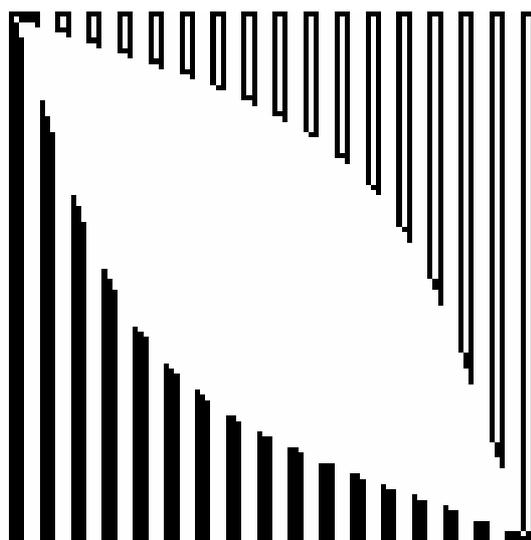


THEMATIC REVIEW ON ADULT LEARNING



KOREA COUNTRY NOTE

Visit: January 2004

Final version: January 2005

Korea has granted the OECD permission to include this document on the OECD Internet Home Page. The views expressed in the document are those of the author(s) and not necessarily those of Korea, the OECD or its Member countries. The copyright conditions governing access to information on the OECD Home Page are provided at <http://www.oecd.org/rights>



TABLE OF CONTENTS

1.	INTRODUCTION	4
1.1	Objectives and organisation of the thematic review	4
1.2	Country participation in the review	4
2.	GENERAL BACKGROUND	5
2.1	Introduction	5
2.2	The Korean education system	6
2.3	The Korean labour market.....	10
3.	DEFINITION AND SIZE OF THE LOW-SKILLED ADULT POPULATION IN KOREA.....	14
3.1	Adult Learning of the Low-Skilled	16
3.2	The Employment insurance system (EIS)	16
3.3	Adult Basic Education.....	21
3.4	Certification of qualifications.....	24
	CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS	28
	NOTES	31
	BIBLIOGRAPHY	2
	<i>ANNEX 1</i> STEERING GROUP, BACKGROUND AUTHORS AND CO-ORDINATION.....	4
	National Steering Committee	4
	Background Report Authors.....	4
	Co-ordination	4
	<i>ANNEX 2</i> THE OECD REVIEW TEAM	5
	<i>ANNEX 3</i> PROGRAMME OF THE VISIT	6
	Boxes	
	Box 1. A training consortium: the Volvo Training Centre.....	19
	Box 2. The Anyang Citizens Adult Education Centre.....	23
	Box 3. Human Resource Development Service of Korea (HRD)	26

Tables

Table 1	Enrolment and advancement rates (percentages) ¹⁾	7
Table 2	Dropouts and Dropout Rates for Middle and High Schools in Korea	8
Table 3	Population that has attained at least upper secondary education, tertiary education type A and advanced research programmes, by age group (2001)	9
Table 4	Enrolment rates in formal education (2001)	10
Table 5	Annual average growth rate of labour input: all industries 1963-2000 (in %)	10
Table 6	Wages by size of establishment 2002	11
Table 7	Incidence and duration of training in enterprises	12
Table 8	Labour force participation rates by level of educational attainment and gender, 2001	12
Table 9	Total monthly wages by gender (2002)	13
Table 10	Unemployment rates by age, gender and educational attainment (2002)	13
Table 11	Insurance premium rates (%)	17
Table 12	Personal Characteristics of Participants in Employer-led Training	20

Figures

Figure 1	Vocational Ability Development Program	18
Figure 2	Organization and roles of the departments in charge of Lifelong Learning	22
Figure 3	Age Distribution of Cyber College Students	24
Figure 4	National Technical Qualifications	25

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1 Objectives and organisation of the thematic review

The main purpose of the thematic review on adult learning is to understand adults' access and participation in education and training and to enhance policies to increase incentives for adults to undertake learning activities in OECD countries. It is a joint activity undertaken by the OECD Education Committee (EDC) and the Employment, Labour and Social Affairs Committee (ELSAC) in response to the need to make lifelong learning a reality for all, to improve learning opportunities of low skilled adults and sustain and increase employability.

A total of 17 countries participated in the thematic review. All related documents, Background Reports and Country Notes are publicly available on the OECD adult learning website (<http://www.oecd.org/edu/adultlearning>) and constitute a valuable source of information for international comparison. A comparative report providing an analysis of adult learning participation and policies as well as good practices and recommendations in the first nine reviewed countries was published in 2003 (OECD, *Beyond rhetoric: Adult learning policies and practices*, Paris).

Countries participating in the second round of the thematic review have chosen between two options: A full-scale review covering adult learning in a comprehensive view or a focused review addressing adult learning of the low-skilled adults. From the nine countries participating in the second round, four have opted for the full-scale review (Austria, Hungary, Mexico and Poland), and five for the focused review (Germany, Korea, the Netherlands, the United Kingdom (England) and the United States).

The thematic review methodology includes national analysis and cross country comparison. Countries prepare a descriptive Background report on the status of adult learning in the country. This is followed by an OECD review team visit to the country that enables the reviewers to analyse adult learning on the basis of the Background report, discussions with representatives of government, employers, trade unions and practitioners, and on-site visits.

After each country visit, the team rapporteur, with the help of the review team, prepares a Country Note analysing the main issues concerning adult learning and policy responses in the country under review. In the case of the focussed review, the note addresses, *inter alia*, the major themes that can contribute to improve participation in learning by low-skilled adults: public policy regarding low-skilled adults; how to make learning more attractive to them; different ways to improve quality and effectiveness of learning; and how to promote greater policy integration and coherence in adult learning. A final Comparative Report, published in 2005, addresses the different issues and policy responses in a comparative perspective, based on the insights gathered from the participating countries.

1.2 Country participation in the review

The review visit took place between 26-30 January 2004. The list of members of the steering committee, the authors of the background report and the members of the OECD review team are presented in Annexes 1 and 2. The mission programme and the participants at the various meetings are included in Annex 3. The review team would like to express their deepest appreciation to the steering group, the

background report authors and to the wide range of officials and individuals involved in the visit. Their participation and commitment in the various aspects of the visit, including the provision of a range of detailed information, contributed greatly to the present analysis of adult learning programmes and practices in Korea.

2. GENERAL BACKGROUND

2.1 Introduction

In the past 50 years, Korea has transformed itself from a backward agricultural economy into one of the most modern economies in the world. One of the main driving forces behind this transformation has been investment in human capital. Korea is currently investing some 7% of GDP in education, a percentage exceeded within the OECD only by Denmark (OECD, 2003a: 86). Over 80% of all students completing high-school studies now go on to university, and Korea has one of the highest rates of students completing high-school studies in the 25-30 age cohort (OECD, 2003a: 154). Initial training in schools and universities has been steadily expanded in the last 50 years, but there was a delay in investing in adult education, for two main reasons. First, when industrialisation began, Korea needed large numbers of low-skilled workers, since it initially entered the global market with simple products. Second, the huge population growth (from 25.8 million in 1961 to almost 50 million in 2003) meant that it was easy to improve the skills structure of the working population via the change in generations, *i.e.* the influx of well-trained young people and the pensioning-off of the low-skilled.

However, the rapid development of the Korean economy meant that concentration of education policy solely on the younger generation soon came up against limiting factors, as with the transition to more technically complex products there was a growing need for skilled workers, which could no longer be met by the up-and-coming generation alone. Moreover, as a result of structural change, workers were becoming unemployed, and many of them needed their skills to be refreshed and updated in order to obtain new jobs. Lastly, Korean society is ageing as a result of the sharp drop in the birth rate (from 4.53% in 1970 to 1.17% in 2002 [www.nso.go.kr]). Thus, annual employment growth will decline despite an increase in the employment rate. Between 1991 and 1995, employment growth was still 1.3%, but between 2003 and 2007 it is projected to decrease to 0.6%, and between 2008 and 2012 it will fall as low as 0.2% (OECD, 2003a: 48). This means that further technological and economic change is increasingly dependent on continuing education and training for those already in employment.

For these reasons, Korea has gradually begun expanding adult education. From the early 1960s onwards, skills training opportunities were first created for vocational training of employees in enterprises, in order to develop the steel and chemicals industries, for example, and to facilitate technological and economic change. In a second stage, skills training opportunities were created for the unemployed, to facilitate their reintegration into the labour market. Lastly, some attention was also devoted to improving education and training opportunities for the lower-skilled, who had been unsuccessful in the initial training system. "To meet the social demand for education, particularly of employed youths and adults who have lost the opportunity for normal school education, schools, either formal or non-formal, have increased in number and diversified" (Ministry of Education & Human Resources Development, 2003: 122). Such measures do not seem to be given a very high priority, however. Our talks revealed a lack of awareness among policy makers concerning the importance and urgency of improving the adult-learning environment for low-skilled workers. Furthermore, we were surprised to hear from a number of policy makers that the

issue of “low-skilled adults” will cease to be a problem since most adults will be high-skilled within the next 20 years due to the expansion of higher education.

In what follows, we shall concentrate in particular on education and training opportunities for the adult low-skilled, in other words on only a small part of Korean education and training policy. The low-skilled are adults who have acquired a below-average number of skills in the education and training system and have also subsequently demonstrated only inadequate participation in formal and informal education and training in the employment system.

The question of who is regarded as low-skilled is relative, and depends on the structure of demand for and supply of workers and on the education and training opportunities and mobility prospects on the labour market in an economy. In order meaningfully to determine the constitution of the low-skilled group, one must begin by looking at the basic structures of the education and employment systems, which is not a matter of focusing solely on formal learning. Many of those who leave the education system with minimal formal qualifications or with none at all later acquire through their working experience knowledge that is just as valuable as formal qualifications, but which is often not recognised on the labour market and within the education system.

We shall take account in what follows of the fact that non-formal and informal work-based learning and its formal recognition are now one of the most important starting points for promoting training opportunities for the low-skilled. Access to non-formal and informal learning depends not so much on the decisions the individual makes about training, but rather on work organisation in enterprises and mobility prospects on the labour market. Opportunities for lifelong learning cannot be increased simply by improving learning opportunities within the education system. As most adults are in employment, to ensure that people actually take advantage of these opportunities an adequate number of incentives and adequate provision must also be embedded in the employment system’s structures. Lifelong learning can be successful only in association with adequate education and training opportunities for adults, and with an employment system that promotes learning.

2.2 The Korean education system

Korea has a single-track 6:3:3:4 system providing six years of compulsory primary education, three years of middle school and three years of high school, followed by two or four more years at college or university. Attendance at primary and middle school is compulsory. Universal education was achieved at the primary level by 1970 and at the lower secondary school level by 1985. The rate of advancement from high school to university now exceeds 80%. Pre-school education has also been expanded in the past few years, and almost 40% of children attend nursery school. This huge expansion in education has been achieved with a relatively low level of public expenditure on education, with 4.3% of GDP in 2001, well below the OECD average of 5.2% (OECD, 2003b: Table B 4.1). This low level of public expenditure is not without consequences – Korea has the least favourable ratio of teachers to students at primary and secondary level in the OECD, and hence the largest classes (OECD, 2003b: Figure D 2.1).

Table 1 **Enrolment and advancement rates (percentages)¹⁾**

	Nursery school	Elementary school		Middle school		High school		
	Enrolment rate	Enrolment rate	Advancement rate	Enrolment rate	Advancement rate	Enrolment rate	Advancement rate: academic	Advancement rate: vocational
1953	-	59.6	-	21.1	-	12.4	-	-
1955	-	77.4	44.8 ²⁾	30.9 ²⁾	64.6 ²⁾	17.8	-	-
1960	-	86.2	39.7 ³⁾	33.3 ³⁾	73.3 ³⁾	19.9	-	-
1965	-	91.6	45.4 ⁴⁾	39.4 ⁴⁾	75.1 ⁴⁾	27.0	-	-
1970	1.3	100.7	66.1	51.2	70.1	28.1	40.2	9.6
1975	1.7	105.0	77.2	71.9	74.1	41.0	41.5	8.8
1980	4.1	102.9	95.8	95.1	84.5	63.5	39.2	11.4
1985	18.9	99.9	99.2	100.1	90.7	79.5	58.8	13.3
1990	31.6	101.7	99.8	98.2	95.7	88.0	47.2	8.3
1995	39.9	100.1	99.9	101.6	98.5	91.8	72.8	19.2
1999	37.3	98.6	99.9	98.8	99.4	97.3	84.5	38.5

1 For enrolment rates, percentages of corresponding school-aged children. For advancement rates, percentages of students who advance to the next level of schooling
2 1956-1957
3 1959-1960
4 1964-1965

Source: OECD, 2003a, p.155.

A high level of private expenditure on education partially compensates for the lack of public investment. High fees have to be paid by students studying at college or university, and only loans – not grants – are available for children from poorer families. In addition to the standard school education, most students attend private schools (*Hakwon*), which prepare them for entrance examinations for prestigious high schools. The quality of lessons in these high schools is clearly above average, and facilitates access to one of the top universities. Expenditure on these schools accounts for some 5% of all consumer spending by private households (OECD, 2003a: 157). The proportion of private co-payments for tertiary education is 78%, the highest level in the OECD (OECD, 2003a: 159). Some of our interview partners mentioned that Korea’s good results in the Pisa research study are likely to be partially attributable to this additional private investment rather than the quality of the state school system.

In addition to the general-education channel in high schools, there is a vocational channel divided into different vocational areas (technical, commercial, agriculture). It is primarily students from socially “weaker” families and whose performance is less good who enter this technical channel. In the past few years, there has been a marked drop in the number of students in vocational high schools as a proportion of all high-school students, owing to the poor reputation of vocational education. Parents who want their children to have a career send them to the general high schools. The Korean education system also offers courses of further education at technical colleges for students with a school-leaving qualification from a vocational high school, but the advancement rate in this context is well below that seen in the general channel.

When students with a school-leaving qualification from a vocational school enter the labour market, the majority obtain employment as unskilled workers. Most of them say that the content of vocational training is of no use for their subsequent job (Chang, 2002: 39). Some of them attempt to improve their labour-market prospects by obtaining certificates from private training establishments. The majority of young men go into manufacturing industry and the majority of young women into office work (Chang, 2002: 59). The fact that vocational high schools are insufficiently integrated with the labour market is likely to be the reason why a growing proportion of students with school-leaving qualifications from such schools wish to continue to learn. Since 1990, the advancement rate has virtually quadrupled (Kim, 2002). Also, the dropout rate for vocational high schools tends to be two or three times that of the general high

schools and it has not decreased in the past few years, as has the dropout rate in general high schools (Table 2). In recent years, the Korean government has tried to raise the status of vocational training. For example, the quality of lessons was increased through improved teacher training, and general and vocational education and training were made more interchangeable (see Section 3.3).

Table 2 Dropouts and Dropout Rates for Middle and High Schools in Korea

	Middle School		High School		General High School		Vocational High School	
	Dropouts	Dropout rate	Dropouts	Dropout rate	Dropouts	Dropout rate	Dropouts	Dropout rate
1985	33.115	1.2	64.693	3.0	28.290	2.2	36.403	4.1
1990	23.568	1.0	51.475	2.3	26.834	1.8	24.641	3.0
1995	19.817	0.8	45.145	2.1	16.100	1.3	29.045	3.2
2000	17.338	0.9	48.708	2.4	16.520	1.2	32.188	4.3
2003	15.987	0.9	38.624	2.2	17.095	1.4	21.529	4.0

Source: Brief Statistics on Korean Education, Ministry of Education & Human Resources Development, Korean Educational Development Institute, Seoul 2003.

In formal terms, the Korean education system is a single-track system that ensures that education is interchangeable and equal. However, in fact there are a number of important differences among its varying components:

- Schools and universities vary considerably in quality and reputation. Only graduates of the top universities are guaranteed access to the best jobs, and it is from these that the government and the major private companies recruit their next generation of employees. Access to one of the country's top universities is crucial to a student's future career and social status.
- The high proportion of private financing of education undermines equity goals, since the children of wealthier parents start out with better prospects. Private teaching outside school also makes things harder for teachers at state schools, whose students have varying levels of attainment.

The marked expansion of higher education in the past few decades has led to major differences between the generations in terms of education. While 95% of 25-34-year-olds have at least an upper secondary level qualification, only 30% of 55-64-year-olds have such a qualification. Thus there is a difference of 65% between the two age groups, much larger than that found in other industrialised countries, although of course these countries began developing much earlier. For example, the difference between the generations as regards secondary-level qualifications is less than 10% in Germany and the United States, and 31% in Japan (Table 3).

Table 3 **Population that has attained at least upper secondary education, tertiary education type A and advanced research programmes, by age group (2001)**

		Age group				
		25-64	25-34	35-44	45-54	55-64
Korea	Upper secondary education	68	95	77	49	30
	Tertiary type A and advanced research programmes	17	25	20	11	8
Germany	Upper secondary education	83	85	86	83	76
	Tertiary type A and advanced research programmes	13	14	15	15	10
USA	Upper secondary education	88	88	89	89	83
	Tertiary type A and advanced research programmes	28	30	28	30	24
UK	Upper secondary education	63	68	65	61	55
	Tertiary type A and advanced research programmes	18	21	18	18	12
Japan	Upper secondary education	83	94	94	81	63
	Tertiary type A and advanced research programmes	19	24	25	17	10

Source: OECD, 2003b, *Education at a Glance*, Tables A 2.3 and A 1.2, Paris.

The difference between the generations is also larger in Korea than in other industrialised countries when it comes to tertiary qualifications. This difference is particularly striking in the case of women. In 2000, women aged over 50 had attended school for an average of 5.5 years, while the figure for men over 50 was 9.2 years. In the 20-29 age group, women have actually had more years of education on average than men (F 13.3 years, M 13.0 years) (Ra, Choi and Kim, 2004, pp. 34-35).

In Korea, illiteracy is still widespread, especially among older people. In 2002, the Korean Educational Development Institute (KEDI) published the results of a survey of 3 135 people. As part of this survey, literacy and numeracy skills were tested and participants were asked questions which corresponded to the sixth-grade level of elementary school. Those who were able to answer at least 80% of the questions were classed as literate, with the remainder being classed as illiterate. As a result of this survey, 24.8% of the Korean adult population were classed as illiterate. A higher degree of illiteracy was found among women than among men, among people over 60 than among the younger population, among persons living in low-income families, and among those in small villages as compared to metropolitan areas (Lee *et al.*, 2002).

The Korean education system is very strongly geared to young people. The participation of the younger generations (15-29-year-olds) in formal education is above the OECD average, but the picture changes in older age groups. Despite immense efforts in recent years to promote the participation of adults in formal education as well, the participation of those aged over 30 is below the OECD average (Table 4). There is a particularly marked difference between the level of such participation in Korea and that in countries pursuing an explicit policy of promoting lifelong learning, such as the Scandinavian countries. It can be concluded from this that as yet adult participation in educational measures is not adequately compensating for the difference between the generations in Korea in terms of level of education.

Table 4 **Enrolment rates in formal education (2001)**

Full-time and part-time students in public and private institutions, by age

	Students aged			
	15-19	20-29	30-39	40 and over
Korea	79.3	25.0	1.6	0.3
Germany	89.4	24.2	2.8	0.2
Australia	81.1	28.3	14.4	6.6
Sweden	86.4	33.0	14.6	3.6
UK	74.7	23.3	13.0	5.7
USA	77.6	22.6	4.9	1.2
OECD	77.2	21.8	4.8	1.3

Source: OECD, 2003b, *Education at a Glance*, Table C 1.2.

2.3 The Korean labour market

In the past few decades there has been a marked improvement in the skills structure of the Korean labour force. One tool with which this improved quality can be determined is measurement of the stock of human capital. The stock of capital can be measured on the basis of years of school attendance, educational attainment, literacy rates, or the income-based approach.¹ If it is measured on the basis of earnings achieved, for which figures for Korea are available, we find that 23% of the increase in aggregate labour input between 1963 and 2000 is due to improvement in the quality of human capital (Table 5). Here, the percentage of quality improvement in relation to increase in labour input rose from 10% between 1963 and 1970 to 38% between 1991 and 2000, indicating the transition of the Korean economy to a knowledge-based economy.

Table 5 **Annual average growth rate of labour input: all industries 1963-2000 (in %)**

Year	Aggregate Labour Input Index			Increase in aggregate labour input due to improvements in labour quality
	Total labour input	Total labour hours	Quality of labour	
1963-2000	3.73	2.89	0.84	23.0
1963-1970	4.10	3.69	0.41	10.0
1971-1980	5.51	4.26	0.89	16.0
1981-1990	3.45	2.69	1.05	30.0
1991-2000	2.32	1.43	0.89	38.0

Source: Lee 2003.

The Korean labour market is highly dualistic, being divided into regular and non-regular workers. The labour market for regular workers is characterised by lifetime employment, low risk of layoffs, good social security, trade-union representation (at least in larger manufacturing companies), and minimal inter-company mobility. Unlike Japan, where in recent years seniority-based wage systems have increasingly been supplemented by performance components, the Korean wage system for regular workers continues to be almost exclusively seniority based. The market for irregular workers can be described as a competitive market which has almost no rules imposing restrictions on hiring and firing. Wages are based on market conditions, irregular workers have little union representation, some of them are not integrated into the social security system, and temporary, daily or temporary agency workers are taken on for a limited period. Also, irregular workers earn around 20% less than regular workers, if job tenure,² job type and working hours are taken into account.

The percentage of irregular workers, defined as those working for a specific length of time and those not entitled to certain allowances, increased from 42% in 1995 to 52% in 2002. Employment stability began to decrease following the 1997 financial crisis, due to the promotion of labour market flexibility policies, changes in corporate human resource management strategy and the decline of trade union density (Kim, 2003). In practice, many irregular workers work permanently in a company, but under different conditions from regular workers. If only workers who in practice have a fixed-term employment relationship are counted as irregular workers, the rate is at about 25% (OECD, 2004: 89). The former figure cited is important to the analysis that follows, as access to education and training measures varies depending on status. As well as being divided into regular and irregular workers, the labour market is also divided according to company size and sex. In companies with 5-9 permanent employees, monthly wages are just over 50% of those in companies with 500+ employees, and bonus payments are much lower (Table 6). Further, there is little opportunity for workers in small companies to move to larger ones. The division in the labour market, the lack of mobility prospects for irregular workers and workers in SMEs, and the seniority-based wage system all mean that there is almost no incentive for many workers to invest in their own human capital.

Table 6 **Wages by size of establishment 2002**

(Unit 1000 won/month)

Regular Employees	Total Wages*	Only Bonuses
500+	2718 (100)	815 (100)
300 – 499	2357 (86.7)	597 (73.3)
100 – 299	2067 (76.0)	476 (58.4)
30 – 99	1856 (68.3)	356 (43.7)
10 – 29	1705 (62.7)	290 (35.6)
5 – 9	1466 (53.9)	178 (21.8)

* Basic wages, overtime payment, bonuses.

Source: Korean Ministry of Labor.

A more detailed analysis of the composition of the body of irregular workers gives the following results: first, the percentage of women in irregular employment is much higher than the percentage of men (F 73.4%, M 45.1%); second, higher percentages of irregular workers are found among the lower-skilled than among the more highly skilled; third, higher percentages of irregular workers are found among the under-30s and the over-50s than among 30 to 50-year-olds (Chang, 2002: 12). It can be assumed that the various demarcation lines (age, sex and skills) reinforce each other and that, for example, most of the skilled workers in the irregular labour force are women and younger workers. A number of studies have shown that there are only minimal opportunities for irregular workers to advance to being regular workers within the company or by moving to another company (Chang, 2002: 16f).

This marked compartmentalisation of the segments doubly restricts the opportunities for participation in company training measures (Chang, 2002). First, companies consider that few skills are needed by workers they have taken on only on a short-term basis or only for jobs involving repetitive tasks. Further, the minimal prospects of labour-market mobility mean that irregular workers are not very motivated to participate in training measures that are unlikely to pay off for them. A survey conducted by the Korean Research Institute for Vocational Education & Training (KRIVET) in the manufacturing industry shows that participation by irregular workers in company training is well below that of regular workers (Table 7). A closer look at the figures reveals that the differences are even more marked, with two-thirds of training of irregular workers relating to statutory safety instruction. In addition, more than two thirds of irregular workers are trained on the job, whereas 70% of regular workers are trained off the job. Irregular workers

themselves want more off-the-job training opportunities, to facilitate a move to another company (Chang, 2002).

Table 7 Incidence and duration of training in enterprises

(N = 216)

Classification		Regular workers	Full-time irregular	Part-time Irregular	Dispatched
Enterprises	Number	95	49	11	10
	Ratio (%)	44.0	22.7	5.1	4.6
Training hours per annum	Basic skills	32.2	21.0	16.6	11.2
	Vocational skills	51.8	24.3	20.0	17.0

Source: Chang 2002: 28.

The low activity rates among women mean that part of the substantial private and public investment in education in Korea remains unused. The activity rate among Korean women is very low, at 57%. In contrast to other OECD countries, the activity rate among low-skilled women (below upper secondary level) is higher than that among more highly qualified women (Table 8). The reasons for the specific trend in Korea lie primarily in traditional family values. In addition, more highly qualified Korean women usually marry a well-qualified man, who earns a family wage and so can also finance the traditional family model. Another reason for the low activity rate among well-qualified women lies in the duality of the labour market. In 2002, the wages of Korean women were only 63.5% of those of men (Table 9). Many women fail to find regular employment with adequate prospects of advancement, which has a negative effect on the willingness of well-qualified women in particular to work. Therefore it is not surprising that only 6.5% of women participating in adult learning participated in order to be promoted at their workplace (compared to 42.3% of men). By contrast, more women than men participate in adult learning because of personal interest (Ra, Choi and Kim, 2004: 11).

Table 8 Labour force participation rates by level of educational attainment and gender, 2001

(25 to 64 year-olds)

		Below upper secondary education	Upper secondary and post-secondary non-tertiary education	Tertiary type B education	Tertiary type A and advanced research programmes	All levels of education
Korea	Men	84	89	94	91	88
	Women	61	53	58	56	57
Germany	Men	77	84	88	92	84
	Women	50	70	81	83	67
UK	Men	67	88	93	93	86
	Women	51	77	85	87	74
Sweden	Men	79	88	89	91	87
	Women	66	83	86	90	82
USA	Men	75	86	90	92	87
	Women	52	73	80	81	72

Source: OECD, 2003b, *Education at a Glance*, Table A 12.1.

Table 9 Total monthly wages by gender (2002)

Unit: 1000 won

	Total wages	Regular Payments	Overtime payments	Bonus payments
(1) Male	2193	1574	148	472
(2) Female	1393	1035	76	282
(3) 2 as % of 1	63.5	65.7	51.4	59.7

Source: Ministry of Labor.

Following the Asian economic crisis of 1997-98, it became harder for young people to integrate themselves into the labour market. In the past few years, the unemployment rate among young people has continuously remained at least twice as high as the overall unemployment rate (Table 10). The changeover of generations from which the Korean economy has derived such great benefit in the past few decades is currently being slowed down by the high level of youth unemployment. Men, and younger men in particular, have a higher unemployment rate than women, who often give up work on marrying. Unemployed young people include not only low-skilled workers, but also many college and university graduates. As a result of the expansion of higher education in Korea, university and college graduates have lost their former privileged status on the labour market and are now competing with one another for fewer jobs. In some cases, college and university graduates are now superseding workers with qualifications from vocational high schools.

In the market for high-skilled there seem to be abundant supply thanks to the rapid development of higher education. Unlike most other OECD countries, in Korea the unemployment rate is higher among the better qualified than among the more poorly qualified (Table 10), and it is particularly high among dropouts from colleges or universities. At the same time, there has been a reduction in internal supply of low-skilled workers, and worker shortages for the so-called "3D jobs" (Difficult, Dangerous, Dirty), have developed. A number of interviewees expressed the fear that the low-skilled might use improved skills to obtain better-paid and less stressful jobs and would hence intensify these bottlenecks.

Table 10 Unemployment rates by age, gender and educational attainment (2002)

		Male	Female
Age	Total	3.4	2.3
	15 – 29	8.2	5.6
	30 – 54	2.6	5.1
	55 – 64	2.1	3.3
	65 and above	0.7	2.5
Educational attainment	Below high school	2.8	1.4
	High school qualification	3.3	2.7
	Below college or university*	6.6	5.3
	College or university graduate	3.6	3.4

*Those who are attending college/university but are temporarily absent for a semester or two, or who have dropped out of college/university

Source: Korean National Statistical Office, "Economically Active Population Survey".

As a result of the shortage of workers for 3D jobs, in the past few years more workers have been recruited from outside Korea. It is believed that the majority of illegal foreigners are former industrial trainees doing low-skilled “3D” work. Some foreign workers come to Korea under the “Internal Trainee-System” (ITS). They are hired as trainees but work normal working hours and are not covered by the Labour Standards Act. In 2003, the Korean parliament adopted a law regulating work permits and residence for foreign workers. Under the new system, foreign workers will have the same rights as domestic workers. However, the work contract period is one year at a time and the maximum work period is 3 years.

According to information from the Ministry of Labour, the proportion of foreign workers is 2% of the labour force. There are over 360 000 foreign workers in Korea, but only 19% have legal status. Qualified Korean employers (employers with fewer than 300 employees in manufacturing, construction and service-related activities will be given priority) must show that they have attempted to find domestic workers through Korean employment offices for one month without success. They then receive a “certificate of shortage of employees” and then enter into employment contracts with foreign workers who meet the qualifications. Most foreign workers who are currently in Korea as “illegal residents” will be able to apply for work permits under the current system, depending on how long they have had illegal status since 31 March 2003. Foreign workers who have been in Korea less than 3 years from this date will be able to stay in Korea for a maximum of 2 years. Foreign illegal workers who have been in Korea for over 4 years since 31 March 2003 will be deported. The quota ceiling is expected to be around 300 000 to 400 000 foreign workers. Family members of foreign workers will not be allowed to enter. This is designed to dissuade foreign workers from staying in Korea permanently. After the maximum 3-year employment period, foreign workers will have to leave Korea for a 1-year period before being able to return to Korea to work again for another 3-year period. Foreign workers are not able to receive training which is subsidised by public funds. Usually the SMBC (Small Medium Business Corporation) or the SBT (Small Business Training Institute) provide only short-term programmes (one or two days) for foreign trainees who will be employed in 3D jobs.

3. DEFINITION AND SIZE OF THE LOW-SKILLED ADULT POPULATION IN KOREA

Low-skilled adults are usually defined as such according to their formal educational/training qualifications. Formal educational qualifications are indeed a key indicator of skills acquired, but they are by no means the only indicator for education and employment policy. Even people who have completed their education and acquired qualifications do not necessarily have the basic capacity for general training required for a job. Skills are only preserved in the long term if they are actually put into practice in working life. People who have had a good education or good training and have then been unemployed, inactive or employed only in elementary occupations, or have failed to keep up with technological/organisational developments owing to inadequate opportunities for continuing training, lose some of their previously acquired skills because they are not using them or are not keeping them sufficiently up to date.

Thus, the low-skilled population in Korea is composed of the following different groups, which overlap to a great extent, and for some of which no figures are available:

- Adults who did not complete high school: In 2000 this comprised about 26% of Korean workers. The percentage rises with increasing age, the figure being only 11.3% in the case of 20 to 29 year-old workers, but as high as 58.5% for 50 to 59 year-old workers (Ra, Choi and Kim, 2003).
- According to a 2002 survey, about 25% of the Korean adult population were classed as illiterate and about 9% as completely illiterate. Higher illiteracy rates were found among women than among men, among people over 60 than among the younger population, and among those with low educational attainment and in low-income families (Lee *et al.*, 2002).
- Workers employed in unskilled and semi-skilled jobs. This group comprises all workers in elementary occupations (in 2000 7.5% of all workers) as well as unskilled and semi-skilled workers in other occupations like sales workers (12.8%), service workers (9.8%), and agricultural, forestry and fishery workers (11.0%) (Ra, Choi and Kim, 2003).
- Unemployed persons unable to achieve reintegration into employment because of their lack of skills, including the long-term unemployed, as well as skilled young people who fail to find employment and whose skills then lapse.
- Inactive persons who want to return to work after a lengthy break in employment and whose skills are obsolete. Women in particular are found in this group, owing to their low rate of participation in the labour market (Lee and Cho, 2001).
- Persons in irregular employment, who are often employed in elementary jobs and have little opportunity to participate in in-company training, and few opportunities for mobility. Depending on how this group is defined, it comprises between 52% and 25%, with the former figure being more relevant for education/training policy, as generally speaking the irregularly employed have little opportunity to participate in in-company training.

According to a narrow definition based on the level of education, a little over one quarter of Korean workers, a particularly high proportion of whom consists of older workers, belong to the low-skilled population. According to another definition based on the nature of the job and access to adult learning, the group expands to cover up to 50% of the workforce. To this must be added many women not in employment, for whom any attempt to find employment fails owing to a lack of skills. It is advisable for education and employment policy to take as its basis the second definition, which involves several criteria and also makes it possible to specify education-policy measures for the various groups of low-skilled persons. There is a particular need for provision for the following:

- To adults who lack high-school qualifications, a second chance to obtain such qualification.
- To illiterate persons, an opportunity to learn how to read and write.
- Persons in elementary occupations and in irregular employment, to enable them to participate in vocational training.
- The unemployed, to improve their prospects of reintegration.
- Inactive persons, to increase the employment rate among women in particular.

In addition, the elements of the highly segmented Korean education system need to be made more interchangeable, to prevent those completing the vocational track from reaching a dead end. The elements can also be made more interchangeable via certification of skills acquired in working life.

3.1 Adult Learning of the Low-Skilled

Learning opportunities for adults have gradually been increased in recent years. The Ministry of Labor is responsible for adult vocational training for employees and the unemployed, which is financed through the Employment Insurance System via a system of levies and grants (section 3.2). The Ministry of Education & Human Resources Development is responsible for adult education for those who did not complete their education and now wish to obtain school-leaving qualifications or university degrees, as well as for courses for the illiterate (section 3.3). New types of quality assurance and of recognition of skills/qualifications acquired in a variety of ways have been developed, both for adult vocational training and for adult education in general, in the shape of the National Technical Standards and the Credit Bank System. There are also some signs that the two systems are beginning to be integrated with one another (section 3.4).

3.2 The Employment insurance system (EIS)

In Korea, in-company training and training for the unemployed are financed through the employment insurance system (EIS). This is now Korea's most important programme of incentives for training for adults, having been gradually developed over the past few decades. Originally, only the Korean strategy of rapid industrialisation was supplemented by support for in-company training. As new, heavily capitalised industries developed, such as the steel and chemical industries, the level of in-company training proved to be inadequate. The government therefore attempted to ensure that industry itself assumed more of the responsibility. The 1976 Basic Law for Vocational Training introduced a levy system. Companies with more than 300 employees (more than 150 as from 1992), which failed to train a percentage of their workforce laid down by the government, had to pay a levy, with which public measures were financed. Since many companies preferred to implement their own measures rather than paying over money for measures outside their control, and since at 6% the proportional share required was very high, the number of in-company training measures increased substantially. When the expansion of heavy industry slowed down, the government reduced the proportional share required, and the proportion of companies implementing skills training measures fell from over 70% in 1978 to 22.5% in 1994. This demonstrated the great extent to which skills training in companies had developed as a result of government interventions, with only very few being introduced by companies on their own initiative (Lee and Kim, 2004).

Until the early 1990s, those in regular employment were guaranteed a job for life, regardless of the way in which companies performed. This system was blamed for, among other things, the fact that growth rates declined in the early 1990s. The Kim government (1993-1998) developed a new economic strategy, the "New Economic Plan", aimed at transforming the economy from a growth-oriented economy with lifelong employment and low wages into an economy geared to competition, with flexible labour markets and high wages. In addition to making it easier for regular employees to be dismissed, an employment insurance system was to be introduced. In addition to unemployment insurance, this also contained various active labour market policy programmes, such as wage subsidies and skills training, and it incorporated and restructured the old levy system. Owing to concerns that the intensity of skills training might decrease, the old levy system was retained for companies with over 1 000 employees right up to 1998.

The EIS is divided into three parts, the Employment Security Programme, Vocational Ability Development Programme, and the Unemployment Benefit Programme. Training initiatives are supported through the Vocational Ability Development Programme. The EIS is a combination of an unemployment insurance scheme, into which employees and employers make payments on an equal basis, and a levy system, in which a levy is imposed on companies for vocational training. The size of the levy for the Vocational Ability Development Programme, which finances in-company vocational training and vocational training for the unemployed, varies according to the size of the company. Companies with fewer than 150 employees pay 0.1% of the overall wage bill and companies with over 1 000 employees pay 0.7%

(Table 11). The reason for the differing levy amounts is the differences in the external effects of in-company vocational training. In Korea in particular, with its system of a job for life in large companies, small companies tend to have to expect employees who have participated in an in-company training initiative to leave the company, so that other companies then reap the benefits. Even though the EIS is financed via contributions from employees and companies, the government has sole responsibility for its administration, a situation that is giving rise to increasing criticism from employers' organisations and trade unions.

Table 11 Insurance premium rates (%)

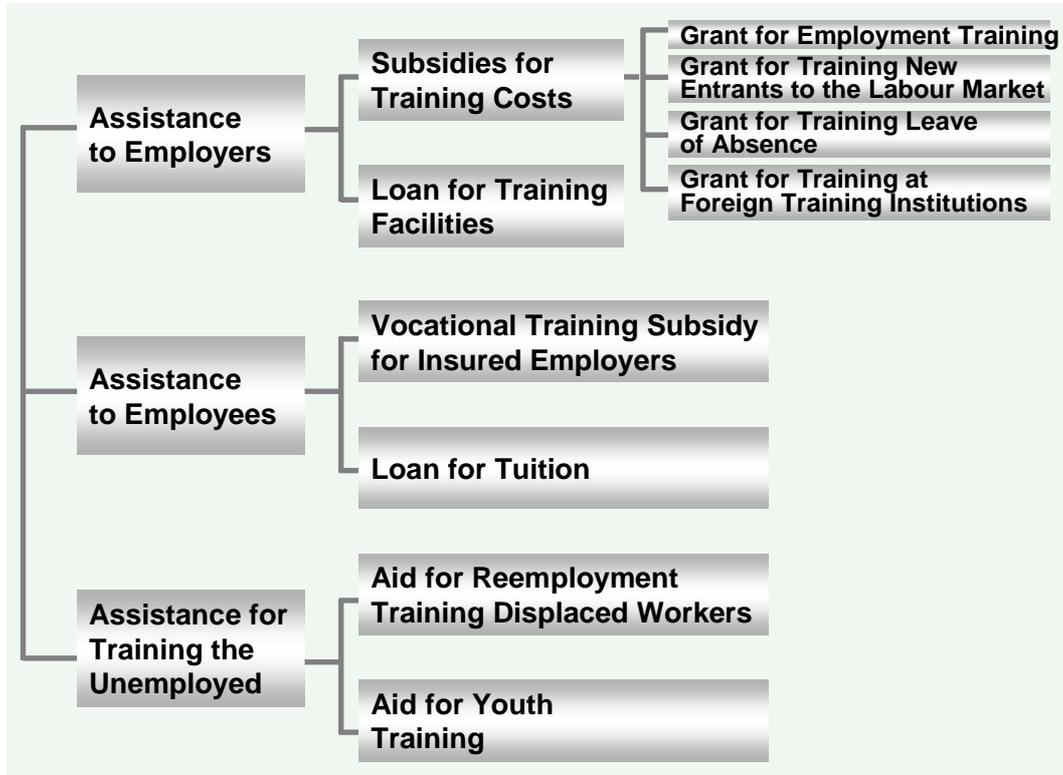
		Until 31 Dec. 1998		As from 1 Jan. 1999		As from 1 Jan. 2003	
		Employees	Employers	Employees	Employers	Employees	Employers
Unemployment Benefits		0.3	0.3	0.5	0.5	0.45	0.45
Employment Security Program		-	0.2	-	0.3	-	0.15
Vocational Ability Development Program	Companies with fewer than 150 employees	-	0.1	-	0.1	-	0.1
	Companies with fewer than 150 employees	-	0.3	-	0.3	-	0.3
	Companies with 150-1500 Employees	-	-	-	0.5	-	0.5
	Companies with 1,000 employees or more and programmes directly run by the state and local governments	-	0.5	-	0.7	-	0.7

Source: Ministry of Labor, *Labor Administration*, 2004, p.23.

When the EIS was introduced in 1995, it covered 3.94 million employees, or 32.5% of all employees. At first only those in regular employment were entitled to claim. Persons in irregular employment were not subject to compulsory unemployment insurance, and small companies (with fewer than 30 employees for unemployment benefits and under 70 employees for the Employment Security and Vocational Ability Development Programmes) were not included. The EIS now covers virtually all workers, including those in irregular employment. As from 1 January 2004, daily workers are also subject to compulsory insurance. Only a few groups are still exempt from compulsory insurance. These include employees working under 80 hours per month, newly appointed older workers aged 60+, older workers aged 65+, and government employees. In practice, however, it is apparent that irregular workers continue to have difficulties being fully integrated into the EIS.

The Vocational Ability Development Programme is divided into three sub programmes (Figure 1). Companies apply to the government for grants payable for implementation of in-company skills training measures. Loans on favourable terms are also available to companies for investments in training facilities and equipment. The assistance available to employees in the second sub programme is divided into subsidies to help with training costs for employees who are about to leave their jobs, older employees aged over 50 and workers in small and medium-sized enterprises with under 50 employees who pay for their own training, as well as low-interest, long-term tuition loans for those who enter or attend further education courses above the level of the two-year college. Under the third sub programme, the training and subsistence costs of unemployed persons undergoing vocational training are covered.

Figure 1 Vocational Ability Development Program



Source: Yoo and Chang (eds.), 2004: *Active Labour Market Policies and Unemployment Insurance in Selected Countries*, KLI and FES, p. 342.

Between 1997 and 2002, expenditure under the Vocational Ability Development Programme increased by more than 500 % from 63 to 398 million won. When the unemployment rate rose in the wake of the Asian crisis, support for vocational training of the unemployed accounted for the majority of this expenditure. After the unemployment rate fell again, there was a sharp drop in the number of unemployed persons receiving assistance (from 226 000 in 1999 to about 88 000 in 2002), accompanied by a sharp rise in the number of employees receiving assistance (from 8 000 in 1997 to 59 000 in 2002) and the number of participants in in-company skills training measures (from about 190 000 in 1997 to 1 591 000 in 2002). In 2002, a total of 1.739 million persons received assistance, representing about 24% of all insured persons. Training measures initiated by companies account for by far the largest part of this figure. The amount of training initiated by employees themselves has increased in significance, but it is still overshadowed by in-company training.

A key question in this context is whether the Vocational Ability Development Programme also reaches the low-skilled. Significant financial incentives have been put in place to this end. The proportion of the costs that is reimbursed is increased when certain target groups are included. In addition, particular assistance is available for consortium projects, in which large companies assume responsibility for training initiatives for small companies. For example, Volvo organized such a consortium for its suppliers (see Box 1). Eleven such consortia are currently in place, and it is planned that this number should increase to about 20.

In 2002 only about 42 000 of the participants in the three Vocational Ability Development Programmes were low skilled (Table V-9 in Ra, Choi and Kim, 2004). Detailed figures for the

participation structure are available for employer-led training, which is almost exclusively restricted to regular employees. Analyses by Lee and Kim (2004) show that the participation rates of women are much lower than those of men, and that almost no persons with low-level school-leaving qualifications (below high-school level), workers in elementary occupations or older workers participate in in-company training (Table 12). These authors' multivariate analyses confirm that the participation rate is influenced by sex, age, years of service, job and school-leaving qualifications. In a country as strongly industrialised as Korea, it is surprising to note that even skilled production workers (skilled labourers, technicians) have lower participation rates than office or even service & sales workers.

Box 1. A training consortium: the Volvo Training Centre

In response to the low take-up of training grants by smaller enterprises, the Korean government is supporting Training Consortia, where large enterprises organise training for SMEs. One such enterprise is Volvo which established a training centre for its suppliers in March 2003. The consortium's training courses are financed through the Employment Insurance System and are all approved by the Ministry of Labour. Volvo, the Ministry of Labour and 13 suppliers are represented on the consortium's management board, and the training is aimed at 1023 Volvo suppliers. The Training Centre develops its provision in close cooperation with Volvo and the suppliers, and ensures a high level of technical and educational input, which the suppliers, most of them small companies, would be unable to achieve with their own in-company training. Already in the first year, over 600 workers participated in courses lasting between two days and one year. Fifty per cent of participants have high-school-leaving qualifications.

Source: OECD review team interview at Volvo Training Center, Pyeongtaek, January 2004.

Furthermore, Lee and Kim show that the participation rate varies enormously according to company size. In companies with more than 1 000 employees, 58% of employees participate in training, while in companies with under 150 employees, only 3.1% of employees participate. Owing to their high participation rate, companies with more than 1 000 employees have 38% of their contributions reimbursed in the form of grants for training measures, whereas the smallest companies (1-4 employees) have only 7.6% of their contributions reimbursed, although they pay much lower contributions and receive higher grants for their skills training measures than large companies do. This means that in-company vocational training is highly selective and supports the strong segmentation of the Korean labour market as regards men and women, large and small companies, blue-collar and white-collar workers, and highly skilled and low-skilled workers. Lee and Kim (2004) fear that because of the unequal prospects of participation, employer-led training "could worsen the wage and employment gap" between the various employee groups.

The "Assistance to employees" sub programme, which provides for grants for skills training of older workers and employees in companies with under 50 employees, does little to rectify this problem. Only about 35 000 persons took advantage of this targeted "Vocational Training Subsidy for Insured Employees" in 2002. The majority of the assistance available under this sub programme was accounted for by low-interest, long-term tuition loans for persons participating in measures above the level of the two-year college. The structure of participation in employer-led training may be very unbalanced, but nevertheless the assistance has been shown to have positive effects on the intensity of training and on company performance (Lee and Kim, 2004).

Table 12 Personal Characteristics of Participants in Employer-led Training

		Training Participants		Workers ^{a)}		Training Participation Rate
		#	%	#	%	
Total		960	(100.0)	7,171	(100.0)	13.4
Gender	Male	747	(77.8)	4,832	(66.9)	15.5
	Female	213	(22.2)	2,389	(33.1)	8.9
Age	15 - 19	19	(2.0)	98	(1.4)	19.2
	20 - 29	325	(33.8)	2,255	(31.5)	14.4
	30 - 39	407	(42.4)	2,423	(33.8)	16.8
	40 - 49	179	(18.6)	1,598	(22.3)	11.2
	50 -	31	(3.2)	797	(11.1)	3.9
Education	Primary school or less	6	(0.6)	195	(2.7)	3.1
	Middle school graduate	22	(2.3)	511	(7.1)	4.2
	High school graduate	370	(39.8)	3,797	(52.9)	9.7
	2-year college graduate	132	(14.2)	958	(13.4)	13.8
	College graduate	367	(39.4)	1,575	(22.0)	23.3
	Graduate degree	33	(3.5)	136	(1.9)	24.1
Duration of Continued Employment	Less than 1 year	154	(16.8)	1,981	(30.4)	7.8
	1 – 2 years	195	(21.3)	2,083	(32.0)	9.3
	3 – 4 years	82	(9.0)	815	(12.5)	10.1
	5 – 9 years	213	(23.2)	910	(14.0)	23.4
	10 - 14 years	136	(14.8)	400	(6.1)	33.9
	15 - 19 years	73	(8.0)	190	(2.9)	38.3
	More than 20 years	63	(6.9)	140	(2.1)	45.2
Occupation	Manager	47	(5.1)	262	(3.7)	17.8
	Professional	48	(5.3)	373	(5.2)	12.9
	Semi-professional	113	(12.4)	816	(11.4)	13.9
	Office worker	442	(48.3)	2,200	(30.7)	20.1
	Service & sales	83	(9.1)	723	(10.1)	11.5
	Farmers, fishermen & skilled labourers	1	(0.1)	14	(0.2)	6.9
	Technician	137	(14.9)	1,383	(19.3)	9.9
	Operator & assembler	23	(2.5)	331	(4.6)	6.9
	Simple labourer	22	(2.4)	1,069	(14.9)	2.0

a) The number of workers is the number of insured employees as of 31 December 2002.

Source: HRD-Net; Work Information Centre, Human Resources Development Service of Korea, Monthly Report of Employment Insurance Statistics, December 2002.

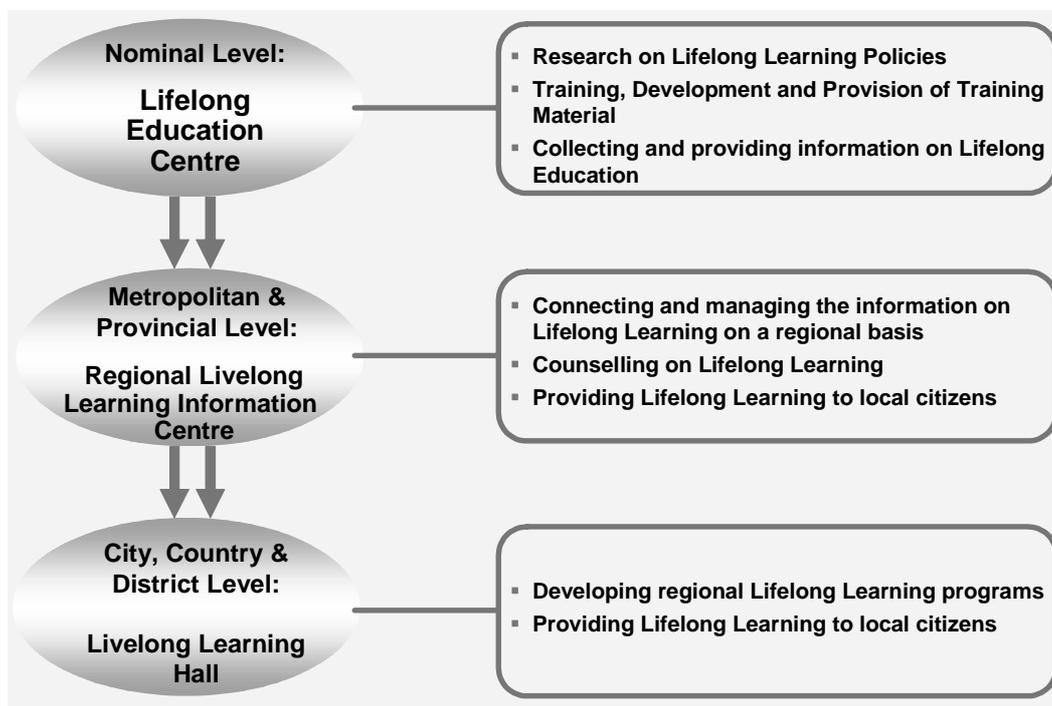
Even the training measures for the unemployed are, in practice, selective. They have concentrated to a great extent on the younger unemployed, a practice that has already been criticised by the OECD (2003a: 137). It should also be noted that only insured persons are involved, *i.e.* mostly persons previously in regular employment. The OECD has also pointed out that dropout rates are very high. In 2000, fewer than half of those enrolled in training programmes completed their courses. Lastly, the employment rates of those completing training are not regarded as particularly impressive. In a quasi-experimental evaluation, a recent study compared participants in skills training measures with corresponding control groups that had not participated in measures. It showed that training measures increased the likelihood of re-employment by 32%. In particular, the likelihood of employment was increased in the case of unemployed persons with no high-school-leaving qualification. This can possibly be explained by this group's lower expectations as regards wages, and by the sharp increase in productivity as a result of training (Lee and Kim, 2004).

3.3 Adult Basic Education

Vocational training in companies and for the unemployed falls within the remit of the Ministry of Labour. The Ministry of Education & Human Resources Development is responsible for adult education at schools and universities. In the past few decades, various adult education institutions have been developed, including para-schools, air and correspondence high schools, cyber colleges and the Korea National Open University. Numerous private educational institutions and school equivalents have grown up around them, operated by social organisations and religious foundations. The 1999 Lifelong Education Act (for details see the Korean Background Report – Ra, Choi and Kim, 2004) provided the basis for the accreditation of the qualifications awarded by the various institutions. Those obtaining school-leaving qualifications from them are qualified in the same way as those with qualifications from formal schools for entrance into schools on the next higher level. For those who have not even completed non-formal education, an examination system has been instituted to qualify them to go on to formal schools (Ministry of Education & Human Resources Development, 2003: 122-123).

Under the 1999 Law, the existing adult education institutions were integrated into the education system in accordance with the same criteria. In addition, the National Centre for Lifelong Education (NCLE) was established under the umbrella of the Korean Educational Development Institute (KEDI). The NCLE's remit is to carry out research into lifelong learning, to develop training programmes for adult education staff and to set up an on-line information service with details of programmes, organisations, lecturers, etc. Furthermore, 26 information centres for lifelong learning were established in 16 cities and 218 smaller towns and local districts, in which interested parties can obtain advice and information about educational opportunities available. In order to provide this service, the centres can access information held by the NCLE (Figure 2).

Figure 2 Organization and roles of the departments in charge of Lifelong Learning



Source: Koo, 2003.

"Para-schools" are aimed at the low-skilled. Unlike mainstream schools, they do not require all-day attendance. Civic schools offer elementary education condensed into a three-year course, and civic high schools offer the equivalent of middle school education. Trade schools offer courses of up to three years with the aim of equipping their students with the basic skills necessary for employment. They admit those who have completed attendance at elementary and civic schools. The quantitative importance of these para-schools has decreased with the expansion of the education system. In 2003, there were only five civic schools with 255 students and 14 trade schools with a total of 4 324 students. Trade schools no longer accept new students and will be closed down in five years' time.

For the illiterate both the government and NGOs provide educational courses at a local level. According to government figures, there are 230 organisations providing pro-literacy education, among them the civil education centre (1), social welfare halls (175), voluntary service groups (19) and women's organisations like the Anyang Citizens Adults Education Centre (Box 2). As many of the courses carry the stigma of "welfare" associations, their quality is poor, they do not reflect the realities of the life of an illiterate person and they do not enjoy a very good reputation. Their poor reputation is also due to the fact that for a long time Korea denied that it had a problem with illiteracy. That is why a number of NGOs offer courses for the illiterate; they are trying out other ways of reaching those concerned and their courses are aimed not only at teaching reading and writing skills, but also at boosting the individual's self-confidence. However, the public funding received by the NGOs is inadequate. It is estimated that there are some 500 NGOs in Korea which offer courses for the illiterate.

Box 2. The Anyang Citizens Adult Education Centre

This grass-roots organisation was founded in 1996. Its aim is to reduce illiteracy among women in particular. Many Koreans are embarrassed about not being able to read and write, not least because the problem was hushed up in Korea for a long time. In order to enlist participants for the courses, the voluntary staff of the Centre talks to women in places like supermarkets, beauty shops or at bus stops. As the members of the Centre are also active in other areas (e.g. environmental protection and distribution of food to the poor) they are well known locally. Since 1996, 3 000 women have taken part in courses. The teaching staff are all volunteers, some of them being former course participants themselves. Two basic courses are on offer: an entrance-level course for people with little previous education and a higher-level course for those with a middle school background. It takes two and a half years to complete these courses. The Centre is financed by fees (50%), donations from supporters and grants from the city council (40%). For participants who are not able to pay their own fees, the centre is able to provide some scholarships from its own resources. In the past few years, new courses have been developed specifically for younger drop-outs from the formal school system, most of them from low-income families. The government recently commissioned the Centre to develop a course for the computer-illiterate. The Centre is administered by a committee in which staff, supporters and course participants are represented. It is networked with 25 other NGO's which also offer courses for the illiterate.

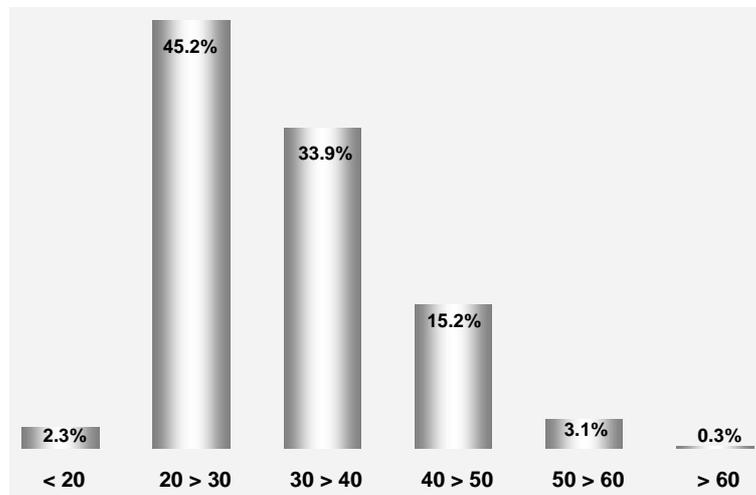
Source: OECD review team interview at Anyang Education Centre, January 2004.

Air and correspondence education have been continuously expanded in the past few years. Air and correspondence high schools are aimed at people with no formal school-leaving qualifications. Entrance is based not on examinations but on screening of documents in accordance with criteria established by the relevant office of education. In 1974, there were 11 schools with a total of 5 700 students. This figure has now increased to 39 schools with 14 080 adult students. Some of the lessons take place via radio programmes. Every other week, students are also required to attend Sunday classes, and they also have to submit written work. By completing a three-year course and passing an examination they acquire a high-school leaving qualification. In the higher education sector, cyber colleges were first introduced in 2001. There are now 16 colleges with over 20 000 students, half of whom are under 30 (see Figure 3) and 80% of whom are in employment. Tuition fees amount to between 31% and 52% of those of private colleges.

The Korea National Open University has 18 departments, 117 professors and almost 200 000 students (two thirds of whom are women). Teaching methods include audio tapes, radio and TV lectures, attendance at lectures, submission of assignments, internet-based digital lectures and a digital library system. The 13 regional learning centres have been interconnected so that the students are provided with an educational service which is not restricted by time and location. The Open University's tuition fees are only a third of those of other universities. Civil servants have 80% of their tuition fees reimbursed and can take paid or unpaid leave in order to study. Private companies also often pay part of the tuition fees. Cyber colleges and universities were originally aimed at the low-skilled but, according to the Ministry of Education, they have now been superseded by more highly skilled applicants. Officially, cyber university degrees are equivalent to those of other universities, but their reputation with the public is lower.

Figure 3 Age Distribution of Cyber College Students

(as of March 15, 2002)



AGE	< 20	20 > 30	30 > 40	40 > 50	50 > 60	> 60
percent	2.3%	45.2%	33.9%	15.2%	3.1%	0.3%

Source: Koo, 2003.

Despite the increased opportunities for adult education, state expenditure on this is only a fraction of its expenditure on the education and training system as a whole (Ra, Choi and Kim, 2004). In particular, the percentage of low-skilled persons in adult education is very small. Low-skilled persons have a very low success rate in the examinations for middle- and high-school leaving qualifications (56.7% for middle schools and 30.4% for high schools in 2001) (Koo, 2003). A system that recognises academic ability only through qualification examinations (General Equivalence Diploma) is obviously too rigid for adults with a low level of education. The low pass rate is for two reasons: first, there are too many examination subjects for adult applicants; second, an applicant cannot pass the examination if she or he fails in one or more subjects. To reduce failure rates, from 2004 the number of subjects for examination has been reduced (from 8 to 6 in the case of the middle-school leaving qualification, from 9 to 8 in the case of the high-school leaving qualification). In addition, the “one & more-subject failure system” has been replaced by a certification system based on average scores. This means that the candidate passes an examination if his or her average score mark is above the score of 60.

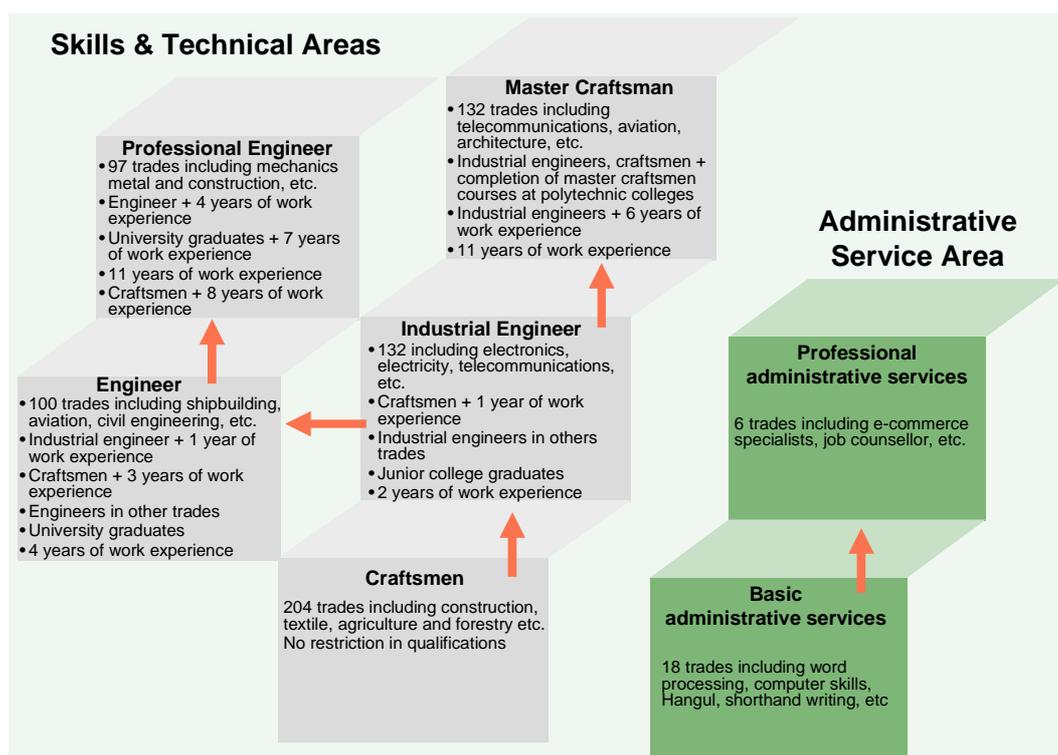
3.4 Certification of qualifications

A number of new problems have ensued from the expansion of general and vocational adult learning. For Korea, the question arises as to the contribution made by these measures to economic development and to the improvement of equal opportunities. Individuals ask about interchangeability of elements within the education/training system and about the possibilities for putting skills acquired to good use on the labour market. Finally, companies are concerned about the value of the measures vis-à-vis their own economic success. Shared interfaces for these players’ concerns are: (1) ensuring that the training measures are of high quality; (2) making the elements of the education/training system more interchangeable; and (3) integrating training on the one hand with the labour market and companies on the other. With the development of the National Qualification System and the Credit Bank System in the past few years, important building blocks have been put in place with respect to these three criteria.

In Korea, the setting of standards for qualifications has traditionally been a task for the state. In the past, various ministries were responsible for developing standards, which meant that the level of the standards varied greatly, something that weakened their reputation. Procedures were standardised in the 1997 “Framework Act on Qualifications”, and National Technical Qualifications were developed for the core industries and for areas not yet experiencing great demand, but which are expected to grow in view of the nation’s industrial development (Kim, D.G., 2001:2). National Technical Qualifications have been developed for the various skills levels (from craftsman to professional engineer, and for the administrative services) (Figure 4). In addition, there are 120 non-technical standards, in the health sector for example. The goal pursued in introducing national qualifications was:

- To evaluate the individual skills and competences according to standard criteria.
- To improve the link between demand for and supply of skilled workers.
- To act as a guideline for recruitment, pay and promotion of employees.
- Make sure that the skills of workers are actually recognised, used and developed to increase productivity and improve industrial development (Cho Yoeng-Yoon, 2002: 139).

Figure 4 National Technical Qualifications



Source: Ministry of Labor (2003): Vocational competence Development, Seoul.

The Ministry of Labour, in coordination with 15 other ministries, is responsible for the National Technical Standards, and decides on the creation of new standards and the abolition of old ones. Standards are implemented via the “Human Resource Development Service of Korea” (HRD), which develops them in close cooperation with trade and industry (Box 3). HRD also develops and conducts tests for acquisition of the standards throughout the country. The Korean Chamber of Commerce and Industry is responsible

for administering the tests. These combine practical tests and multiple choice examinations. Since 1974, about 30 million people have participated in these tests, of whom 6 million have successfully achieved the standards. Efforts are being made to achieve international recognition of some of the standards. A project is currently in progress to provide for reciprocal recognition of engineering qualifications in the APEC countries (Korea, Australia, Japan, Canada, Hong Kong, Malaysia, USA, Indonesia, the Philippines and Thailand). Reciprocal recognition of IT qualifications has been agreed with Japan. This reciprocal recognition is aimed at improving the Korean standards, but also at making Korea attractive to foreign talent.

Box 3. Human Resource Development Service of Korea (HRD)

HRD was founded in 1982. Its remit is to improve the quality of vocational training in technical spheres in Korea. In close cooperation with trade and industry, it develops vocational training standards, runs its own courses, and is responsible for National Technical Qualifications testing. Its responsibilities also include a job placement service for successful participants in its courses. HRD is responsible for 19 polytechnic colleges (for technicians) and 21 vocational training institutes, which provide 1-year courses training the unskilled to become craftsmen.

To improve the quality of trainers, in 1999 the Ministry of Labour established the Korean University of Technology and Education (KUT), which trains new teachers from all over Korea to work in vocational training (bachelor's degree) and provides continuing training for working teachers. This university is also under the aegis of HRD, and is equipped with state-of-the-art technological and teaching resources. Students combine theoretical learning with practical experience via projects and compulsory placements in companies. The fees payable by students are low, and they pay only around one third of the fees themselves, with 35% coming from the Ministry of Labour and the remainder from the Employment Insurance System. A total of 8 000 to 10 000 working teachers a year receive continuing training, and they can also study for a bachelor's or master's degree while continuing to work. Continuing training for working teachers is financed by the Employment Insurance System, and they receive it free of charge, while other participants pay a fee. The initial and continuing training is provided in close cooperation with other technical universities in the USA and Europe. It is anticipated that the academic input into the training of teachers in vocational training will both improve quality and increase the prestige of vocational training.

Source: www.hrdkorea.or.kr and www.hrdi.kut.ac.kr.

Since 2000, in addition to national standards, procedures for the recognition of private qualifications have also been developed. It is believed that there is, in particular, scope for such standards in areas where the government itself is not formulating standards, and where professional or occupational groups, associations or enterprises have the capacity to develop and manage standards that meet domestic and international standards. Criteria have been developed for accreditation of private qualifications and for authorisation of private institutions to perform tests for these qualifications. The Korean Research Institute for Vocational Education & Training (Krivet) checks that they meet the criteria, after which the government awards accreditation. In 2002, 35 private qualifications were accredited, and 200 were in the process of being reviewed. Accreditation lasts for two to five years, and re-certification will be partially linked to updating of the standards.

Until recently, in Korea only school-leaving qualifications and university degrees were recognised, *i.e.* qualifications from the formal education system. In 1995, the Presidential Commission on Education Reform proposed that a Credit Bank System be introduced, under which those who participated successfully in courses at other institutions should also be recognised, and credit points accumulated in various ways could be accumulated to achieve qualifications. This system was made law in 1997, and under it credit points can be accumulated from the following sources:

- Completion of programmes at accredited educational and training institutions.
- National Technical Qualifications.

- Part-time enrolment in colleges or universities.
- Tests passed under a self-study programme.
- Important intangible cultural skills.

It is intended that the following in particular should benefit from this system: (a) persons with high-school-leaving qualifications who were unable to participate in post-secondary education; (b) previous college or university students who did not complete their studies; (c) employees who hold a vocational qualification but have not acquired a bachelor's degree or an associate bachelor's degree; (d) people who wish to acquire formal credits for knowledge and skills gained through self-study and through workplace training and experience; (e) people who have studied at private institutions or junior colleges and wish to transfer to the university system.

Recognition is available only for courses with standardised curricula in accredited education/training institutions. The Korean Educational Development Institute (KEDI) is responsible for implementing the Credit Bank System. In conjunction with experts in the relevant fields and the Ministry of Education & Resources Development, it develops the curricula and updates them once a year. It accredits education/training institutions in accordance with certain criteria (instructors' qualifications, premises, provision of standardised courses, etc.) and handles students' applications for credit approval. The applications are reviewed by the Screening Committee for Academic Credit Accreditation, which then forwards its recommendation to the Ministry, which awards the degree. A large number of credits are held in the Credit Bank (337 073 in 2000). By 2003, 14 648 degrees had been awarded, 10 091 associate bachelor's degrees and 4 557 bachelor's degrees. Two thirds of those who acquired a degree were over 30 years of age (Chung, 2003:14).

There are links between the system of National Technical Standards and the Credit Bank System. The National Technical Standards are recognised by the Credit Bank System, with fixed point values being assigned to them. The two systems have made the elements of the education/training system more interchangeable, and quality is also assured thanks to standardisation and updating of the courses leading to the acquisition of credits and of the National Technical Standards. The ability to acquire degrees through the Credit Bank System means that individuals who were previously unsuccessful in the education system can acquire qualifications that are valuable on the labour market and can continue to study. The low-skilled are at a disadvantage owing to the fact that as yet the Credit Bank System does not recognise any credits below high-school level, nor does it provide for any mechanisms for recognition of knowledge acquired on the job (Chung, 2003: 17).

Another disadvantage is that those with leaving qualifications from cyber education, mainstream colleges and universities are treated differently by the Credit Bank System and the National Qualification System. For those who have completed cyber education there is no opportunity to apply for national qualification tests. Moreover, national qualifications and private qualifications are certified by the state, whereas credits gained through cyber education are not. It is important to note that the National Technical Standards are not yet integrated with the labour market and the wage system. The wage system continues to be based on seniority, and trade unions and companies do not negotiate on job classification systems according to qualifications. There is a seniority based wage system. An individual classified as a blue-collar worker tends to remain a blue-collar worker, and his wage increases only in line with his age, a fact that limits any motivation to learn.

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Over the last 50 years, Korea has transformed itself from a backward agricultural economy into one of the most modern economies in the world. One of the main driving forces behind this transformation has been investment in human capital. The marked expansion of higher education in the past few decades has led to major differences in educational attainment between the generations. The Korean education system is very strongly geared to young people: the participation of the younger generations in state and private education is above the OECD average, but the picture changes in older age groups. The OECD review team gained the impression that the need for improving opportunities for adult learning, especially for the low-skilled, has so far not been given high priority in the Korean education policy. That is why, despite some efforts in recent years, participation in education of those aged over 30 is below the OECD average. In Korea, illiteracy is still widespread, especially among older people, but is also found among younger people, especially drop-outs from the formal school system.

The Korean labour market is highly dualistic, being divided into regular and non-regular workers. Wages and fringe benefits of irregular workers are substantially lower than of regular ones. The labour market is also segmented by company size, levels of qualification and gender. In smaller companies wages are substantially lower than in the bigger ones. A far higher proportion of women than men are in irregular employment. Higher percentages of irregular workers are found among the lower-skilled than among the more highly skilled. This division in the labour market, the lack of mobility prospects for irregular workers and workers in SMEs, and the seniority-based wage system, all mean that there is little financial incentive for many workers to invest in their own human capital.

According to a narrow definition based on the level of education (persons who did not complete high school and attended only middle school or elementary school.), a little over one quarter of Korean workers, a particularly high proportion of whom consist of older workers, are low-skilled. According to another definition based on the nature of the job and access to training (irregular workers, long term unemployed, persons in elementary occupations, inactive persons looking for work) this group expands to cover up to 50% of workers. We recommend Korean education and employment policies to reflect the latter definition, and to specify education-policy measures for the various groups of low-skilled persons under this definition.

In-company training, and training for the unemployed are financed through the employment insurance system (EIS). This is now Korea's most important programme of incentives for training of both employees and the unemployed. The EIS now covers virtually all workers, including those in irregular employment. In practice, however, it is apparent that irregular workers have not been wholly integrated into the EIS. A key question is whether the EIS reaches the low-skilled. Significant financial incentives have been put in place to this end. The proportion of costs that is reimbursed to companies is increased when certain target groups of employees are included. However, the participation rates for women are much lower than those for men, and only disappointingly low shares of persons with low-level school-leaving qualifications, of workers in elementary occupations, workers in SMEs or older workers participate in vocational training. Even the training measures for the unemployed are, in practice, selective. The programmes for the unemployed have concentrated to a great extent on the younger unemployed, while drop-out rates are usually very high.

The creation of para-schools, air and correspondence high schools, cyber colleges and the Korea National Open University has offered a second chance to adults who have no school-leaving qualification or who wish to return to study to obtain a college qualification or university degree. Furthermore, 26 lifelong learning information centres have been established in many cities and local districts, in which interested parties can obtain advice and information about educational opportunities available. However, the only institutions to have attracted large numbers of students are the cyber colleges and the Korea National Open University, the majority of whose students come from the ranks of the more highly skilled. Local provision of courses in reading and writing for the illiterate carries the stigma of “welfare” associations and often fails to reach its intended target group. Despite the increased opportunities for adult education, state expenditure on this is only a fraction of its expenditure on the education and training system as a whole. In particular, the percentage of low-skilled persons in adult education is very small. Low-skilled persons also have a very low success rate in the examinations for middle- and high-school-leaving qualifications. A system that recognises academic ability only through qualification examinations (General Equivalence Diploma) is obviously too rigid for adults with a low level of education.

National Technical Qualifications have been developed for the various skill levels (from craftsman to professional engineer, and for administrative services). In addition, there are 120 non-technical standards, in the health sector for example. The “Human Resource Development Service of Korea” (HRD) and the Korean Chamber of Commerce and Industry develop and modernize these standards in close co-operation with trade and industry and conduct tests for their acquisition throughout the country. Through the Credit Bank System those who have participated successfully in courses at other institutions may also be recognised, and credit points accumulated in various ways can be used to achieve qualifications. The National Technical Standards are recognised by the Credit Bank System, with fixed point values being assigned to them. The two systems have made the elements of the education/training system more interchangeable, and quality is also assured thanks to standardisation and updating of courses leading to the acquisition of credits and of National Technical Standards. The ability to acquire degrees through the Credit Bank System means that individuals who were previously unsuccessful in the education system can acquire qualifications that are valuable in the labour market. The low-skilled are at a disadvantage owing to the fact that as yet the Credit Bank System does not recognise any credits below high-school level, nor does it yet provide for any mechanisms for recognition of knowledge acquired on the job.

The way in which the Korean labour market is structured constitutes one of the main barriers to adult education. Persons in regular employment are paid in accordance with seniority, not qualifications, and irregular workers have no prospects of promotion, so that education/training brings them no benefit. Even mobility between companies is only a practicable route in exceptional cases. This means that for the low-skilled in particular, the education and training systems are not meaningfully integrated with the employment system. The employment system offers too few incentives for lifelong learning.

The low rate of adult participation in education/training in Korea, in comparison with other countries, is also the result of inadequate resources. Korea has extremely long working hours, which leave little time available to combine learning with full-time work. In addition, tuition fees are payable for tertiary education. Although the fees are lower at cyber colleges, for example, than at ordinary colleges, for adults they still represent a substantial financial burden. There is no guarantee of obtaining paid leave, which companies grant only in exceptional cases. This lack of resources has a particularly detrimental effect on the participation of the low-skilled.

In recent years Korea has developed important elements of a system of lifelong learning. These elements are, however, (1) still insufficiently interconnected, (2) not closely linked with the employment system, (3) offer not enough opportunities for life long learning of the low skilled and (4) the resources spent on adult learning are too low. Therefore we recommend to:

1. Facilitate integration of the different elements of adult learning and training by:
 - Equal treatment of all degrees of adult learning by the Credit Bank System.
 - Improving the link between the Credit Bank System and the National Qualification Standards.
 - Equal treatment of regular schools and other training institutions including those offering courses for illiterates.
 - Improving the status of vocational training.
2. Facilitate a better integration of the education and training system and the employment system by:
 - Enforcing the coverage of irregular workers by the EIS.
 - Improving the mobility and promotion possibilities between the labour market segments, especially for women and irregular workers.
 - Introducing performance and skill components in the seniority-based wage systems.
 - Linking pay and job titles with the National Qualification Standards.
 - Participation of trade unions and employer organizations in the management of the EIS and in developing National Qualification standards.
 - Continuous updating of National Qualification Standards and inclusion of test subjects and methods that reflect workplace needs.
 - Inclusion of foreign workers into training.
3. Create more possibilities for life-long-learning of the low-skilled by:
 - Strengthening the financial incentives in the EIS for the training of low-skilled within companies.
 - Expanding the learning programmes for illiterates.
4. Provide more resources for adult learning by:
 - Abolishing tuition fees for adult learning of the low-skilled.
 - Creating entitlements for paid leaves for employed.
 - Targeting the training programmes for the unemployed more too the low skilled.
 - Extending the training consortia for small and medium-sized companies.

NOTES

1. The advantage of the income-based approach is that it also evaluates knowledge acquired in the course of one's working life. The disadvantage is that owing to institutional obstructions in the labour market, the human capital of some groups is overvalued and that of others is undervalued. For example, in these calculations, due to the lower wages of women, who are often not paid in accordance with their productivity, an increasing employment rate among women leads to a reduction in the quality of labour.
2. Since the job tenure of regular workers is longer by definition than that of irregular workers and regular workers' wages are based on seniority, in practice the wage differences are much greater.

BIBLIOGRAPHY

- Chang Hong-geun (2002), *Irregular workers and the vocational education and training – centred on the labourers in the manufacturing industry*, Korean Research Institute for Vocational Education & Training (Krivet), RM 02-15, Seoul.
- Chang Wonsup (2002), *A study on the transition from school to the world of work in Korea*, Korean Research Institute for Vocational Education & Training (Krivet), RM 02-14, Seoul.
- Cho Joeng-Yoon (2002), *Vocational qualification system in Korea*, in: Krivet (2002), The Tvet Expert Workshop “*Learn TVET in Korea*”, p. 137-161, Seoul.
- Chung Ji-Sung (2003), *Diversification of training pathways through the credit bank system in the Republic of Korea*, in: IIEP/UNESCO-KRIVET International Policy Seminar “*Making lifelong learning a reality*” International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP/UNESCO), KRIVET, Seoul.
- Kim Deok Gi (2001), *Qualifications systems in Korea*, Korean Research Institute for Vocational Education & Training (Krivet), RM 01-10, Seoul.
- Kim Ki-Hong (2001), *Vocational education system in Korea*, Korean Research Institute for Vocational Education & Training (Krivet), RM 01-08, Seoul.
- Kim Wan-sik (2002), *The vocational educational system in Rep. of Korea*, in Krivet (2002), p. 39-63.
- Kim Yoo-Sun (2003), The Cause of Nonstandard Workforce Increase, *Social & Economic Critiques*, Vol. 21. Korea Social & Economic Studies Association (in Korean).
- Koo Kwan-Seo (2003), Policy directions and tasks of lifelong learning in Korea, in: IIEP/UNESCO-KRIVET International Policy Seminar “*Making lifelong learning a reality*” International Institute for Educational Planning (IIEP/UNESCO), KRIVET, Seoul.
- Krivet (2002), The TVET expert workshop, “*Learn TVET in Korea*”, Seoul.
- Lee Hee-Su, Byun Jong-Im, Lee Ji-Hye, Ahn Doo-Hee, Park Sang-Ok, Lee Hyun-Seok (2002), *Research on the current status of illiteracy among Korean adult population*, Korean Educational Development Institute (KEDI), CR 2002-49, Seoul.
- Lee Kye Woo, Cho Kisuk (2001). *Were Korean women more affected by the Asian crisis?*, in Park Funkoo, Park Young-bum, Betcherman Gordon, and Dar Amir (Eds.), *Labour Market Reforms in Korea: Policy Options for the Future*, The World Bank, Korea Labour Institute, Seoul.
- Lee Byung-Hee, Kim Jooseop (2004), *Skill development and training policies in Korea*, Korea Labour Institute, unpublished paper.

Lee Nam Chul (2003) *Estimating human capital stock in Korea*, Korean Research Institute for Vocational Education & Training (Krivet), Dankook University, paper presented to the International Business Economics Research Conference (Acapulco, Mexico).

Ministry of Education & Human Resources Development, Republic of Korea (2003), *Education in Korea 2003~2004*, Seoul.

OECD (2003a), *OECD Economic Surveys: Korea, Vol. 2003/5*, Paris.

OECD (2003b), *Education at a glance*, Paris.

OECD (2004), *OECD Economic Surveys: Korea, Vol. 2004/10*, Paris.

Ra Youngsun , Choi Jihee, Kim Sangho (2004), *Thematic Review of Adult learning of the low-educated and low-skilled in Korea, Country background report of the OECD Thematic Review on Adult Learning*, Korea Research Institute for Vocational Education and Training (Krivet), Seoul.

Yi Ilcheong, Lee Byung-Hee (2003), *Development characteristics of unemployment policy in Korea*, paper presented at the United Nations Research Institute for Social Development (UNRISD), Workshop on Social Policy in a Development Context – East Asian component, Bangkok, Thailand, 30 June – 1 July 2003.

ANNEX 1

STEERING GROUP, BACKGROUND AUTHORS AND CO-ORDINATION

National Steering Committee

Representatives from the Ministry of Education & Human Resources Development

Jongsoo Jung, Director General, Lifelong Vocational Education Bureau

Youngjun Kim, Director, Lifelong Education Policy Division

Jinyoung Rho, Deputy Director, Lifelong Education Policy Division

Representatives from the Ministry of Labour

Jongmyun Paik, Director General, Ability Development Office

Segon Kim, Director, Training Policy Division

Duhee Kim, Deputy Director, Training Policy Division

Background Report Authors

Representatives of Korea Research Institute for Vocational Education & Training (KRIVET)

Youngsun Ra, Research Fellow

Jihee Choi, Research Fellow

Sangho Kim, Researcher

Co-ordination

Representatives of Korea Research Institute for Vocational Education & Training (KRIVET)

Youngsun Ra, National Coordinator, Research fellow

Namchul Lee, Director, International Studies & Cooperation Team

ANNEX 2

THE OECD REVIEW TEAM

Gerhard Bosch (Rapporteur)

Professor for Sociology at the University
Duisburg-Essen and Vice President of the Institute
for Work and Technology, Gelsenkirchen Germany.

Koji Miyamoto

Employment Analysis and Policy Division,
Directorate for Employment, Labour and Social
Affairs (ELSA), OECD, Paris, France

Patrick Werquin

Education and Training Policy Division,
Directorate for Education (EDU), OECD, Paris,
France

ANNEX 3

PROGRAMME OF THE VISIT

Monday 26 January - Seoul

10.30 *Welcome for OECD review team by Lifelong Education Policy Division, Ministry of Education & Human Resource Development:*

From the Ministry of Education & Human Resource Development:

Young-Jun Kim, Director
Jin-young No, Deputy Director
An-byeong Choi, Deputy Director

15.00 *Meeting with representatives from the Center for Lifelong Education/Credit Bank, Korean Educational Development Institute (KEDI):*

Representatives

Chong Jae Lee, President
Eun-Sun Baek, Head of Office of Educational Credit Bank System
Don-Min Choi; Director, Lifelong Learning Center
Jeong-Ah Lee, International Cooperation Team leader
Hye-Yung Park, International Cooperation Team, Researcher

Tuesday 27 January - Seoul

10.00 *Meeting at the Training Policy Division, Ministry of Labour:*

Representatives

Se-Gon Kim, Director
Du-Hui Kim, Deputy Director
Jin-Woo Moon, Officer in Charge of Work Cooperation
Hae-Young Chung, Assistant Director, International Negotiation Division

13.00 *Meeting at Seoul Central Employment Security Centre:*

Representatives

Byeong-Sun Na, Head of Jongro Employment Security Centre

15.00 *International Cooperation Office, Human Resources Development Service of Korea (HRD Korea)*

Jung-Woo Yi, General Director, Employment & International Affairs
Young-II Cho, Chief of International Cooperation Office
Kyung-Woo Lee, Director, Ability Development Office's Working Level Officer

Wednesday 28 January – Incheon / Anyang

10.00 *Visit to Incheon Polytechnic College*

Representatives

Byung-In Park, Deputy Dean, Academic Affairs Department
Su-Youn Cho, Deputy Dean of Corporate Services Department
Geon-Seop Gu, Working Level Officer in Charge of Ability Development at Industrial-Educational Cooperation Office

16.00 *Visit to Anyang Citizen's College(YMCA)-Social Education Centre, Anyang*

Man Hui, Principal
Sa-Ok Park, Assistant Principal

Thursday 29 January – Pyeongtaek / Cheonan

08.30 *Visit to a Training Center – Volvo Construction Equipment Korea - Vocational Training Consortium for SMEs, Pyeongtaek*

Representatives from the Training Centre

Jae-Sil Lee, Head of the Training Centre
Gi-Seok Kwon, Director

14.00 *Visit to Korea University of Technology and Education, Cheonan*

Seok-cheon Yun, Professor

Friday 30 January - Seoul

10.00 *Research Planning & Coordination Office, Korea Labour Institute (KLI)*

From the Korea Labour Institute (KLI)

Won-duck Lee, President
Joo-Seop Kim, Director of Research Planning & Coordination Office
Byung-hui Lee, Research Fellow
Chang-Won Lee, Director, International Cooperation Team
Yun-jung Yang, Researcher of International Cooperation & Information Office

13.00 *Wrap-up meeting with National Steering committee:*

Presentation of preliminary findings by OECD Review team and discussion about future tasks of adult learning for the low-educated and low-skilled

Head Office of KRIVET

Representatives:

Young-Hyun Lee, General Director, Department of Research
Jung-Taek Lee, Senior Research Fellow
Hong-Geun Chang, Fellow Researcher
Mee-Souk Kim, Fellow Researcher
Ahan-Kook Kim, Fellow Researcher
Nam-Chul Lee, Director, International Studies and Cooperation Team
Kyu-cheol Eo, Researcher, International Studies and Cooperation Team
Jee-Won In, Specialist

