#### 5) Organizational Culture

With regard to their chief executive officers, male managers gave more



generous evaluation than female managers. For the organizational operation policy, organizational climate and culture, and work-life balance, both male and female managers gave above-average scores. However, a relatively high proportion of both male and female managers answered that there was discrimination against women in promotion. As such, we found that there was discrimination against women in promotion even if they were in the manager position or above.

#### 6) Career Development and Leadership

For core competencies expected by their enterprises, both male and female managers counted job expertise, positive attitude, and highest work performance. When it comes to the rank they aim at and the possibility of attaining the goal, male managers aimed at much higher ranks, and assessed the possibility of achieving the goal as being higher than female managers did. A much higher proportion of women managers did not take interest in positions. Male managers had a higher self-evaluation of their own leadership than female managers did. In other words, women managers had a lower goal for higher positions, lower possibility of reaching the goal, and lower self-evaluation of their own leadership.

As for career development strategies, both male and female managers counted active participation in the company's business, development of professional skills, and highest work performance. However, a high proportion of women managers counted minimization of their role in the home compared to that of male managers. Regarding the education and training provided by their companies, half of both male and female managers participated in education to improve their job competencies.

Male managers, overall, showed a higher tendency of completing private education than female managers.

#### 7) Maternity and Paternity Protection

With approximately 60% of female managers and 74% of male managers having children, a higher proportion of male managers had children than female managers. Both male and female managers had the same 1.8 children on average. However, the higher their position, the more likely it was for managers to have children: executive-level female managers had 1.9 children and their male counterparts 2.0 children on average. Of women managers, approximately 64% experienced childbirth or were pregnant, and only a few responded that they had a negative experience during pregnancy in the workplace. Only a low proportion, that is, about 12% of female managers and 14 % of male managers, had plans to have children in three years. As reasons for having no plan to have a child, half answered that their family plan was over.

An overwhelmingly high proportion of women managers used maternity leave, with approximately 75% of female managers and about 20% of male managers using the leave. As for the number of days of maternity leave, both men and women could not fully use the statutorily available days of leave: female managers took the leave for 86.8 days on average, while male managers took 4.7 days off on average. Both male and female managers used fewer days than the statutorily available days of maternity leave due to their company practices. After using maternity leave, more than 25% of female managers were left out of promotion, transferred to other department against their wish, excluded from job duties, or advised to resign.

About 44% of women managers used childcare leave, but a mere 4.3% of male managers did. The period of using the childcare leave was 12.7 months on average. However, after using childcare leave, a very high proportion, or 42.4% of female managers were excluded from promotion, advised to resign, or transferred to other department against their will.

#### 8) Family Relations and Other

The average age of female managers was 43.6 years old, and that of male managers 44.5 years old. The proportion of having a spouse was much higher with male managers: while about 71% of female managers had a spouse, about 83% of male managers had a spouse.

The first-marriage age of female managers was 26 to 29 years old, and that of male managers was in their 30s. As for their spouse's education levels, a majority of both male and female managers' spouses graduated from college or university. Regarding the spouse's employment status, most or, 94% of female managers' spouses were employed, but about 58% of male managers' spouses were employed. Regarding their spouse's annual income, female managers' spouses earned between 50 and 70 million won, but the annual income of male managers' spouses was largely distributed between 30 and 50 million won.

## 2. Human Resource Officers

### 1) Human Resource Management

Half of the enterprises surveyed had a professional CEO, and over 60% of them had a board of directors. Regarding the gender of the board members, the enterprises had male directors five times more than women directors, with 6.7 male directors and 1.2 female directors on average. As the business size increased, the number of female directors decreased. Accordingly, businesses with 500 or more employees had a mere 0.9 female directors on average.

About 60% of the businesses operated the personnel management committee. The committee size was 7.5 persons on average, and of them, women accounted for about 18%, or 1.4 persons. As the business size became larger, so did the size of the personnel committee. On the contrary, the proportion of women tended to become smaller in number.

More than half of the enterprises had an organization that represented their workers. Labor unions made up the largest portion of such organizations. Female union members accounted for about 29%. Only 21.5% of the enterprises were business places subject to affirmative actions. These enterprises responded, however, that their affirmative actions brought positive changes, including improvement of gender equality awareness, resolution of discrimination against women workers, and increase in the number of female managers.

Of the enterprises surveyed, 48% conducted job analysis, and about 68% of enterprises with 500 or more employees performed job analysis. About half of the enterprises that introduced job-based pay applied the pay system to all employees.

When we examined the proportion of recruiting women by rank, the proportion of women sharply dropped as the position became higher: The staff position accounted for 36.7%, assistant managers 32.7%, managers 21.5%, deputy general managers 10.7%, general managers 11.3%, and executives 7.8%. Enterprises with 500 or more employees had the lowest proportion of employing women throughout all ranks. By type of industry, social service had the highest portion of employing women, while agriculture/ mining/ manufacturing and construction had the lowest portion of hiring women.

A mere 8.6% of the enterprises implemented the gender quota system for women employment. Regarding the proportion of women interviewers upon open employment, there was a minority of women interviewers upon recruitment, with working-level interviewers making up 25.4% and final executive interviewers 11.1%. Also, the proportion of female regular workers in the core department fell under a half, standing at 41.5% on average.

The performance assessment system consisted of achievement evaluation, competency evaluation, and attitude evaluation in that order. The achievement evaluation accounted for a high portion in the performance assessment of managers, and it occupied the highest portion in the enterprises with 500 or more employees. On the other hand, attitude evaluation made up the highest portion in the enterprises with 100 to 199 employees.

In the high ratings from the performance assessment of regular workers, the proportion of women accounted for 39.0% (men 61.0%) in the staff and assistant manager positions, and 23.3% (men 76.7%) in the manager position. The gender gaps in the distribution of high ratings widened with higher positions. In other words, women in the manager

position had a decreasing probability of receiving high ratings from the performance assessment, and thus it was gradually more difficult for them to be promoted.

A mere 8.8% of the enterprises implemented the promotion quota system for women managers. As the rank went higher, the portion of women's promotion sharply dropped. To put all together, including the distribution of performance assessment and the proportion of women to those who were promoted, we found that there was a clear gender gap in promotion.

When it comes to wage, men had a higher basic pay in all positions than women. As for the annual incentives, the gender wage gap was wider. In the final analysis, the wage ratio between men and women was about 95 to 97%, with a slight difference existing by position.

## 2) The Way of Working and Culture

The rate of using annual leave to the full was slightly higher with women than men. Also, the higher the position became, the lower the rate of fully using annual leave became. The most common way of compensating for the unused annual leave was to pay allowances for the unused leave. Men spent more overtime work hours than women did, with men spending 5.7 hours and women 4.5 hours on weekly average for the recent three months. The most common method of compensating for the overtime work was to add 50 percent to the ordinary wage for the overtime work. More than 80% of the enterprises implemented the 52-hour workweek system, and the larger the business size, the higher the rate of implementing the system. After enforcing the 52-hour workweek system, we perceived positive changes, including greater

work-life balance, better concentration on job duties, and reduction of overtime work hours. To shorten work hours, the enterprises implemented various systems, including recording work hours using ID cards, designating Family Love Day, reducing work hours to less than 40 hours per week, and introducing the intensive work hour system. Also, to improve the way of working and culture, approximately 60% of the enterprises made efforts to improve the culture of gathering for eating out after business hours and adopted systems to simplify meetings and reports.

### 3) Maternity & Paternity Protection and Work-Life Balance System

Though family-friendly certified enterprises accounted for a mere 24.3%, we confirmed there were positive changes after they were certified, including enhancement of their corporate images and improvement of their corporate culture in the organization. When we examined how many persons used maternity leave per enterprise, 5 to 6 men and women respectively used the leave. However, women used childcare leave about three times more than men did, with 8.7 women and 3.0 men taking the leave. The average period of using childcare leave was 13.3 months for women and 8.3 months for men, with women using the leave longer than men.

We surveyed the work-life balance system by dividing the system into work hours, childbirth and childcare support, and leave. According to the results of the survey, the following proportion (in parenthesis) of enterprises implemented i) flexible time or flexible work hours (53.8%), flexible work arrangements (52.0%), and work from home and remote work (45.0%) for work hours, ii) childcare leave (94.9%), maternity

leave (94.5%), miscarriage and stillbirth leave (83.4%), shorter work hours during pregnancy (82.0%), and shorter work hours during childrearing (71.5%) for childbirth and childcare support, and iii) sick leave (90.2%), short-term leave for family care (78.3%), and long-term leave for family care (74.7%) for the leave system.

#### 4) Workforce

Regardless of the business size, the proportion of non-regular female workers was much higher than regular female workers, with regular female workers accounting for 26.7% and non-regular female workers 41.4%. As there was a sharp difference in the proportion of women after they rose to manager positions, it was difficult to find women from high-ranking positions.

Regular male workers were evenly distributed in all age groups. The proportion of women sharply decreased as their age advanced. The average turnover rates of male and female workers for the recent three years were 63 to 64% for men and 36 to 37% for women. Regular workers' average years of service were 11.9 years for men and 10.3 years for women. As the business size increased, so did the proportion of men's turnover. On the other hand, as the business size decreased, the proportion of women's turnover tended to increase.

### 3. Issue Questions: Current Status in the Enterprise after the COVID-19 Pandemic

A corporate strategy in response to the outbreak of the COVID-19 pandemic was to introduce flexible work arrangements. Compared to men, women tended to take a passive attitude toward using related



systems, including shorter work hours and paid leave. This specifically shows that there was a gender difference in the ease of using the systems in the enterprises even if women were in the manager position or above. We found that the introduction of flexible work arrangements after the outbreak of the pandemic did not have a negative impact on their job productivity.

However, as the work arrangements changed, there were some side effects, including the difficulty of meetings and cooperation, mitigation of job concentration, blurred border between work and life (relaxation), and inconvenience of using software. A predominant opinion was that the respondents did not have particular difficulties performing their duties in the company after the outbreak of COVID-19. However, some respondents experienced greater confusion due to changes in existing plans, higher job inefficiency due to difficulty of communication, and lower business performance due to restrictions on outside activities. Also dominant was the opinion that the spread of COVID-19 did not have any particular negative impact on work and life. However, some had the opinion that they had physical and mental difficulties because of added burdens on child-rearing and caring, and that they were concerned about possible financial blows delivered on them due to the cut in wages and incentives.

Male and female managers expected that there would be changes after COVID-19: such changes included the way they carry out their duties, reinforcement of skills responding to crisis, establishment of software and infrastructure, and positive changes in the management's perceptions of home-based work and other flexible work arrangements. We found that networking, either formal or informal, greatly decreased after COVID-19 for male and female managers alike.

## IV. In-Depth Analysis

### 1. Comparative Analysis of the First- and Second-Cycle Panels

#### 1) Comparison of Workplace Characteristics of the Women Manager Panel Respondents

As the first-cycle panel defined assistant managers as beginner-level managers, the panel consisted of assistant managers making up 64.0% of the respondents, managers 23.2%, deputy general managers 9.3%, and executives 0.4%. As the second-cycle panel defined managers or above positions as managers, the second-cycle panel was quite differently composed of than the first-cycle panel. That is, the second-cycle panel comprised managers accounting for 60.7%, deputy general managers 29.6%, general managers 8.3%, and executives 1.5%.

Regarding the size of panel enterprises, the first-cycle panel had a very high proportion of large enterprises: the business size of 100 to 200 employees accounted for 44.8%, the size of 300 to 999 employees 23.9%, and the size of 2,000 or more employees 20.8%. As such, the second-cycle panel raised representation of the enterprises considering the actual workforce distribution of domestic wage workers: the business size of 100 to 299 employees made up 64.1%, the size of 200 to 999 approximately 25%, and the size of 1,000 or more employees 11.4%.

When it comes to the distribution of business types of the panel, the first-cycle panel was established with 5 types of business only, including manufacturing, wholesale and retail, finance, and business service, and other. The panel was then expanded to all types of business in the fourth-wave survey in 2012. The second-cycle panel was composed of all business types. When we examined the distribution of business types,

the second-cycle panel was more or less unevenly distributed and concentrated in a few business types. This was because female managers were sampled from the types of business where they were intensively distributed in order to secure samples of women managers in the manager position or above. This method increased representation of samples by showing the actual distribution tendency of women managers.

Because the first-cycle panel enterprises were largely located in Seoul, accounting for 87.0%, the issue of regionally uneven distribution was raised. As such, when planning, the second-cycle panel considered such relational concentration and greatly reduced the proportion of the enterprises located in the metropolitan area to 45.7%, including 26.0% in Seoul and 16.2% in Gyeonggi Province. Because the population of the metropolitan area as of 2020 amounted to about half of the total population in South Korea, the regional distribution of the second-cycle panel greatly raised representation through its distribution similar to that of the population.

## 2) Comparison of Individual Characteristics of the Women Manager Panel Respondents

Regarding the age of the first-cycle panel, respondents in their 20s and 30s accounted for 92.4% of all, and thus the proportion of them in low positions was very high. The second-cycle panel consisted of managers in the manager position or above, with respondents in their late 30s making up 87.7% and respondents in their 50s or above occupying 25.1%. As such, this way of sampling suited the second-cycle survey purpose of tracking the process of intermediate managers growing to be executives.

As for education levels, the largest number of respondents, accounting for more than 50% in both the first- and second-cycle panels graduated from college or university. Of the first-cycle panel respondents, 17.9% graduated from two-year college. Of the second-cycle panel respondents, 19.1% graduated from graduate school or had higher education. We found that education was used as a main means of entering the intermediate manager position or above.

When examined by the marital status, only 52.5% of the respondents were married in the first-cycle panel due to its low age. In the second-cycle panel, 97.0% of the respondents were married. The number of children in the first-cycle panel was 1.0 child or below on average, and the number of children in the second-cycle panel was 1.5 children or above on average. This is believed to have resulted from the high average age of the second-cycle panel and from the inclusion of manager or higher position only in the panel.

### 3) Comparison of Characteristics of Panel Enterprises

When we examined the board of directors, 79.5% of the first-cycle panel enterprises and 60.3% of the second-cycle panel enterprises had the board of directors. The proportion of women in the board increased from 9.9% in the first-cycle enterprises to 15.2% in the second-cycle panel enterprises. As for personnel-related committee, 70.5% of the first-cycle panel enterprises and 59.6% of the second-cycle panel enterprises operated the personnel committee. The proportion of women in the committee rose from 10.6% in the first-cycle enterprises to 17.9% in the second-cycle panel enterprises. Of the recruitment interviewers, the proportion of women was 28.2% in the first-cycle panel. In the

second-cycle panel, the proportion of women to working-level interviewers was 25.4%, and the proportion of women to executive interviewers was 11.1%.

In the first-cycle panel, the proportion of women to the total recruitment intake was 44.6%. By rank, staff members accounted for 42.7%, assistant managers 65.1%, managers 20.0%, deputy general managers 13.6%, general managers 8.2%, and executives 2.9%. In the second-cycle panel, the proportion of women to the total recruitment intake was 33.4%. By rank, staff members made up 36.7%, assistant managers 32.7%, managers 21.5%, deputy general managers 10.7%, general managers 11.3%, and executives 7.8%. Compared to the first-cycle panel, the proportion of women increased in the positions of general manager and executives.

Regarding the childbirth and childcare support system, the rates of implementing maternity leave (including maternity leave for spouse) and childcare leave were highest in both the first- and second-cycle panels. The rates of implementing shorter work hours during pregnancy and during child-rearing slightly dropped. Also, a low proportion of the enterprises installed childcare facilities in the workplace or operated childcare and child-rearing support systems.

When we identified the current status of implementing flexible work arrangements, 44.2% of the first-cycle panel enterprises implemented flex time, 36.1% flexible work arrangements, 19.9% work from home, and 14.2% remote work in that order. Of the second-cycle panel enterprises, 53.8% implemented flex time, 52.0% flexible work arrangements, and 45.0% work from home and remote work in that order. Compared to the first-cycle panel, the second-cycle panel, overall, had a higher rate of implementing flexible work arrangements. This is believed to have

come from the COVID-19 situation when the second-cycle panel was established in 2020.

## **2. Analysis of the First-Wave Second-Cycle Survey Results by Theme**

### **1) Thematic Analysis of Female Workers and Women's Employment Situations**

We analyzed factors influencing the average years of female regular workers' continuous service. According to the results of the analysis, business history of enterprises had the biggest impact on the average years of female regular workers' continuous service, followed by weekly average overtime work hours, whether the enterprises took affirmative actions, and the quota system for women's promotion.

When we examined characteristics of enterprises and women's employment situations, business history and the proportion of women in the organization, and business history and the proportion of women to new employees were inversely related.

We analyzed the proportion of female regular workers and the proportion of women about particular issues. According to the results of the analysis, the higher the proportion of women to regular workers became, the higher the proportion of women in the core departments, the proportion of women to all the new employees, and the proportion of women managers became.

We also analyzed the variability of employment types according to career paths of long-term employees. According to the results of the analysis, as they repeatedly changed jobs, the employment type of long-term employees tended to become regular in the end.

## 2) Comparative Analysis of Characteristics of Turnover and Career Break by Gender

According to the results of analyzing characteristics of turnover by gender, female managers tended to have a higher turnover experience as their age became higher. On the other hand, male managers had a lower turnover experience than their female counterparts. The number of times that women managers changed their jobs was the same as or slightly larger than that of male managers.

When we examined characteristics of resignation by gender, women's resignation was concentrated on 25 to 29 years old, but men's resignation was distributed in a broader range of age than women's. The top main reason for male and female managers' resignation was to develop a new career. However, there was a considerable gender difference in the reasons for resignation: women quit their jobs because of pregnancy, childbirth, childrearing, and family care 16 times more than men did.

When we examined changes in the characteristics of jobs before and after women managers changed their jobs, their employment type became securer after changing jobs. Through the job changes, they could achieve a new career development and promotion as well. This tendency was similar to that of male managers.

According to the results of examining characteristics of career break, the higher male and female managers' age was, the longer the period of their career break was. Also, the period of women managers' career interruption was longer than that of their male counterparts' almost in all age cohorts.

The period required for changing jobs was longer with women, overall, and there was a clear gender difference in the period. In particular, when

women quit their jobs for the reasons of pregnancy, childbirth, childrearing, and family care, it took 53.5 months for them to get a new job. On the other hand, when men quit their jobs for the same reasons, it took 7.3 months for their reemployment.

### 3) Analysis of Characteristics of Child-Care Leave Users

The proportion of women managers using childcare leave accounted for 44.1%, but that of male managers who answered they used childcare leave made up a mere 4.3%. The experience of using childcare leave differed depending on the age. Age groups in their 40s and older had a particularly low experience of using childcare leave, and the age group that used childcare leave most was in their 30s.

When we examined the use of childcare leave by education level, the group of women managers with the highest proportion of not using childcare leave was high school graduates. As their education levels went higher, the proportion of using childcare leave gradually increased, and more than half of four-year university graduates used childcare leave. But then, master's or doctoral degree holders showed a decreasing proportion of using childcare leave.

When examined by the number of children, more than half of female managers with one child used childcare leave. The more the number of children female managers had, the higher proportion of them did not use childcare leave. This seems to have been related to the age of women managers intervening as a factor.

By the employment status of spouse, when their spouses were employed, almost half of women managers used childcare leave. However, when their spouses were unemployed, about 80% of women



managers could not use the leave. In other words, whether their spouses were engaged in economic activity served as an important factor for women managers using childcare leave. Also, by wage, when their monthly pay increased up to 2 million won to less than 5 million won, women managers tended to use childcare leave a lot. This also shows that their financial situations acted as an important factor for using childcare leave.

Thematic classification of research performance catalogue: panel, labor and employment, representation

Key words: female managers, male managers, representation of women, women's career development, panel survey

