

Changes in Parental Time: Korean Experiences in 1999-2009

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Abstract

Changing configurations of parental time for children reflects structural modifications underlying the way society organizes care work, thus involving shifts in gender relations. South Korea has undergone structural changes towards neo-liberal regimes since the financial crisis in 1997. Social policies encourage women to participate in the labor market, emphasizing “work” for securing subsistence and livelihoods. Little is known about the ways in which the institutional changes have implications for parental time. This paper explores what has happened to parental time investment in children during periods of socio-economic transformations in 1999-2009. It examines whether and to what extents parental care work could have been intensified or alleviated, using Korean Time Use Survey 1999 and 2009. The findings that parental work burden of raising children have been intensified over the years in Korea. Social policies supporting maternal employment with child care subsidy does not seem to alter the way family care is organized in the gendered way. This has implications of crises in social reproduction in Korea.

Introduction

The increasing body of literature has highlighted important implications of parental time for not only macroeconomic aspects of our economy but also microeconomic aspects of economic welfare of both children and women (Katherine Abraham and Christopher Mackie, 2004, Nancy Folbre, 2008, Duncan Ironmonger, 2004). The complete ignorance of the time investment in children gives us inadequate and false images of socio-economic transformations in the ways in which we prepare for the sustainable development of human capabilities within and across subgroups. Changing configurations of parental time for children reflects structural modifications underlying the way society organizes care work,

thus involving shifts in gender relations.

South Korea has undergone structural changes towards neo-liberal regimes since the financial crisis in 1997. As neo-liberal restructurings of welfare states overall weaken public support for human subsistence except for those in destitute, individual families are left to shoulder greater burdens of raising children, which resulted in lowering the fertility rate even further down to 1.21 in 2009 from 1.47 in 2000 and 1.59 in 1990. Korea is projected to be the most aged society by 2050. Partly as a response to the low fertility, labor policies encourage women to participate in the labor market, emphasizing “work” for securing subsistence and livelihoods; women with small children, who were typically considered to be economically inactive, are mobilized into the labor market. And public support for raising young children could only be rationalized in conjunction with increasing female labor force participation. Although it was a step forward towards the idea that governments take responsibilities in raising children, scholars criticize that the public support for child care has not led to fundamental changes neither in the maternal roles in taking charge of childrearing nor in the notion that the families are primary locus of undertaking care work.

This paper explores what has happened to parental time investment in children during periods of socio-economic transformations in 1999-2009. It examines whether and to what extents parental care work could have been intensified or alleviated, using Korean Time Use Survey 1999 and 2009. Korea has gone through changes in structural and cultural dimensions that could positively or negatively influence parental time investment in children. Parental time investment may have decreased for a couple of reasons. First, maternal care work is likely to shrink if mothers were more likely to participate in the labor market in the recent year as a result of policy initiatives’ encouraging women’s paid employment. Second, even if maternal employment had hardly changed, social policies of supporting child care subsidy provided to low-income families using child care facilities may have helped relieve parents of child care time. On the other hand, there exist offsetting factors that instead increased parental time. The national workweek regime change from 44 to 40 hours may have allowed parents, particularly fathers engaging in paid employment, to reallocate more time to child care. Finally, changes in cultural norms and styles about parenting might have rendered maternal time part of essential resources for children more than before. I argue that parental work has been intensified during the period and that a greater inequality in parental time among mothers and fathers are observed. This has implications of crises in social

reproduction in Korea.

Background

Korean welfare state has developed from a minimal structure to comprehensive set of welfare programs since the 1997 financial crisis. It has acquired distinctive social policy orientations that place primary responsibilities on family as providing care for children, the elderly, the disabled, and the sick. One of the important rationales for social policy in Korea was ‘welfare developmentalism’ which saw social policy as an instrument for economic development (Ian Gough, 2001): social policy programs were designed to protect mainly those engaging in the labor market and guard against risks and failures from malfunctioning of the labor market (H. J. Kwon, 2005, Huck-Ju Kwon, 2002) while paying little attention to providing social care for dependents. ‘Confucian familism’ involving a strong reliance on the family as the site of individual welfare has justified the minimal levels of governmental interventions of supporting families except for those in extreme need (Goodman Roger and Ito Peng, 1996).

As a result, in Korea, individual families still play a larger role in raising children than any other countries. Among the OECD members, Korea has consistently been lowest in terms of government spending on family policies as a proportion of total expenditures. As shown in Table 1, as of 2003, Korea spent only 0.1% of its government expenditure on family policies, in sharp contrast to the North European social-democracy welfare regimes that have always spent a large proportion on family policies and in contrast to other countries around the world that have gradually increased their proportion of government spending on family policies. Public policies provide even less assistance for parents of young children, making the burden fall entirely on individual families, particularly mothers.

Instead, it is argued that mandatory private social spending by workplaces, or “enterprise welfare”, was a key characteristics of East Asian welfare state including South Korea and Japan (Pil Ho Kim, 2010). In this context, it was important to be employed as wage workers to receive family benefit including workplaces child care center, child care subsidy, educational costs etc. At any rate, care responsibility has fallen almost exclusively onto private families where one of the parents should have stable positions in the workplaces and the other parent should provide child care time by staying out of the labor market. Mothers,

an often primary caregiver, were able to be protected through their spouses who were guaranteed as permanent full-time workers, when Korea had been witnessing the remarkable economic growth before the 1997 financial crisis.¹

But the breadwinner model no longer became stable and feasible for most of the families since the crisis. The financial crisis 1997 has undermined the “family wage” model by deregulating labor markets where even men face job insecurity before they reach retirement age. As working poor threatens survivals of ordinary people, more women participated in the labor market to assist in household economy: since the 1997, men’s labor force participation tends to decline while women’s labor force participation tends to increase: women in their 30s and 40s have seen higher participation in the labor market despite the ups and downs due to the business cycle.

The prevalence of dual-earner model could yield several predictions for changes in parental time. As mothers join the labor force, mothers tend to experience more time spent on total work because they cannot reduce the time for non-market activities by as much as they increase the time for paid work, often at the expense of their leisure time. Research on the impacts of employment of married women in Western countries finds that men are irresponsive to spouses’ employment, thereby widening gender gap in parental work. Men’s contributions to housework and child care show invariantly little changes no matter what circumstances the households are under (Theodore N. Greenstein, 1996, Arlie. Hochschild, 1989), or weak, indirect, or no significant associations between women’s employment and men’s housework time (Heidi Hartmann, 1981, Beth Anne Shelton, 1992). Previous studies all point to the intensified work efforts when married women undertake paid work as well as unpaid work because child care time is likely to remain less affected when mothers are employed.

In a response both to the fertility reduction and to supporting women’s paid employment, Korean governments have extended and strengthened their welfare state to meet the increasing needs for families’ raising children. There was a marked increase in state, market, and community roles in social care as a result of labor market restructuring and social policy

¹ South Korea cannot be neatly categorized into the three welfare regimes constructed by Esping-Andersen, liberal, conservative and social democratic welfare regimes. Korea shows similarity with his conservative model. For the characteristics of Korean Welfare state, see **Lee, Yih-Jiunn and Ku, Yeun-wen.** "East Asian Welfare Regimes: Testing the Hypothesis of the Developmental Welfare State." *Social Policy and Administration*, 2007, 41(2), pp. 197-212..

reforms (Peng, 2009). Social care reforms introduced after 1997 have responded to feminist and pro-welfare advocate demands for welfare expansion and greater gender equality, as well as to economic developmentalist demands for an active labor market strategy. This resulted in social investments, seeking to mobilize women's human capital and labor power in the context of an ageing society. The number of childcare institutions has increased rapidly and the number of children cared by them has been tripled, reaching to 930,000 in 2004 from 294,700 in 1995. The child care funds have dramatically increased since 2004 (See Figure 3). They would expectedly relieve low-income mothers of child care time. As Korean families show the extreme level of specialization in parental time that fathers with a small child aged below 6 spend the smallest amount of time among the OECD countries (see Figure 4), the social care might have lessened the gendered nature of parental time with children by reducing maternal child care time.

There exists an offsetting factor might positively affect parental child care time. South Korea has suffered from the longest workweek among OECD countries, with 2,447 of annual hours worked compared to 1,719 of an international average. In 1999, Korean wage workers in manufacturing worked 50 hours as ranked the highest among OECD countries (ILO, 1999, OECD, 1998). South Korea mandated 40 hours workweek (a five-day workweek) that would be gradually implemented from July 7th 2004 starting with the large-scale establishments in public sector, finance and insurance industry. With the new legislation in place, the annual hours came down to 2,256 hours, compared to, on average, 1,764 for OECD countries in 2010 (OECD, 2010). Changes in the workweek regime would have important implications for parental time investment in children. The reduction in the workweek can be thought of as a tool to redistribute the unpaid work including the time and effort to raising children evenly between women and men, especially when the reason for father's inability to spend child care time is the lack of time availability (Marga Bruyn-Hundt, 1996).

Changes in cultural norms about parenting may override the negative effects of policy changes that reduce unpaid child care time and reallocation it to the labor market. Overheating educational competitions starting at very early stage of childhood tend to lead mothers to put greater values on spending time together with children. As orchestrated and coordinated parenting is considered to be a desirable parenting style among the middle class, mothers took up a new role as professional managers. Students begin to join the educational competition in order to enter prestigious high-school and colleges. Mothers have to assist in

their children's competition by seeking information about classes and career choices in lieu of their children or by giving a ride to children around children's schedules (Hyoung-Jae Choi, 2008).

Little is known about the ways in which the institutional changes have implications for parental time. A recent study using Korean Time Use Surveys finds that during the periods 1999-2004, women's involvement in paid work, together with attitudinal changes in gender roles and reduced family size generally decreased demand for unpaid work, also leading men to devote more time to unpaid work. Although the total work, the sum of paid and unpaid work, between men and women are converging, the gendered division of labor is still salient (Mi-young An, 2008). But the study fails to show what has happened to parental time investment in children.

Data and Sample

This study uses Korean Time Use Survey 1999 and 2009. The time diary method provides better quality estimates of unpaid housework and leisure activities than do surveys based on stylized questions about amounts of time (Thomas Juster and Frank Stafford, 1991, John P. Robinson, 1985). The Korean Time Use Survey (KTUS) is conducted every five years to produce nationally representative measures of time spent on various activities (Aelee Shon, 2001). The KTUS 1999 survey collected information from 46,109 individuals aged 10 years and over in 17,000 households with 48.5% of males and 51.1% of females. Of the 85,405 eligible diaries, 40.0% of the diaries were filled in during weekdays, 20.2% on Friday, 19.9% on Saturday, and 19.9% on Sunday. The KTUS 2009 surveyed 20,657 individuals aged 10 years and over in 8,100 households about time use for two designated consecutive days. The response rate was 98.1%. Activities were coded into 125 categories in the beginning and were disaggregated even further into 149 categories. Households can be divided into 5 groups by the designated two consecutive days: Friday and Saturday; Sunday and Monday; Tuesday and Wednesday; Thursday and Friday; and Saturday and Sunday. The respondents were asked about primary and secondary activities, structured in 10 minute intervals; secondary activities were simultaneous with primary activities. The method of clustering and stratification in sampling contributed to a high response rate by allowing for monitoring of the process of filling out diaries.

For this study, I only focus on two-parent families living with at least one child aged below 6 with no adult children aged above 18, but provide analyses using the entire sample where necessary. There is a growing number of one-parent household and possibly changes in family structure may be reflected in changes in parental time investment in children. But this study tries to only focus on whether and to what extent two-parent families living with children would have increased their time and potential shifts in gender relations.

Method

Measures of Parental Care Work

The measures of parental care work are the number of hours spent per day on housework and child care as primary activities. I regard housework as indirect care work, which is as necessary as what is traditionally considered as care work involving direct engagement with children. Prior empirical studies show that the presence of a child is not associated with a large incremental time devoted to housework including meal preparation, laundry, cleaning, etc. One cannot argue that only the marginal increase in the time benefits only children.

I define housework as food and drink preparation; kitchen and food clean-up; food preparation for later use; laundry; sewing, repairing, and maintaining textiles; interior cleaning; interior and exterior maintenance, repair, and decoration; grocery shopping; shopping except groceries; financial management; banking and legal services; and travel related to domestic work. I also define child care: physical care; reading to/playing with children; medical care; helping getting children for school; helping with homework, consulting with teachers; PTA; and travel related to child care.

The sum of the direct child care and housework amounts to a lower bound of the magnitude of time costs of raising children. The reason for this measure being the lower bound is that it fails to measure parental time as responsibilities by only looking at “activities”. It is the lower bound of the magnitude since the estimate cannot thoroughly capture all the time that caregivers spend with and devote to the benefit of children (Michelle Budig and Nancy Folbre, 2004, Nancy Folbre and Jayoung Yoon, 2007, N. Anders Klevmarken and Frank P. Stafford, 1999).

There is another concern that slight changes in coding activities between the two surveys might distort changes in parental time, thus causing concerns for comparisons across the

surveys. As you can see Table 2, more segregated coding in the year 2009 may tend to overestimate the time spent on care time. Due to this potential problem, I conduct a sensitivity analysis.

I also provide changes in the time spent on paid work, subcategories of unpaid work, and other activities in order to understand changes in parental care work in a broader context. Paid work includes activities engaged in looking for job and travel to and from work. Unpaid work has been distinguished into housework and family care which includes child care, spouse care, and elder care.

Results

Overall Changes in Paid and Unpaid Work

Table 3 presents average hours spent on various categories of activities by all non-student populations aged 19 and above. It shows that both men and women experience similar patterns in changes in their time allocation between total work and free time. Free time includes all other activities than what could be included as work. The average time spent on total work including paid and unpaid work has decreased, whereas the average time spent on free time has increased. Both men and women reduced the time spent on paid work by the same extent, 9-10%, which appears to show that the shortened workweek has evenly affected men and women. In spite of the emphasis placed on women's paid employment between the periods, there is no evidence that women caught up with men in the time spent on paid work; women continuously perform paid work only 0.56 times as much as men do. But there exists a gender difference that while men's time spent on unpaid work has increased by 16%, women's time spent on unpaid work has decreased by 11%. Men undertaking more unpaid work contributed to a convergence between men and women in terms of total work; women perform total work 1.06 times as much as men do in 2009, compared to 1.09 times.

It also shows that there has been a compositional change in the way men women allocate their time to the non-market activities. In terms of housework that includes cooking, cleaning, laundry, etc. men increased their time to these activities whereas women were less likely to spend their time on them. In fact, women experienced the most substantial change in the way they allocate time in this area of work. This could be explained by many factors, one of

which might have to do with wider uses of market substitutes more available in 2009. As Table 4 shows, changes in household expenditure reflect a significant increase in using housework services. Increase in the amount of money spent on housework services in dual-earner households was about twice as much as one-earner households. It seems that while housework is increasingly outsourced, women reallocate the time to care work.

As you can see in Table 5, dramatic changes in the way people spend their time occurred for Saturday and Sunday. As the shortened workweek allows employees, particularly men, to take day off on Saturday, they reallocated the time freed from paid work to unpaid work and free time. The fact that women are less likely to spend their time on housework but more likely to spend their time on family care are consistently observed across the way of the week. It is noteworthy that women are likely to undertake more total work during the weekends in 2009 than in 1999. The ratio of women's child care to men's went down, indicating that much of the men's time freed from the paid work is devoted to child care during the weekends. In contrast, it has not gone down as much during the weekday.

Changes in Parental Time

Against this backdrop that men and women spend less time on paid work in 2009 and that they have experienced opposite trends in unpaid work, I now turn to what has happened to parental time. For the analysis, I restrict the sample to parents living with at least one child aged 0-6 and no adult children. Table 6 shows the changes in the sample composition in the two years. The reason for mismatches in the number of observations for women and men in each year is that although the KTUS is survey on a household level, some individuals did not fill out time diaries. Mothers and fathers are a little bit older in 2009, reflecting postponement of marriage and first births in recent years. Parents are more likely to be employed in 2009, but increase in employment rate is quite small for mothers. Mothers are more likely to be college-educated in 2009. High education may explain the increase in child care time over time (Jonathan Guryan et al., 2008). The number of children in each age categories and household size seems to reflect the fact that the fertility rate is on the decrease. Parents are likely to have a smaller number of children aged 0-6 and a greater number of older children. Grandparents are less likely to co-reside with parents with small children. This change in family structure that has taken place over the years might have placed even greater burden on

individual parental. In order to understand whether there have been changes in parental time with small children aged 0-6 who often imposes significant time demands and thus results in the gendered specialization between paid work and care work, I confine the analysis to the parents with at least one child aged 0-6 and none aged beyond.

Table 7 shows that changes in parental time follow similar trends with the population average, but reveal unique patterns deviating from it. First of all, the time devoted to total work by both mothers and fathers was also reduced by 3% and 7 % respectively over the years. Not only were the reductions at a smaller extent relative to the all population, however, but also mothers' work burden has not diminished as much as fathers'. This seems to be due to the fact that mothers are more likely to participate in the labor market than before: the time spent on paid work slightly increased at a similar level around 1.6 hours per day, while father's paid work has decreased by 15%.

As is the case with all women that spent less time on housework and more time on child care, mothers reduced their time spent on housework by 19%, which is a bit more than that for all women. Although fathers did increase their time spent on housework and child care at a significant extent, the absolute amount of the time is still very small. As a result, the share of total work that mothers are undertaking became a bit greater in 2009. Note that this occurs even when mothers have a smaller number of children aged 0-6 in 2009. Although mothers' work burden became greater relative to fathers, it seems to me that mothers' burden for spending their time on direct child care was relieved in 2009: the ratio of mother's child care time to father's went down from 5.78 to 4.02. This may be probably due to the fact that fathers who use to spend quite a bit of time on paid work during the weekends were able to reserve it for enjoying family time with children.

The child care time has increased both for mothers and fathers. But how much has it increased holding changes in paid work time and other demographic characteristics between the two years? Table 8 presents a simple OLS regression estimating whether and, if so, how much mothers spend more time on child care than do fathers. It finds that holding other things constant, mothers in 2009 spend 0.37 hours more on child care than fathers in 2009. In the midst of increased demand and pressures for parental direct child care time caused by cultural norms about parenting, mothers were more susceptible to adapting to it.

Discussion and Conclusion

As a result of recovery process since the 1997 Korean financial crisis, we have experienced the expansion of neo-liberal regimes penetrating to labor market and social policies involving paradigm shifts in a much broader economy: privatization, deregulation, and small governments. This regime shift generally emphasizes the participation in the paid work as a means of securing economic self-sufficiency. And there was no exception to mothers with children. In order to support maternal employment, social policy generally adopted direct child care subsidy as well as family-friendly workplaces policies. All of these were expected to relieve mothers of unpaid work and increase the employment rate of mothers. Meanwhile, little attention has paid to whether mothers' work burden would increase, thus aggravating gender inequality in total work. In addition, even less attention was paid to how maternal employment would deprive children of sufficient care time.

The analysis of time use surveys show that parental work has not reduced as much as overall populations has as a result of the shortened workweek from 44 to 40 hours. In particular, mothers with at least one child aged 0-6 and none aged beyond experienced much smaller reduction in total work than their counterparts, partly because their time spent on paid work was slightly greater in 2009 than in 1999 when men's paid work hours have reduced. In fact, mother's share of total work has increased in 2009 than in 1999, while the other way around for overall populations.

The notable change in time use patterns between the two years was that men were more likely to spend more time on housework but that women were less likely. This result implies that there may have been attitudinal changes that men are more willing to adapt to feminine roles, considering that men and women would equally benefit from any transformations in technology and product markets that made possible outsourcing of housework. On the other hand, women seem to reallocate their time from housework to child care, thereby increasing their share of the time spent on child care out of non-market activities. It seems encouraging that fathers showed dramatic changes in the time spent on child care in terms of percentage change. But even when fathers spend more time with children, it is likely that fathers may rarely replace maternal time, simply enjoying "family time" when mothers are also present. In fact, mothers' child care time has increased more in 2009 than has fathers'. That is, cultural factor may play a larger role in increasing child care time.

In sum, the findings of this paper show that parental work burden of raising children has

been intensified over the years in Korea. Social policies supporting maternal employment with child care subsidy does not seem to alter the way family care is organized in the gendered way. On the contrary, cultural changes requiring more parental involvement in children's development seem to make parental work even more time-intensive. These results have implications for the crisis in social reproduction.

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Table 1. *International Comparison of Government Spending on Family Policies*

Country	90	91	92	93	94	95	96	97	98	99	00	01	02	03
Australia	1.5	1.8	2.0	2.2	2.4	2.8	2.9	2.8	2.7	2.8	3.0	3.1	2.9	3.3
Austria	2.6	2.6	2.8	3.0	3.4	3.1	3.0	2.9	2.7	2.8	2.9	2.9	3.0	3.1
Belgium	2.3	2.2	2.3	2.3	2.2	2.3	2.3	2.4	2.8	2.7	2.6	2.6	2.7	2.7
Canada	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.9	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.7	1.0	0.9	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.1
Czech	2.5	2.7	2.6	2.2	2.2	2.0	1.9	1.8	2.1	2.1	2.0	2.0	2.0	1.9
Denmark	3.2	3.3	3.4	3.6	3.9	3.8	3.8	3.7	3.8	3.8	3.7	3.8	3.9	3.9
Finland	3.2	3.8	4.1	4.0	4.4	4.0	3.8	3.5	3.3	3.3	3.1	3.0	3.0	3.0
France	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.7	2.8	3.3	3.3	3.0	3.0	3.0	3.0
Germany	1.7	2.0	2.0	2.0	1.9	1.9	1.8	1.9	1.9	1.9	1.9	1.9	2.0	1.9
Greece	0.8	0.9	0.9	0.9	1.2	1.2	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.3
Hungary	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	m	3.4	3.2	3.2	3.3	3.5
Iceland	2.4	2.5	2.5	2.5	2.4	2.4	2.5	2.4	2.3	2.3	2.3	2.6	2.8	3.2
Ireland	1.6	1.6	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.7	1.5	1.9	1.8	2.1	2.4	2.5
Italy	0.8	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	1.1	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.1	1.2
Japan	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.7	0.7	0.7
Korea	0.0	0.0	0.0	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1
Luxembourg	2.2	2.3	2.3	2.7	2.9	3.0	3.0	2.8	3.0	3.3	3.2	3.3	3.7	4.1
Mexico	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.1	0.5	0.7	0.7	0.7	0.9	1.0
Netherlands	1.6	1.5	1.5	1.4	1.3	1.3	1.2	1.2	1.5	1.4	1.5	1.4	1.6	1.6
New Zealand	2.6	2.3	2.3	2.1	2.3	2.3	2.4	2.8	2.8	2.6	2.5	2.4	2.4	2.3
Norway	2.8	3.1	3.4	3.5	3.6	3.6	3.5	3.4	4.1	4.3	3.8	4.0	3.9	3.4
Poland	1.7	2.3	2.2	1.9	1.5	1.1	1.0	0.9	0.9	1.3	1.5	1.5	1.5	1.5
Portugal	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.8	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.1	1.5	1.6
Slovak	m	m	m	m	m	2.5	2.3	2.1	2.1	2.4	2.1	1.9	1.9	1.9
Spain	0.3	0.3	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.4	0.5	0.5	0.8	0.8	0.9	0.9	0.9	1.0
Sweden	4.5	4.8	4.9	4.5	4.4	3.8	3.6	3.3	3.5	3.5	3.3	3.4	3.5	3.5
Switzerland	1.0	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.2	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.4	1.5
Turkey	1.2	1.3	1.2	1.0	0.5	0.3	1.2	1.1	1.0	1.1	m	m	m	m
UK	1.9	2.1	2.3	2.4	2.3	2.4	2.4	2.3	2.6	2.4	2.6	2.7	2.7	2.9
US	0.5	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.6	0.8	0.8	0.7	0.7	0.8	0.7

Note. Data from OECD Social Expenditure Database 2007.

Table 2. Activities Defined as Child Care in Korean Time Use Survey

1999	2009
Family Care	Family Care
Physical Care (Washing, Feeding, Putting to bed)	Physical Care (Washing, Feeding, Putting to bed)
Non-physical Care (Helping with homework, Reading to, Playing with)	Non-physical Care (Helping with homework, Reading to, Playing with)
	Helping with homework, reading to
	Playing with
Other Preschooler Care	Other Preschooler Care
	Other Preschooler Care
	Nursing Preschooler
Physical Care for Schooler	Physical Care for Schooler
Help with Homework	Help with Homework
Meeting with Teachers	Meeting with Teachers
Other Schooler Care	Other Schooler Care
	Other Preschooler Care
	Nursing Schooler

Table 3. Average Daily Hours of Paid and Unpaid Work of All Populations Aged 19 and More, Non-students

		1999		2009		
		Mean	Std. Dev.	Mean	Std. Dev.	% Change
Men						
Total Work		7.37	4.56	6.81	4.29	-8%
	Paid Work	6.68	4.85	6.01	4.66	-10%
	Unpaid Work	0.69	1.29	0.80	1.30	16%
	Housework	0.47	1.00	0.52	0.90	11%
	Family Care	0.22	0.74	0.28	0.72	29%
	Child Care	0.18	0.63	0.24	0.62	28%
Free Time		16.48	4.56	16.82	3.91	2%
	Leisure	5.89	3.96	5.45	3.45	-8%
Women						
Total Work		8.05	3.88	7.23	3.63	-10%
	Paid Work	3.71	4.48	3.36	4.20	-9%
	Unpaid Work	4.34	3.17	3.88	2.86	-11%
	Housework	3.44	2.42	2.87	1.97	-16%
	Family Care	0.91	1.69	1.01	1.60	11%
	Child Care	0.79	1.57	0.89	1.53	13%
Free Time		15.74	3.90	16.17	3.36	3%
	Leisure	5.24	3.33	4.97	2.97	-5%
Ratio of Women to Men						
Total Work		1.09		1.06		
	Paid Work	0.56		0.56		
	Unpaid Work	6.30		4.83		
	Housework	7.28		5.49		
	Family Care	4.18		3.60		
	Child Care	4.33		3.80		
Free Time		0.96		0.96		
	Leisure	0.89		0.91		

Table 4. Changes in Household Expenditures (won/month)

Household Types	Expenditure Items	2003	2009	2009 /2003
All	Household Size	3.45	3.34	96.8%
	01.Groceries·Non-alcoholic beverages	255,079	298,264	116.9%
	05.Domestic Appliances · Housework Services	58,937	76,767	130.3%
	Housework Services	4,976	11,665	234.4%
	10. Education	187,298	291,078	155.4%
	Regular Education	68,213	102,472	150.2%
	Other education (child care)	5,727	10,865	189.7%
Dual-earner households	Household Size	3.71	3.61	97.3%
	01.Groceries·Non-alcoholic beverages	257,910	304,889	118.2%
	05.Domestic Appliances · Housework Services	60,211	89,435	148.5%
	Housework Services	6,628	20,343	306.9%
	10. Education	234,269	370,410	158.1%
	Regular Education	84,172	127,850	151.9%
	Other education (child care)	7,254	13,834	190.7%
One-earner households	Household Size	3.32	3.20	96.4%
	01.Groceries·Non-alcoholic beverages	253,597	294,658	116.2%
	05.Domestic Appliances · Housework Services	58,210	69,783	119.9%
	Housework Services	4,106	6,853	166.9%
	10. Education	162,670	247,562	152.2%
	Regular Education	59,940	88,723	148.0%
	Other education (child care)	4,923	9,229	187.5%

Source. Korea Statistical Office Kosis (www.kosis.kr/).

Table 5. Average Daily Hours of Paid and Unpaid Work of All Populations Aged 19 and More, Non-students by Day of the Week

Weekday									
		Men			Women			Ratio of Women to Men	
		1999	2009	% Change	1999	2009	% Change	1999	2009
Total Work		8.19	7.81	-5%	8.54	7.82	-8%	1.04	1.00
	Paid Work	7.58	7.16	-6%	4.18	4.01	-4%	0.55	0.56
	Unpaid Work	0.61	0.65	7%	4.36	3.81	-13%	7.15	5.86
	Housework	0.42	0.44	5%	3.39	2.78	-18%	8.11	6.34
	Family Care	0.19	0.21	11%	0.96	1.03	7%	5.03	4.86
	Child Care	0.16	0.18	10%	0.85	0.92	8%	5.32	5.18
Free Time		15.64	15.98	2%	15.24	15.66	3%	0.97	0.98
	Leisure	5.20	4.79	-8%	4.89	4.66	-5%	0.94	0.97
Saturday									
Total Work		7.41	5.41	-27%	8.02	6.42	-20%	1.08	1.19
	Paid Work	6.71	4.35	-35%	3.60	2.32	-36%	0.54	0.53
	Unpaid Work	0.70	1.05	51%	4.41	4.10	-7%	6.33	3.89
	Housework	0.49	0.64	31%	3.52	3.05	-13%	7.22	4.77
	Family Care	0.21	0.41	96%	0.90	1.05	17%	4.26	2.54
	Child Care	0.18	0.36	103%	0.78	0.94	22%	4.37	2.62
Free Time		16.46	18.00	9%	15.79	16.90	7%	0.96	0.94
	Leisure	6.02	6.47	8%	5.34	5.40	1%	0.89	0.83
Sunday									
Total Work		4.78	3.73	-22%	6.56	5.41	-17%	1.37	1.45
	Paid Work	3.85	2.49	-35%	2.34	1.44	-38%	0.61	0.58
	Unpaid Work	0.92	1.24	34%	4.22	3.98	-6%	4.57	3.20
	Housework	0.62	0.79	26%	3.48	3.11	-11%	5.60	3.96
	Family Care	0.30	0.46	50%	0.74	0.86	16%	2.44	1.89
	Child Care	0.26	0.38	46%	0.63	0.75	19%	2.43	1.98
Free Time		19.09	19.43	2%	17.27	17.76	3%	0.90	0.91
	Leisure	7.92	7.39	-7%	6.24	5.92	-5%	0.79	0.80

Table 6. Sample Statistics: Parents with at least one child aged 0-6 and no adult children

	Women		Men	
	1999	2009	1999	2009
N	6,378	1,837	6,158	1,802
Age	31.40	33.37	34.50	35.95
Employed	0.361	0.381	0.947	0.961
College-educated	0.174	0.285	0.300	0.389
# of Children 0-6	1.418	1.362	1.423	1.374
# of Children 7-12	0.336	0.352	0.337	0.355
# of Children 13-18	0.053	0.054	0.054	0.054
Household Size	4.077	3.958	4.068	3.971
Grandparent(s)	0.149	0.118	0.137	0.114
Seoul	0.222	0.142	0.226	0.145
Saturday	0.201	0.162	0.201	0.160
Sunday	0.191	0.166	0.194	0.169

Table 7. Average Daily Hours of Paid and Unpaid Work of Parents Living with at least one Child aged 0-6 and None Aged Beyond

		1999		2009		
		Mean	SD.	Mean	SD.	% change
Mothers						
Total Work		9.02	2.95	8.75	2.61	-3%
	Paid Work	1.64	3.26	1.68	3.30	3%
	Unpaid Work	7.38	3.09	7.06	3.03	-4%
	Housework	4.01	1.98	3.24	1.62	-19%
	Family Care	3.37	2.27	3.83	2.14	14%
	Child Care	3.20	2.20	3.71	2.10	16%
Free Time		14.78	2.97	14.77	2.40	0%
	Leisure	4.56	2.57	3.60	2.10	-21%
	Leisure with ther	3.70	2.27	2.57	1.66	-31%
	Leisure Alone	0.86	1.25	1.04	1.29	21%
	Personal Care	10.18	1.74	10.80	1.64	6%
Fathers						
Total Work		9.01	3.88	8.35	3.74	-7%
	Paid Work	8.08	4.40	6.88	4.54	-15%
	Unpaid Work	0.93	1.48	1.47	1.79	59%
	Housework	0.35	0.87	0.51	0.87	48%
	Family Care	0.58	1.05	0.96	1.23	65%
	Child Care	0.55	0.99	0.92	1.21	67%
Free Time		14.88	3.88	15.44	3.42	4%
	Leisure	4.49	3.28	4.04	2.78	-10%
	Leisure with other	3.37	2.76	2.59	1.89	-23%
	Leisure Alone	1.12	1.63	1.46	1.78	30%
	Personal Care	10.33	1.85	10.85	1.80	5%
Ratio of Mothers to Fathers						
Total Work		1.00		1.05		
	Paid Work	0.20		0.24		
	Unpaid Work	7.96		4.80		
	Housework	11.63		6.33		
	Family Care	5.79		3.98		
	Child Care	5.78		4.02		
Free Time		0.99		0.96		
	Leisure	1.02		0.89		

	Leisure with ther	1.10		0.99		
	Leisure Alone	0.76		0.71		
	Personal Care	0.99		1.00		

Table 8. OLS Regression Results on Parental Child Care Time

VARIABLES	coefficient	se
Paid work time	-0.17***	(0.005)
Age	-0.04***	(0.005)
College-educated	0.10**	(0.047)
Home Ownership	-0.06	(0.040)
# of child 0-6	0.12***	(0.035)
Living in Seoul	0.07	(0.052)
Saturday	-0.21***	(0.050)
Sunday	-0.60***	(0.061)
Mothers	1.48***	(0.055)
Year 2009	0.22***	(0.047)
Mothers * Year 2009	0.37***	(0.090)
Constant	2.99***	(0.162)
Observations	9,093	
R-squared	0.473	

Standard errors in parentheses

*** p<0.01, ** p<0.05, * p<0.1

Figure 1. Expansion in Child Care Budgets

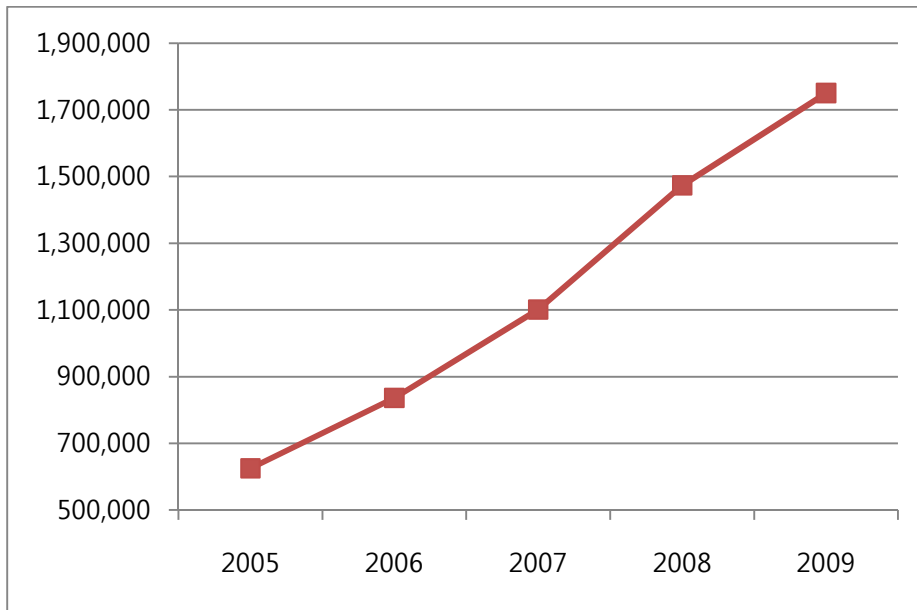
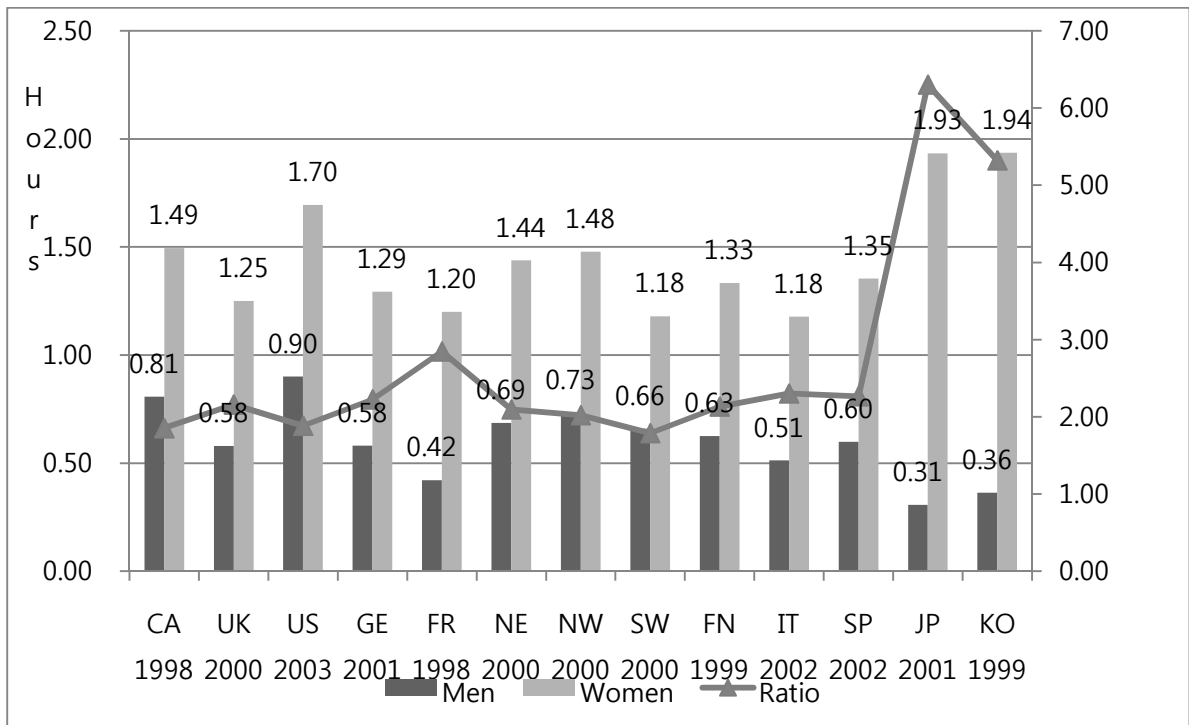


Figure 2. Comparison of Daily Average Parental Care Work in selected OECD countries.



Source. Data from Multinational Time Use Survey, Time Use Survey, raw data from the Japanese Time Use Study.

Note. Sample of Parents age 24 to 54 with children less than 18 years of age. Care work includes feeding, bathing, caring for, reading to, and playing with children.