Greetings,

It is our great pleasure to welcome you to the Forth Asia-Pacific Forum on Development and Gender. As a national think-tank for gender equality policy, KWDI has made continuous efforts to provide practical policy agendas for a gender-equal society. We have contributed in putting gender mainstreaming strategies into practice through extensive researches on gender impact analysis, gender budgeting, gender statistics and on various gender agendas. As part of the effort we have implemented an ODA project to help build infrastructure for gender equality in Cambodia and Indonesia since 2011.

'The 4th Asia-Pacific Forum on Development and Gender: Policy Development Roundtable on 2012 ODA Research Project' is part of the ongoing KWDI ODA research project titled 'Strengthening Gender Equality Policy Infrastructure in the Asia-Pacific Region.' This project aims to assist ODA partner countries of Cambodia and Indonesia to develop gender sensitive policies by strengthening legal and institutional infrastructures. The main objective of this workshop, therefore, is to share and review our research findings for political, economic and women’s rights empowerment in the two countries and propose policy recommendations that are well tailored to the local needs based on women’s development experience in Korea. As we have experienced last year and earlier this year, we believe that this can develop into concrete development cooperation aid modules only through intensive consultation and discussions with you. Based on the Roundtable discussions, a development cooperation aid module in the three policy areas will be presented in the
final report of the KWDI ODA project at the end of the year.

We hope that the Roundtable will bear fruitful results that contribute to our efforts of realizing a gender-equal society in the two countries.

We thank you again for participating in this forum and wish you a pleasant stay during this beautiful autumn season in Korea. Thank you.

Choe, Keum-Sook
President
Korean Women’s Development Institute
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<td>Keum-Sook Choe (President, KW DI)</td>
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<td>Youngju Oh (Deputy Director-General, Development Cooperation Bureau, MOFAT)</td>
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<td>Lena Maryana Mukti, United Development Party, Indonesia</td>
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<td>15:30~15:45</td>
<td><strong>Coffee Break</strong></td>
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<td>Country Case 1 - Cambodia, Hae Lim Cho, KWDI Country Case 2 - Indonesia, Jung Soo Kim, KWDI</td>
<td>Thoeun Sarkmarkna, MOWA, Cambodia Fikhi Akbar, MOWECP, Indonesia</td>
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### Comprehensive Discussion

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Women’s Political Empowerment / 1

Knowledge Sharing on Women’s Political Empowerment / 3
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| Session Ⅱ | KWDI’s Knowledge Sharing on Women’s Policy in the Asia–Pacific Region:
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KWDI’s Knowledge Sharing on Women’s Policy in the Asia-Pacific Region: Women’s Political Empowerment

- Country Case 1 – Cambodia
  Eun Kyung Kim, KWDI
- Country Case 2 – Indonesia
  Yeon Sun Park, KWDI
I. The Need to Develop Tailored Policies Regarding Women’s Political Empowerment and the Current Status of Local Programs

a. Cambodia

1) Current Status of Cambodian Women’s Political Participation

The political representation of Cambodian women stands at about 21%, higher than Korean women’s representation at 15%. However, in terms of the Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM), a key measure of women’s empowerment, Korea and Cambodia rank 61st and 91st, respectively. As for the Gender-related Development Index (GDI), Korea ranks 26th and Cambodia 116th. The gap becomes even wider for the Human Development Index (HDI), with Korea and Cambodia being ranked at 12th and 125th, respectively. The differences are attributed to combinations of Cambodia’s various political/economic/social factors rather than women’s low political participation. For example, Cambodia’s literacy rate is 85% for men and 70% for women, as compared to Korea’s literacy rate of 99% (World Bank). Also, only about 5% of Cambodian population completes higher education while 80% of Korean population does so. In addition, in the CPI (corruption perceptions index) which is a major indicator of the level of government integrity, Korea ranked 39th and Cambodia 154th among 178 countries of the world. Concluding from the various international indicators, we learn that the level of education for Cambodian women lags far behind and that a lot of works along with political democratization need to be accomplished to raise the status of women in Cambodia.

According to Cambodia’s Framework Plan for Women’s Policy (Neary Rattanak III, 2009-2013), the government aims to increase women’s political representation up to 40% by 2015. In the recently held elections for Commune Councils, women took up 14% of the elected council
members. Also, the Cambodian Ministry of Women’s Affairs recently launched a program on “Capacity Strengthening of Female Leaders at Capital/Provincial and Municipality/District/Khan Levels” and has been encouraging companies, national training institutions and NGOs to take part in the program to build capacity of women leaders in local governments (MoWA 2012, 10).

For this research, a number of seminars and workshops have been held since 2011 in partnership with Cambodian MoWA for Cambodian women’s political/economic empowerment and human rights promotion. Civil servants and experts were invited to take part in surveys and in-depth interviews designed to analyze the current status of Cambodia. The results indicate that the biggest obstacles to women’s political participation include the deep-rooted paternalistic culture, non-democracy due to its authoritarian political system and widespread bribery during elections. However, these are more fundamental problems of Cambodian politics that require institutional reforms to be addressed, and thus cannot be discussed easily under the theme of women’s political participation. Therefore, as an alternative way to approach this issue, we looked at the current status of political training programs for women offered by MoWA and various women’s organizations such as MoWA, and realized that what Cambodian women really need under the existing political culture are the change of their own mindset, capacity building through various programs, and training to restore their self-confidence.

It was also found that Cambodian MoWA was already running a capacity-strengthening workshop program for women, and that it hopes to hold as many workshops as possible in partnership with other institutions including KWDI. Therefore, this research report first looks at the existing capacity building programs of Cambodia and attempts to make a few policy suggestion based on Korea’s experience.

2) Cambodian Government (MoWA)’s program for women’s political empowerment

Cambodian Ministry of Women’s Affairs has two main capacity building programs with women politicians at commune level:

(a) Female Candidate Capacity Building

: Support the preparation of female candidates for the commune/sangkat council elections nation-wide. This primarily includes training of women candidates, staff and members of main political parties. The training includes: Public Speaking skills, capacity to answer questions "on
their feet”, advocacy skills especially to ensure the placement of their names high on the party lists, organization of support groups, campaign organizing and marshaling of volunteer helpers and assessment of the need of the community in general as well as the needs of women and children. This programme could be taken place only one or two months before election as well as after the political party submit the list of candidate to the national election committee.

(b) Strengthen the Capacity of Female Commune Councilors and Women and Children Focal Points (WCFP) for Effective Work and Performance at the Commune level

The objective of this activity is to build the capacity of and empower the currently elected female commune councilors and WCFPs in order that they could perform their tasks, address their needs, deliver their voices and finally make intervention in a more effective and efficient manner to promote the situation of women at the commune level.

The themes of program include: Concept and skills to organize and facilitate in the forum/training with female commune councilors and WCFP. Concept and skills to empower female commune councilors and WCFPs to participate in local governance and better perform their tasks as women’s representative. This include the skills for advocacy and communication, negotiation, conflict resolution, understanding commune plans in a practical manner, leadership skill, concepts/issue-based understanding, networking and mobilizing of support groups, campaign organizing, assessing community needs in general as well as the needs of women and children.

The program has been designed into several steps/activities:

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| 1    | TOT training to Provincial Department of Women’s Affairs (PDWA) and District Office of Women’s Affairs (DOWA) on below topics: (5 days training)  
1-Forum  
2-Process of Forum Discussion  
3-Facilitators’ Skill  
4- Skills for CWCFPs and Female Councilors |
| 2    | Forum Demonstration for the forum facilitators (One day forum) |
| 3    | Organize district forum with female commune councilors and WCFPs (1-2 days per each forum) |
| 4    | Advocacy and other necessary meetings/activities with stakeholders (if needs) |
| 5    | Reflection Meeting: Every year |
In order to implement this program effectively, we also hire the training organization to provide technical support based on the real needs of each provincial. For example, in step 1 the organization works with MOWA to conduct TOT training, in step 2 the organization supports to PDWA to organize demonstration forums and to observe some forums which organize by district staff.

b. Indonesia

1) Current Status of Indonesian Women’s Political Participation

The participation rate of Indonesian women in the National Assembly stands at around 18%, higher than Korea’s rate of 15%. However, in terms of the Gender Empowerment Measure (GEM) released by UNDP, Korea and Indonesia rank 61st and 96th, respectively. As for the Gender-related Development Index (GDI), Korea ranks 26th and Indonesia 93rd. And similarly, in the Human Development Index (HDI), Korea and Indonesia were ranked at the 12th and 108th place, respectively.

Women’s economic participation rate in both countries stood at the similar level of 50%. Also, according to the World Bank, the two nations have a relatively high literacy rate. Korea has a literacy rate of 99%, and the rate for Indonesian males and females are 95% and 89%, respectively. However, a big gap is observed in terms of the percentage of women that have completed higher education: 80% for Korea and around 20% for Indonesia. Another big difference is seen in the government CPI (Corruption Perceptions Index). Korea ranked 39th and Indonesia 110th, indicating an urgent need for government reforms.

According to the in-depth interviews regarding Indonesia’s political environment, nepotism and bribery are widespread, and there exists a certain privileged class of society, so women who belong to that class can enter politics in a relatively easy manner if they wish (refer to Chapter 3). Therefore, it has to be studied in detail whether women serving as lawmakers or working in government decision-making bodies do accurately reflect the needs of the general female population. And even against this backdrop, the percentage of women’s political participation—18% in the National Assembly, 26% in the Senate (regional representatives), 14% in local councils—and the fact that a total of 4 women ministers serve in the Cabinet (data from Indonesian MoWECP) do not look like enough.

From an early stage, the Indonesian government has made efforts to implement gender
mainstreaming policies, Such great interests are also reflected in the organizational structure of Indonesian MoWECP, with 'gender mainstreaming' used as a main keyword. However, many difficulties exist for female politicians to raise their voice in the political realm due to the deep-rooted paternalistic culture. One positive aspect of Indonesian politics is that the nation’s electoral law and political party law specify that 30% of female candidates is to be included in the candidates list. This means that Indonesia has an institutional base to expand women’s political participation although the clause is not compulsory and the parties get around the clause by placing female candidates on a low priority list. Furthermore, it was found that Indonesia’s voters show a tendency to consider the name recognition of the political parties or candidates to be more important than their gender. Therefore, this research suggests developing a program to actively promote the role of women leaders within their political parties, enabling them to raise their voice.

Indonesian MoWECP was running a training program for female candidates for the National Assembly and, in the workshop held in partnership with this research, the ministry suggested the need for political capacity building workshops for women in different regions. Next, this report looks at the existing political training programs in Indonesia and attempts to make a few policy suggestion based on Korea’s experience.

2) Indonesian Government (MoWECP)’s program for women’s political empowerment

Indonesian Ministry of Women’s Empowerment and Child Protection facilitates Legislative Women’s Representation Enhancement Program. Capacity Building programs (CBP) for women’s political empowerment were launched in 2008 and conducted annually within 2 days,

(a) Capacity Building Program for Legislative Women Candidates

The first is capacity building program for Legislative Women Candidates in two provinces, Jakarta and West Java with the aim of providing information and debriefing for women parliament members who are running for legislative election in 2009. Training on gender mainstreaming and campaign strategy was conducted by Deputy for the Promotion of Women’s Living Standard. Each capacity building program held in DKI Jakarta and West Java was respectively attended by approximately 50 people (roughly 100 participants in total for both provinces).

(b) Strengthening Institutional Networking for Gender and Child’s Rights Mainstreaming

The Second is Strengthening Institutional Networking for Gender and Child’s Rights
Mainstreaming, MoWECP also organized capacity building for Civil Society through the socialization
of the so called ‘Law on Political Package’ in effort to this program in 33 provinces. The training
was provided for members of Regional Indonesian Women Politics Caucus (RIWPC) and for the
Organization of Women and Politics (OWP) with materials of the Package of Political Laws, It was
conduct by Deputy for the Promotion of Civil Society. This program invited respectively 100
participants as representatives of RIWPC and OWP. Thus in total the program encompassed 3000
women.

Regarding the time when this program was held, it aims at prospective legislative members to
better equip them as politicians so as to gain more votes on the 2009 election, hence it was done
before the 2009 election itself.

These programs are not yet evaluated, but there were 6% increase in the 2009 election, from
12% in 2004 to 18% in 2009, on the number of elected women parliament member.

2. Korea’s Experience of Implementing Political Education Programs
   for Women

Korea’s political education programs for women can largely be divided into two types based on
the nature of the training entity: those provided by government institutions such as the central
government and local governments, and political parties, and those provided by women’s
organizations. It may be fairly said that Korea’s history of political education for women began
from women’s organizations. When no budget for women’s political education was available before
the enactment of the Framework Act on Women’s Development in 1995, women’s organizations
were the only training entity in the early days. And they have been the main provider of political
education up until now.

In terms of content, Korea’s political education programs for women can be grouped into three
categories. The first is education on democratic citizenship offered to both men and women. It is
designed to raise awareness of rights and foster qualities of a good democratic citizen to ultimately
achieve gender equality in society. The second encompasses education aimed at encouraging
political participation of women as voters and capacity building training for potential women
political leaders, e.g. educational programs to nurture next generation women leaders or

1) Korea’s experiences are taken from “Capacity Building Projects to Increase Women’s Political Participation”
   (Director Kim Eun-ju, Center for Korean Women & Politics).
parliamentary internship training. The third focuses on training female political candidates who want to take up politics as a profession. The training programs may cover specialized knowledge and know-hows related to election such as image-making, election campaign strategies and how to win nomination, as well as how to build a network.

There are various modalities of education such as lecture-based training, seminar, panel discussion, public hearing, camp, role playing, internship and monitoring activities. Though the appropriate modality can be selected depending on the content, one common characteristic across all modalities is that they encourage the trainees to actively participate in the coursework. It has been found that while lecture-based training and seminars are effective in delivering information and knowledge, various forms of participation-based training such as panel discussions, role playing, internship and taking part in activities are more desirable to bring changes in the mindset of trainees.

a. Programs at the Central Government Level

Korea’s political education programs for women provided by government institutions (central and local) began to be visible in 1995 with the enactment of the Framework Act on Women’s Development which stipulated that expanding support for women’s political participation should be part of the government’s responsibility. However, in reality, it was in 1998 when the Women’s Development Fund was created that projects designed to expand women’s political participation were reflected in the government budget.

The first government-funded political education project for women was called “21 century Women Leaders Education Project.” Under this project, various groups related to women’s politics such as Center for Korean Women & Politics, Korean League of Women Voters, Korean Institute for Women & Politics and Korea Women’s Political Caucus formed a network and worked together on developing learning materials and implementing education programs (MPAII, 1999).

Projects aimed at expanding women’s political participation were implemented in three major directions: 1) improving Laws Pertaining to Politics to encourage women’s political participation 2) changing voters’ mindset on the need for women’s political participation and 3) nurturing female political leaders (MoGE, 2002:245). Government-led training programs usually deal with 2) and 3)

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2) Chapter 3, Article 15(Decision-making Processes and Political Participation), Paragraph 2 of the Framework Act on Women’s Development in 1995 stipulates that the nation and local governments should make efforts to support the expansion of women’s political participation through various ways.
among these. However, it was difficult for the government to play a leading role in implementing projects related to political education for women and amending Laws Pertaining to Politics due to their nature. So these projects, in effect, were implemented based on the partnership with private groups such as women’s organizations or academic institutions. Under this system, the budget was supported by the government while the project implementation was done by women’s organizations or private groups. However, controversies continued over whether the government that is supposed to be politically neutral should drive projects aimed at expanding women’s political participation, and these central government-led projects were stopped in 2006.

1) Education on Democratic Citizenship: Raising Awareness about Gender Equality for both Men and Women

Ministry of Gender Equality established the Gender Equality Education Center in November 2002 with the budget acquired through the Women’s Development Fund. The center is now operated as the Korean Institute for Gender Equality Promotion and Education (KIGEPE), a non-profit foundation as defined by the civil law.

KIGEPE aims to implement and support gender equality education systematically in order to improve gender discriminatory mindset and practices in Korean society and to build a healthy social foundation upon which individuals can develop their talents and capabilities regardless of their gender. Education is provided to not only civil servants who are in charge of planning and implementing gender equality policies but also members of government committees, women’s organizations, soldiers, policemen, teachers, members of national/local assembly, employees of government-affiliated organizations and public firms, schools, political parties and the press. The projects implemented by KIGEPE deal with gender sensitive policies, gender impact assessment, women’s leadership, professional human resources development and gender equality promotion.

Programs related to gender sensitive policies and gender impact assessment are usually provided to civil servants, while women’s leadership programs are divided into three subcategories: public policy leadership, civic leadership, and manager leadership. The civic leadership program is designed to develop leadership competencies of female civic leaders and contribute to community development by instilling a gender-sensitive perspective and offering leadership training. The professional HRD program is aimed at educating professional trainers who will give gender equality education, sexual harassment prevention education, sex trafficking prevention education, and sexual violence prevention education,
The gender equality promotional projects are designed to offer and distribute customized gender equality education programs according to the human life cycle, especially focusing on those in the blind spots of gender equality and the socially marginalized. Education is provided to infants and children, elementary/middle/high school students, college students, adults, office workers, the elderly, and students of senior colleges. These projects are based on the public-private partnership as the project management consultants (PMC) are usually selected through an open tender.

2) Education for Women Voters: Fostering Next Generation Women Leaders

Educational projects to nurture next generation women leaders began in earnest in 2000. Leadership training was provided not only to female adults but also to female college students who are the next generation women leaders, under the recognition that nurturing potential women leaders in various fields is important to expand women’s political participation. By training female college students on strengthening political awareness, network-building with women leaders and women leadership, these projects were aimed at fostering these women as the next generation women leaders, to ultimately achieve the development of democracy and a more gender-equal society through increasing women’s representation and ensuring equal participation in politics. More specifically, the projects include the 2030 Women Leadership Camp, internship programs in National Assembly and Local Assembly, women’s college of politics and overseas training programs.

However, it was continuously pointed out that projects related to nurturing politicians such as the aforementioned would face problems if they continued to be implemented by the administration which is supposed to keep political neutrality. Amidst such atmosphere, those projects were discontinued after 2005 when the 2004 amendment of the Political Funds Law enabled political parties to utilize the women’s political development fund for discovering female political candidates and fostering female politicians.

3) Education for Women Political Candidates: College of Politics for Women

In 2005, the Ministry of Gender Equality started running the College of Women and Politics by integrating all the existing programs. The training targeted potential female politicians such as the candidates in local councils, and the contents covered the topics directly related to election such as the election system, local politics, local assembly system, election camp, strategies to utilize
volunteers, ways to develop election pledges and speech skills. A total of 473 women from 15 metropolitan cities and provinces (excluding Seoul) participated in the college programs in 2005, and most of these local governments outsourced the college training projects to local universities, research institutes and women’s organizations.

The Ministry of Gender Equality standardized some part of these training programs by producing and distributing a training manual for the College of Women and Politics. Based on the manual, local governments developed their curriculum, taking into consideration different local circumstances. The manual largely consists of three parts with a total of 40 hours of learning (Ministry of Gender Equality, 2005: 4-6). The first part is ‘History of the Municipality’, the second ‘Women’s Political Participation and Leadership’ and the third one is ‘Ways to Establish and Use Election Strategies’. The third part contains useful information for aspiring women politicians on different ways to publicize themselves by presenting various real case studies.

b. Capacity Building Programs at the Political Party Level

The interests in political education programs for women at the political party level increased with the amendment of the Political Funds Law in March 2004, which allocated 10% of the government subsidies to political parties to be used for women’s political development.3)

1) Saenuri Party

The Grand National Party, which was the former name of the current Saenuri Party, set up an educational institution to systematically discover and nurture female politicians called ‘Grand National Party Women Power Network’ in 2005, and implemented a training program designed to develop core competencies for women to prepare for the 2006 local elections. The trainees included female party members as well as ordinary women, and the program consisted of lectures on basic understanding of politics, visits to the National Assembly and workshops. In terms of the teaching method, they moved away from the traditional one-way lecture form to include a mock election (practicing debates, preparing speech scripts, image-making), individual political leadership training and team studies, incorporating a grading system similar to that of a graduate school based on performance.

3) Article 19 Paragraph 2 of the Political Funds Law says 10/100 of government subsidies must be used for women’s political development. Article 20 Paragraph 2 stipulates that, in case of using the allocated subsidies for other purposes, the party will be required to pay back double the amount it used.
The Saenuri Party also has a special program once a year to train female congressional aides targeting the generation of young women. Introduced in 2007, this program provides female college students, college graduates, and graduate school students with professional training necessary to work as congressional aides as well as internship opportunities in the offices of lawmakers.

2) Democratic United Party

The Democratic United Party has been providing education for aspiring female politicians as well as ordinary women since 1997 with the setup of Democratic Women Politics Academy. However, it has not been very active in implementing programs. Although the academy ran their women/youths/retirees leadership training camps targeting female candidates in local councils and youths who are not party members or candidates, most of their training was focused on the party members at the city/provincial party level. Due to difficulties in recruiting trainees and the low ratio of trainees who later become members, their programs were often criticized for being wasteful (Choi).

In 2010, the academy offered Intensive Training Program for Women Candidates of the 2010 Local Elections under which information on different nomination systems by city/province, election campaigns, amended electoral law, election strategy consulting, image-making and speech skills were provided in preparation for the 2010 local elections.

The party not only made efforts to nurture female politicians but also served to act as a propellant to increase women’s power within political parties by actively supporting the introduction of the compulsory nomination of female candidates, and actually requiring 15% nomination of female candidates in the local constituencies for the 2012 national assembly elections.

3. Implications from Korea’s Experiences & Tailored Policy Suggestions

For women to increase their political representation, they first need to go through the party’s nomination process and win the nomination to run for election. However, in Cambodia and Indonesia, as well as in Korea, it is very difficult for women to be nominated. This is because the number of women aspiring to enter politics is already very small, and given the political
environment is dominated by faction politics revolving around certain political leaders, the parties are less likely to nominate women who do not have much stake and have less chance of being elected.

\textbf{a. Implications from Korea’s Experiences}

Korea was able to increase women’s political representation in two defining processes: first is the adoption of the 50% female nomination in proportional representation system, and second is the process that women’s organizations convinced political parties to adopt that system through their cooperative efforts. To put it briefly, the two processes are the launch of the new system and the efforts made by women’s organizations to realize their goal of introducing that system. However, it would not be fair to say that these two steps alone contributed to the increase of women’s political representation. On one hand, the existing campaigns on women’s political empowerment carried out by women’s organizations became more dynamic. And on the other hand, such efforts on the part of women’s groups were supported by a flurry of research activities to expand women’s political representation. Therefore, it is necessary to look at further details of Korea’s experience of developing women’s policies before making policy suggestions.

First of all, the adoption of female nomination quota system by Korea’s political parties was possible thanks to the efforts of women’s movement groups in Korea and of female lawmakers within political parties. Women’s movement groups took up the strategy of pressuring parties to increase women’s political participation, while female lawmakers tried to convince fellow lawmakers within their parties to accept the demands of the groups. Political parties paid sharp attention to the actual percentage of female nominees when their presidential candidates announced pledges regarding gender policies, and tried to meet the quota when nominating female candidates in the proportional representation system for the general election and local elections. They made such efforts because they were afraid of harsh and open criticisms made by women’s organizations through such means as a press conference and the subsequent adverse impact on the votes of women, if they failed to meet to the demands of women’s groups.

In the midst of the presidential election campaign, women’s organizations targeted their demand for the female nomination quota system at the presidential candidates. They held a number of formal debates on women’s policies promised by the presidential candidates, and presented a comparison table of election pledges by different candidates to the public, spurring competition
among political parties.

Back in 1992, the candidates of the 14th presidential election made rather abstract pledges to support the expansion of political participation of women and to "introduce the female nomination quota system" (Kim Won-hong, Kim Hye-young, Kim Eun-kyeong 2002, 29). As years went by, however, the ratio of female nomination promised by presidential candidates gradually increased with each presidential election. In the 16th presidential election of 2002, there were a campaign pledge of "compulsory 30% female nomination in both national constituency and district constituencies," and another pledge by Lee Hoi-chang of the Grand National Party to adopt "a recommendation clause that 30% of proportional representatives seats should be allocated to women for the next general election and 70% for local councils, combined with quotas" (Kim Eun-kyeong 2005, 145-155). The background as to why these candidates presented the percentage of the female nomination quota as an important part of their election pledges is that the campaigns carried out by the alliance of women’s organizations targeted top policy-making figures such as political party representatives and presidential candidates. Meanwhile, for the female nomination quota within a political party to be finally set at 50%, the women alliance’s all-out efforts combined with the simultaneous process of female lawmakers persuading the leading members of their parties were crucial.

In addition to the women’s movement, female lawmakers’ role within their political parties contributed greatly to spurring the pledge competition between different parties. These women lawmakers worked diligently to introduce the quota system by serving as a female representative in the nomination review committee or by taking charge of the women’s committee in their party to help exchange useful information.

The political empowerment movement by women’s groups can largely be divided into four types: development and suggestions of policy agendas, discovery of and support for female candidates, activities in parliamentary politics and evaluation of women’s policies, political training for women. In the early days of the Korean women’s movement, each organization used to carry out its own activities for its members or its affiliated organizations. These days, however, more and more alliance-based activities are observed. Sometimes, the whole women’s movement circle joins effort to carry out activities in an organized approach and, at other times, a few groups form a smaller alliance to take up a more efficient way of campaigning.

Unlike the activities aimed at promoting women’s rights that were carried out by individual organizations in various fields, those related to increasing women’s political participation, especially
focusing on the nomination quota system, were driven by the concerted effort of an alliance of about 300 women’s organizations.

The third point is regarding the need for more research activities by research institutes. The Korean Women’s Development Institute or KWDI was established in 1983 as a research institute specializing in women’s issues. It carries out various research activities in the area of women’s policy and cooperates with the government, the National Assembly and other women’s organizations with an aim to translate the research findings into policies. The public interests in women’s political participation increased with Korea’s democratization and the subsequent revival of the system of local autonomy in 1991. In 1988, KWDI began its policy research activities on the subject of women’s political participation by hosting forums under the themes of ‘women and local autonomy’ and ‘how women can participate in local assembly.’ In addition, recognizing an urgent need to establish the validity of the quota system, KWDI hosted a ‘public hearing on the amendment of laws pertaining to politics with an aim to increase women’s political participation’ with the support of the Ministry of Gender Equality (November 2011) by inviting leading figures of political parties, women’s movement groups and academic circles, leading to the actual amendment to the Political Parties Act in 2002.

KWDI has actively conducted research in a number of important subjects including: ‘Reform of the election structure and measures to secure women’s political representation’ (1998); ‘Measures to increase female members in political parties’ (2000); ‘Research on how to increase female nomination of political parties’ (2003); ‘Processes of 17th general election related to female candidates and future tasks’ (2004); and ‘Research on the 17th general election and comparison of political awareness and voting behaviors of male and female voters’ (2004). KWDI studies the election system not only for participating in the National Assembly but also for participating in local assemblies. It tracks the voting behaviors of both men and women for each election and releases the research findings on how the institutional changes affect women’s representation. Furthermore, it conducts research on the activities of female lawmakers and local assembly members to find out how increased female representation affects the National Assembly and local assemblies, as well as the number of gender sensitive bill proposals. Such research outcomes support the argument that more women need to participate in politics, contributing greatly to changing the mindset of not only party leaders but also the whole academic circles regarding women’s political participation.

Lastly, while the Ministry of Gender Equality continued to maintain a neutral position towards
political parties on the political issue of the quota system, it played an indirect support role in women’s political empowerment in 1998 (when the Special Committee on Women’s Affairs was active) by financing training projects aimed at improving voters’ mindset and projects designed to increase women’s political participation.

b. Tailored Policy Suggestions – General/Common

In South Korea, based upon three rounds of amendment to the Political Party Act (30% quota for national and local in 2000; 30% quota for national and 50% for local in 2002; 50% quota for national and local in 2004), currently 50% of proportional representative seats should be allocated to women and 30% of district constituencies are recommended to be allotted for women in each level of the assembly. In the 17th general election held right after the adoption of the 50% quota system, the percentage of female seats in the National Assembly rose greatly in a proportional representation system. However, the proportion of proportional representative seats is quite small, imposing limits on the increase of female lawmakers in a proportional representation system. This means that it is impossible to rely on proportional representation to further expand women’s political participation, and it is also not easy for women to be elected in the district constituencies.

The quota system certainly had a great impact on the expansion of women’s political participation in Korea. One important process to note is that women’s movement groups engaged in direct lobbying activities with political parties, making a great contribution in the policy-making process of adopting the quota system.

As mentioned earlier, the biggest obstacle to women’s political participation in Cambodia and Indonesia was party’s nomination. This also means that the biggest defining factor that can increase women’s political participation is winning of the party’s nomination (Lee Hyeon-woo 2002). And how the electoral system is combined with the representation system is also closely linked with women’s political participation. Generally, women are seen to participate more actively in politics in countries that use the multi-member district system (rather than the first-past-the-post voting system) and the proportional representation system (rather than the majority representation system). Such observation is also supported by theory. Assuming all other conditions are the same, it has been found that party-list proportional representation systems provide the most favorable condition for women to enter politics (Kim Won-hong, Kim Eun-kyeong, 1998, 2004). Therefore, it can be said that Cambodia and Indonesia that use the proportional representation already have
a more favorable political environment than other nations using the first-past-the-post voting system. However, to what extent these nations can ensure transparency in their election processes and decision-making processes within their political parties is an important question to be addressed. Hence, taking into consideration these possibilities and limitations, this research report offers the following policy suggestions.

1) Establishing Laws Pertaining To Politics and Institutional Measures

The first suggestion is to introduce the female nomination quota system in political parties and enhancing the system's effectiveness. Currently, the quota system is stated quite ambiguously. It has to be clearly specified in the party constitution and regulations, and the exact ratio and method should also be stipulated. In addition, the government may introduce a system to provide subsidies to political parties as an incentive if they nominate a certain percentage of women.

The political parties of Cambodia and Indonesia have a very male-oriented structure. For example, the Cambodian government currently working for a goal to achieve the 40% female quota system by 2015 as part of its effort to strengthen women's political competencies, but the laws pertaining to the policy is very unclear. The current local assembly election law of Cambodia contains a clause that says, "Women candidates should be included in the party's candidate list in an appropriate order," which can be misinterpreted and lacks legally binding force. In the case of Indonesia, the law does state '30% of female candidates' but fails to define priorities, leaving significant room for the party's own interpretation.

This suggestion is based on Korea's subsidy system for female candidate nomination. Given that individual candidates are required to cover most of the campaign expenses in both Cambodia and Indonesia, such a subsidy system may have a positive impact on increasing the nomination of female candidates to a certain extent.

The second suggestion is to introduce a political development fund for women. In both countries, the Ministry of Women (Indonesian MoWEC, Cambodian MoWA) and many women's organizations in charge of implementing training programs related to women's political representation are currently relying on international aid due to lack of financial resources. Because of such limitation, the quality of their training programs differ depending on the size of the foreign aid. In addition, the fact that the nation does not have funds to utilize on a regular basis means that the government may have to cooperate with the organization which has acquired the financial
resources from overseas. In other words, the government may not be in a dominant position to operate training programs according to its long-term plan. Though the current situation may continue for a while, it is necessary for the government to create a fund through long-term preparations, keeping in mind the recent international trend emphasizes the need for developing countries to raise a sense of ownership.

Korea started with a fund of 5 billion won contributed by the government in 1997. The size of the fund increased greatly to 56 billion won in 2003. The three major sources of the fund are the government, private sector and interest income. Projects financed by the women’s development fund are operated on a continuous basis, and the fund seems to play the role of the seed money for revitalizing various projects implemented by women’s organizations, The legal basis for the women’s development fund is Article 30 of the Framework Act on Women’s Development, and the fund shall be used for the following purposes: 1) Support of the projects for increasing women’s rights and interests; 2) Support of the projects of women’s association; 3) Establishment of facilities related to women and support for its operation; 4) Support of the projects of women’s international cooperation; and 5) Support of other projects as prescribed by the Presidential Decree for the realization of equality between male and female, women’s development and family supports, etc. (Kim Eun-ju, 2004: 13).

Korea secured enough financial resources to implement political training projects for women by creating and operating the women’s development fund at the central government and local government level. The fund enabled full implementation of various political training projects for women at the government level, and Korea’s Ministry of Gender Equality and Family secured budget to establish and operate KIGEPE from the women’s development fund in 2002. Cambodia and Indonesia may also consider creating a fund using the government budget and contribution from multilateral and bilateral agencies, or at the Ministry of Women (Indonesian MoWECP, Cambodian MoWA) level, establishing a fund for women’s development contributed by companies, organizations and the general public.

2) Full Commitment and Cooperation of Political Training Entities

First, create a network of female lawmakers with the Ministry of Women (Indonesian MoWECP, Cambodian MoWA) playing a central role. At present, Indonesian MoWECP and Cambodian MoWA are implementing political training programs for female candidates and elected women on their
own or by cooperating with women’s organizations, For now, it seems the Ministry itself in both countries plays the most active role in political training for women. It is suggested that the Ministry runs a network or a committee program of inviting female lawmakers to a single platform for discussion on a regular basis. The Ministry can share their prospective policies, ask for the advice of female lawmakers in the assemblies, and promote mutual understanding in order to bring about changes in their mindset and strengthen their competencies as true women leaders.

Secondly, women leaders within political parties need to show their firm commitment and willingness to act. Unfortunately, specific training programs for women provided by political parties of both countries have not been fully analyzed yet. However, based on the results of the in-depth interview with local experts, it seems that many of the programs are perfunctory. This is where female members of the political parties and women leaders can play a role. As indicated by the UN-designated “critical mass” of 30% female representation, only a small number of female politicians cannot represent the interest if the female population, A certain number of women are required to properly reflect and work towards the interests and the needs of women and to empower women’s groups, This is why a non-partisan partnership is usually formed on the women-related issues in any country. Such a non-partisan network between female lawmakers is necessary, And the network should be established and managed by the Ministry of Women,

Third, women’s organizations and the Ministry of Women (Indonesian MoWECP, Cambodian MoWA) should establish a governance mechanism. The governance mechanism connecting women’s organizations with the government is an essential element. However, it seems that no such governance with women’s groups exists, and the alliance activities among women’s organizations are not active in Cambodia and Indonesia although Cambodia has a network of women’s groups called “CPCW” and Indonesia has “KPI.” One reason for such low activity of NGOs may be the authoritarian political system. Also, given that NGOs of developing nations need to apply for a fund from donor institutions and carefully manage financial resources, they may face some practical difficulties in freely engaging in alliance activities with other women’s organizations unlike in Korea.

Despite the ideological gap between conservatives and progressives, Korea experienced no problems with regards to the economic interests surrounding the alliance activities. Taking these practical factors into consideration, the Ministry of Women (Indonesian MoWECP, Cambodian MoWA) should work hard to ensure maximum level of fairness and transparency when outsourcing the training programs to suitable institutions, And, if possible, it should encourage the
formation of consortium of women’s organizations so that as many organizations as possible can express a concerted voice in the area of women’s political representation.

The fourth suggestion is to introduce civic education programs and voters’ training programs in order to improve the mindset of the general public regarding women’s political participation and to promote increased political participation of women. The method of delivering the training program—whether to establish a special training institute or to appoint the Ministry of Women to take charge of implanting the program—can be determined depending on the country’s circumstances.

The biggest obstacle experienced by Cambodia to raising women’s political representation is the socio-cultural atmosphere that does not respect women’s contribution to and value in politics. At present, civic groups and media are trying very hard to improve such negative atmosphere but the government should also play an active role in this, SILAKA or WFP that are members of CPWP are currently implementing various programs related to civic education and voters’ education. However, the government is more focused on the projects targeting female candidates and female lawmakers rather than voters. The Cambodian government would do better to offer civic education in a systematic manner and to expand the voters’ training (including both men and women) with a long-term vision to reduce negative perception toward female politicians and to increase women’s political participation in the future.

It was also hard to see political training programs for women provided to general voters in Indonesia. Introduction of civic education programs and voters’ training programs seems to be necessary to change the mindset of the public influenced by Indonesia’s culture, tradition and religion. The training programs need to be systematic, continuous and provided to both men and women. The findings from the in-depth interviews indicate that some Indonesians are not even aware of gender difference in the public domain.

Along with the provision of those training programs, the two countries need to nurture professional trainers of civic education and voters’ education to make sure the programs are implemented in a sustainable and systematic manner. Fostering these professionals may be done in partnership with civic groups, and will lay the groundwork for those training programs to be operated and even be expanded in a systematic, continuous and consistent way.

It would also be very helpful to change negative perception of the public towards women’s political participation and female politicians if the government encourages or provides policy support for elementary/middle/high schools to implement training programs on voters’ rights and
responsibilities based on democratic citizenship and gender equality. In addition, a monitoring system to assess the effectiveness of the implemented training programs would be necessary.

3) Establishing New Research Institute Specialized in the Study of Women’s Political Participation and Voters Survey

Although it would be ideal to establish a government-affiliated research institute such as KWDI, if the government does not have the necessary financial resources or cannot allow a long time to set up such an institute, an alternative option could be to establish an incorporated body with some female politicians who have great interests in women’s issues and start with basic research. Apart from KWDI, Korea also has other research institutes run by former/current female lawmakers.

These research institutes have faithfully conducted basic research and investigation with an aim to increase women’s political participation since the early 1990s. They also joined the alliance of women’s organizations to engage in various alliance activities during the general election. However, due to limitations in the size of the organization and financial resources, they conducted research of voters’ behaviors targeting only the area of Seoul or published a research report on the local election held in Seoul. Twenty years have passed since then, and these research institutes are expanding the scope of their research by moving beyond the topic of women’s political representation and taking the lead in creating a more gender-sensitive local government at different district levels of Seoul.

By developing a program to disclose political transparency information, these research institutes can conduct research on the nomination criteria of political parties and measures to enhance transparency of the nomination processes, measures to monitor legislative activities in the National Assembly an local assemblies, and strategies to increase the participation rate of women in their political parties. The findings from research will make a great contribution to not only increasing women’s political participation but also hastening the pace of political democratization.
KWDI’s Knowledge Sharing on Women’s Policy in the Asia-Pacific Region: Women’s Economic Empowerment

- Country Case 1 – Cambodia
  Hae Lim Cho, KWDI
- Country Case 2 – Indonesia
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1. Background

a. Cambodia

The rate of participation in economic activities of Cambodian women is over 70 percent, among the highest in Southeast Asia. However, most of the women are involved in informal or non-paid labor sectors. Even if women are working in the same type of occupation as men, they are paid less than men. Moreover, women’s employment is limited to the traditionally female domains, and it is currently difficult for them to approach a new sector due to the low level of education. Recently, young women have been working in textile factories as with Korea in its early stages of industrialization. Further, due to limited employment and the global financial crisis, many women are migrating as foreign workers risking the dangers of human trafficking and labor exploitation. The Cambodian government has initiated numerous programs to strengthen women’s economic competency with the technological cooperation and financial assistance of international aid organizations, and has established the basic legal and governmental systems. However, the conditions for women’s employment and entrepreneurship have much to be improved. More than ever, policies and programs that suit the needs of the current situation are necessary, due to the overall national poverty, poor governance, the lack of implementation and practice of law, and the global economic crisis. More than anything, the strengthening of women’s economic competency will contribute greatly to the reduction of overall poverty in Cambodia.

This chapter thus introduces the current situation, special features and trend for the laws related to employment/entrepreneurship, institutions and proposed systems, as well as tailored programs for women’s employment and entrepreneurship in Cambodia based on the experience of women’s
employment and entrepreneurship development in Korea.

b. Indonesia

In 2011, KWDI’s survey was conducted among women’s policy experts in Indonesia in order to assess demand for women’s policy development. The second highest number of survey respondents think that women’s employment and entrepreneurship is the area where women’s policies has been being implemented the most poorly. (Kim et al., 2011). Of note, there remains a wide gap in the labor market participation between men and women in Indonesia. Also, in an in-depth interview that KWDI carried out in 2012, interviewees pointed out that Indonesian women were given little employment opportunities due to sociocultural factors, education level and social norm, and that working women faced difficulties related to housekeeping and childrearing. In addition, Indonesian women mostly ran small-sized businesses in informal sectors. In the case of women unable to find jobs in Indonesia, they went abroad to work as migrant laborers under unfavorable conditions.

The Indonesian government has been working for women’s empowerment, but interviewees think that institutional frameworks to support women’s economic activities are not sufficiently in place. Therefore, more efforts are needed to develop women’s capacity and provide institutional support for women’s economic activities.

Korean Experience is worth sharing in further developing policies on women’s economic empowerment in Indonesia. In order to promote women’s economic participation during the phase of the nation’s economic development, Korea provided vocational and technical education for women and various supports for women entrepreneurship. Considering that the level of education is one of the key reasons for low employment opportunity among Indonesian women, an effective vocational and technical education policy needs to be in place in order to help women more equipped with job skills so that women can successfully find decent jobs. In noting that 80% of the workforce is engaged in small and medium enterprises in Indonesia, policies and projects to support women’s entrepreneurship in Korea are also worth reviewing.
2. Women’s Economic Participation and Related Policies

a. Cambodia

According to the UNDP’s 2011 Human Development Index, 73.6 percent of Cambodian women are participating in labor, women labor market making up almost half, 49.1 percent to be exact, of the entire labor force. Although the numbers seem to represent gender equality, the wage differences and variations between types of occupation are great. Also, the unemployment rate for women is low, but this appears to be because women are employed in non-paid household labor or informal sectors, 78 percent of working women in Cambodia are employed in the primary industries such as agriculture, forestry and fisheries. Following these industries are wholesale and retail trade (11%) and manufacturing industry (5%) (NIS/MOP General Census of Cambodia 2008 cited in ILO, 2010). The employment rates of women in information communications, administrative services, public administrations and educational fields are much lower compared to men. The wage difference between women and men is on average 23 percent lower for women than men (Godfrey et al., 2001:11 cited in MoEYS and ILO, 2004:26). Such gender inequalities in the same types of occupations and wage differences are due to the low level of education of women compared to men. In 2008, around 53% of Cambodian women did not complete primary education and the percentage of those who completed tertiary education was a mere 1% (ILO, 2010, 10). This seems to be because Cambodians are reluctant to send their daughters to distant schools and also due to the notion that women’s education remains relatively unimportant (Hill and Heng, 2004, 108; MoEYS and ILO, 2004). Furthermore, the traditional notion of ‘appropriate’ occupations for men causes such phenomena. Recently, the clothing, textile and tourism industries in which many women are employed have been hit hard by the global economic crisis, and women who lost their jobs are moving to more dangerous occupations (Royal Government of Cambodia, 2010a). Some of these women are migrating as foreign laborers risking the dangers of human trafficking. After 2004, female foreign laborers started to outnumber their male counterparts, and in 2008, 35.2 percent of the total foreign laborers were housekeepers/maids while 50.2 percent were employed in the manufacturing industry (ILO, 2010, 28). According to the official statistics of Cambodia National Institute of Statistics, the percentage of female entrepreneurs and those engaged in non-paid housework (79%) is much greater than female employees. The survey co-conducted by the Cambodian Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports and ILO indicates that women prefer to be wage employees rather than entrepreneurs, but there is a significant shortage
of available jobs (MoEYS and ILO, 2004). In order to promote jobs and entrepreneurial businesses of women, the Cambodian government is improving the government system, initiating policies and conducting job training programs in cooperation with various international aid organizations.

The basic legal system for equal economic activities of Cambodian women has been instituted. The constitution and labor and land laws guarantee equality between men and women and no discrimination against women, prohibit exploitations of labor, and secure women’s rights of land ownership. Also, Cambodia shows the will to be a society of gender equality under the sanctions of the international treaties CEDAW and the Beijing Declaration. However, UNDP’s Gender Empowerment Measure ranked Cambodia in the 93rd place of 108 nations in 2009, showing that the country has a lot of room for improvement (Kasumi, 2009).

The Cambodian government, in partnership with international aid organizations, has conducted the following projects for the improvement of women’s employment and entrepreneurship.

1) Technical, Vocational Education and Training

Cambodian Ministry of Education, Youth and Sports built a professional capability training stem for the entrepreneurship and employment of Cambodians with the support of the ILO (1992-1999) and ADB National Training Fund (1998-2001). Firstly, in 1996, the National Training Board (NTB) was established. The NTB decided policies on technical vocational training and selected NGOs or private sector enterprises to entrust with the training. The NTB also established a system to collect labor market information and executed national examination as well as standardizing the national qualification examinations. In the 1990s, there were sixteen Provincial Training Centers around the country, in which the benefits were extended to the vulnerable classes, including female household heads. Under this system, the Cambodian government put in the effort to increase vocational trainings based on employment connections and also provided micro-funds.


The Cambodian government established the National Policy for Women in 1996 with the technical support of ADB and also founded the Ministry of Women’s Affairs in 1998. 1) The Ministry

1) During the project, the Cambodian Ministry of Women’s Affairs was called the Ministry of Women’s and Veterans’ Affairs.
of Women’s Affairs is a department to effectuate gender mainstreaming in line government ministries, local governments, public organizations, civic groups, in their mandates, policies and projects. This project focuses on gender equality in the Ministry of Women’s Affairs and six other related ministries and on the promotion of employment for poor women. This program consists of three broad sections. The first section is the strengthening of competency through training of government officials in the Ministry of Women’s Affairs and the six related ministries. The second section is the development of materials and access for the promotion of women employment. The third section is development of policies and networking capabilities. The funding of about $1,000,000 came from ADB’s Poverty Reduction Cooperation Fund and was executed from 2002 to 2004. The project targeted the strengthening of the economic empowerment of women in rural areas, particularly poor widows, single parents, workingwomen and migrant workers.


Women’s Development Centers (WDCs) are one-stop centers that provide vocational training, advocacy for women’s rights and support for starting up businesses for the strengthening of women’s socioeconomic status. The project was executed from 2006 to 2010 by the Cambodian Ministry of Women’s Affairs with support from ADB and Japan Fund for Poverty Reduction (JFPR). The overall objective of the project was to reduce poverty through expanding the women’s socioeconomic strengthening services, and it had the following particular objectives: One, supporting poor women through vocational training and advocacy support; two, supporting and developing micro- and small entrepreneurship by providing information, credit and enabling links to various organizations and resources; and three, building the capacity of institutions that promote female-friendly entrepreneurial environment. To achieve these goals, two regions, Siem Reap and Kampong Chhnang, were chosen. A Women’s Development Center was newly constructed in Siem Reap, and the existing center in Kampong Chhnang was renovated. The new Women’s Development Center in Siem Reap included various training, administration and marketing buildings while the Kampong Chhnang Center had renovations in the food processing and marketing buildings. Furthermore, in the centers, various training sessions were instituted, such as education on home safety and sanitation, repairing water pumps, sewing machines and other household appliances, food processing techniques, nutritional information for families and pregnant women, and advocacy of the protection of human rights for workingwomen. In addition, plans
were devised for local specialties and handicrafts from the regions with potential for economic empowerment to advance into markets and to upgrade production techniques. The project formed producer groups consisting of the producers who were individually supplying products from household industries and supported trainings for them to negotiate rationally with market agents and mass orders. Moreover, in order to execute all of these projects, capability strengthening programs for the staff in the Women’s Development Centers were conducted, and government officials in the Ministry of Women’s Affairs were trained in planning, operating and monitoring of the activities of the Women’s Development Centers.


The Cambodian Ministry of Labour and Vocational Training (MOLVT) and Ministry of Women’s Affairs (MoWA) were in charge of this program and the Japanese government supported the project by funding $600,000. The main objective was the strengthening of systematic competency of female labor project sites and the execution of pilot programs in local areas. The project contents included: One, the profiling of informal economy for the strengthening of policies, researching the development of Cambodian policies, and conducting regular meetings with government officials and other related personnel to share the best practices of local level programs; two, for the systematic improvement, workshops for related government officials on project planning and proposal development, trainings in gender mainstreaming and participatory monitoring and evaluation methods, trainings of lecturers to be sent to workshops about rights of woman workers and gender equality, education on participatory methods trainings, and trainings about managing union organizations of small and medium businesses were conducted; three, there were nominal capital programs (credit and savings), gender awareness trainings for local residents and important figures, rights of female workers’ trainings and small enterprise trainings for local activities.

b. Indonesia

1) Indonesian Women’s Economic Participation

Although women’s employment rate and wage level in Indonesia has greatly improved (ILO, 2009), there is still a wide gap in the labor force participation between men (86%) and women
Many Indonesian women work in informal sectors in which employment is unstable (mainly retail and service sectors; ILO statistics) rather than in formal sectors (JICA, 2011).

According to the Indonesia’s national report on implementing the UN Convention on All Forms of Discrimination against Women, the key reasons for women working mostly in informal sectors are due to low education level, limited employment opportunities in the formal sectors and traditional gender stereotype and gender roles (UN, 2011).

Migration is another big issue in discussing women’s economic empowerment in Indonesia. Following the economic crisis in the 1990s, many Indonesian women are migrating to Malaysia and Singapore, etc., due to the limited number of job opportunities in Indonesia and the growth in demand for labor force abroad; however, the women are being exploited and easily exposed to violence (ADB, 2006).

Men and women differ in status in employment. While the most employed men (around 52.5% in 2007) are self-account workers, the most employed women (around 34.4% in 2007) are contributing family workers. However, the number of self-employed women in Indonesia has been on the rise since the 1980s and mostly own small-sized businesses. In Indonesia, the scope of participation is very limited for self-employed women. Most women work in the areas related to women’s traditional gender roles: many women are involved in food & beverage/tobacco manufacturing in the manufacturing sector and trading, accommodation, restaurants in the non-manufacturing sector. This can be attributed to: 1) low education level and limited vocational training opportunities; 2) burden of housekeeping and childrearing (related to the traditional thinking on gender roles); 3) legal, traditional, conventional and cultural hurdles; and 4) difficulty in capital accessibility (Tambunan).

2) Related Policies and Projects

The Women’s Economic Empowerment Division of the Ministry of Women Empower and Child Protection (MoWECP) has set a five-year (2010~2014) plan which aims to: 1) develop policies on gender-sensitive employment and ensure policy coordination; 2) develop gender-sensitive policies related to cooperatives, small-sized businesses and retail businesses, and ensure policy coordination; 3) develop policies related to agricultural, forestry and fisheries businesses, and ensure policy coordination; 4) develop policies related to science technology and economic resources, and ensure policy coordination; 5) develop gender-sensitive infrastructure policies and...
ensure policy coordination (Indonesia MoWECP website). Under the PPEP, policies are being established and implemented led by the MoWECP for the purpose of improving women’s economic productivity. The MoWECP is known to closely cooperate with other ministries such as the Ministry of Manpower and Transmigration and the Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry as well as community women’s organizations to implement policies (KWDI seminar presentation on August 8, 2011, in Jakarta/ Sulikanti Agusni, Assistant Deputy for MoWECP).

The Indonesian government has introduced various policies and projects to support women’s entrepreneurship. In detail, the Ministry of Cooperatives & Small and Medium Enterprises operated the special loan program for women entrepreneurs, such as PERKASSA which financed cash to women-owned SMEs and women’s cooperatives, and the MoWECP also provides financing to women’s cooperatives (UN, 2011). However, according to a 2004 research conducted by SMERU, there are very few programs that provide support for women-owned SMEs, and NGO/government-led projects were found to be more considerate of women compared to financial institutions. Meanwhile, the Indonesia Business Women Association (IWAPI) offers training courses to strengthen the capacity of women entrepreneurs (IWAPI website).

The PNPM project, a community empowerment program which aims to reduce poverty and create more job opportunities, also allows women to actively participate in it (UN, 2011). In early 2007, in order to design gender-sensitive PNPM strategies, gender-sensitive reviews were conducted on government projects to develop communities. Based on the review, suggestions were made on strengthening women’s economic capacity (Decentralization Support Facility Jakarta, 2007). For instance, it was proposed that financing was needed for women but that it needed to be linked with other support measures such as training. Previous financing projects provided support for women who were economically active, making it difficult for women in the lower class to receive financial support. Also, women’s economic activities mostly involved running small-sized businesses which reflect the conventional thinking on gender roles in Indonesia.

Meanwhile, Indonesia’s Ministry of Education operates formal vocational training courses which last 3~4 years at the junior/high school level as well as technical colleges and academies (Jeong, 2007). The Ministry of Manpower and Transmigration operates Balai Latihan Kerja (BLK) which is a technical education and training center that offers vocational training and employment services. However, it seems that the programs do not adequately reflect the changing labor market demand

2) http://menegpp.go.id./V2/index.php/tentangkami/program
3) http://iwapi-pusat.org/statis-6-programkerja.html
and the programs are provided for a fee which is burdensome for individuals who need training. Against this background, women and the marginal class are not able to reap sufficient benefits from such programs. Of note, the participation rate in BLK’s training programs is 65% for men and 35% for women (World Bank, 2011).

Furthermore, Indonesia’s government has operated non-formal education programs for women who were unable to receive formal education. It also operates reading, writing and mathematics classes (elementary and junior high school levels) as well as income generation courses such as sewing and embroidery classes (Prasilowati, 2000). Also, more than 20,000 private training institutes operate more than 100 educational/training programs for adults; of note, classes related to computer, accounting, hotel management, cooking, electronics and apparel/textiles are on the rise. Among the programs, women mostly participate in sewing, secretarial, beautician and apparel/textile training courses while only a small number participate in electronics or auto mechanic classes (UNESCO). As can be seen, vocational training courses in which women participate in are closely related to areas that are traditionally regarded as women’s roles.

3. Korean Experience of Women’s Economic Empowerment

a. Promotion of Women Entrepreneurship Programs

1) Background

In Korea, female enterprises have increased over the past twenty years, the growth rate surpassing the growth rate of male enterprises. They have become a dynamic force in economic growth, creating employment and added value as well as expanding technological innovation. In 2010, the total number of female enterprises in Korea was 1,247,857 making up 37 percent of the total number of enterprises. This rate has continued to grow despite the financial crisis and the recent economic crisis. The expansion of female enterprises was contributed by the improvement of education level of women and structural changes into service industries. Recently, the focus of policies on small and medium businesses has been shifted to suit the changing market environment. Distinctive characteristics of female enterprises are that the indebtedness is lower relative to average enterprises, that they can steadily and stably operate the enterprises and that

they can achieve progress in the organization and management of enterprises and in the area of
technical application. However, female enterprises in Korea are largely focused on categories with
low added values such as hospitality and restaurants, educational services, and wholesales and
retails,

2) Legislations, Institutions and Programs on Women Entrepreneurship
Support

Korea’s ‘Legislation on Women Entrepreneurship Support’ was enacted in 1999. At the time,
legislation for balanced regional development and fostering provincial small and medium
businesses (1994) was already in place. Also, as the Small and Medium Business Administration
(SMBA, 1996) dedicated to small and medium business issues was established, and the importance
of fostering small and medium businesses was being emphasized. This legislation, in order to
promote activities of women enterprises and entrepreneurship, prescribed national and municipal
governments to put in the effort to guarantee equal comprehensive support and business
opportunities in areas such as funds, labor force, information, technology and bureaucracy. It also
allowed the SMBA to request public institutions to correct their practices if they are conducting
unreasonable discriminatory practices against female enterprises.

The Small and Medium Business Administration plays a pivotal role in supporting women
entrepreneurs. In order to promote activities of women entrepreneurs, the SMBA establishes a
master plan for the promotion of women entrepreneurial activities every year and oversees various
works such as survey of the status of women entrepreneurships, The SMBA also executes projects
related to various women entrepreneurships from other departments like the Ministry of Gender
Equality and Family, Ministry of Knowledge and Economy, Patent Office and Public Procurement
Service, The PPS in particular supports first-purchase and procurement of products from women
entrepreneurial for public institutions. Apart from the SMBA, the city of Seoul and other
municipalities propel women entrepreneurship by enacting bylaws about supporting women
entrepreneurships, Furthermore, each ministries has various organizations related to women
entrepreneurships, ensuring entrepreneurship funding, women venture companies, network
establishment and cooperation between women CEOs.

Important projects for women entrepreneurships include the operation of women
entrepreneurship incubating facilities by Women Enterprise Supporting Centers, supporting funds
for women entrepreneurship, entrepreneurship training and holding women entrepreneurship
contests. First of all, there are fourteen Women Enterprise Supporting Centers in operation around the country, providing office space for future women entrepreneurs and new women entrepreneurs with under three years of experience, facility installation costs, communal office equipment and operating expenses, as well as providing professional advising and information from accountants and lawyers. The funding for women entrepreneurship is organized by the SMBA. It only supports low income families with under 2,150,000 won for monthly income and in which a woman is essentially the head of the household. It provides a loan of 30,000,000 won at maximum with a low interest rate at 3 percent. A total of 504 applicants received entrepreneurship funds from 1999 to 2011, and the total amount added up to be about 11,000,000,000 won. Women Enterprise Supporting Centers commissions and conducts courses on women entrepreneurship which center around education on popular entrepreneurship fields of knowledge-based economy. Future women entrepreneurs can take the courses, and the education and professional consulting are provided for free. The number of students has steadily increased since 2009. Lastly, women entrepreneurship contests are also commissioned and conducted by the Women Enterprise Supporting Centers, and they target new entrepreneurs with less than two years of experience since founding of the enterprise in order to discover creative ideas and items.

In Korea, women enterprises have grown at a faster rate than male businesses in the past ten years despite the economic crisis, and they played a significant role in enhancing women employment in times of economic crisis. Additionally, women entrepreneurs not only act as role models for women but also help to eradicate social prejudices about economic activities of women. However, the fact that most of women enterprises are concentrated on traditionally female sectors unlike the objective to promote knowledge-based economy can be indicated as a limit. Therefore, more active plans, such as discovering growth models of women entrepreneurial enterprises and setting specific targets for raising medium-sized women enterprises by department, are needed.

b. Promotion of Vocational Training for Women

Vocational training as a formal institutional education in Korea was implemented after the adaptation of Western modern education system through the Gabo Reforms (Won-ho Lee, 1995). Based on the needs of the times, the government established vocational training schools for medical sciences, agricultural/commerce/manufacturing industries, mining and sericulture industry
and recruited male and female students. Later, vocational training during Japanese colonialism included the First, Second and Third Chosŏn Education Orders and vocational training in this era was very limited. In the post-colonial era, vocational training for women included not only education in domestic sciences but also in agricultural, manufacturing and marine products industry, as the overall curriculum for vocational training high schools was changing. At the time, women who could not enter into vocational training high schools that were official educational institutions were able to build their educational basis including vocational training through unofficial educational institutions such as civic schools, or technical schools that provided technical training necessary for jobs.

In the 1960s, reflecting the trend of industrialization according to the promotion of the Five-year Economic Development Plan, vocational training high schools were primarily fostered in order to satisfy the technical labor force needed in industries under the banner “education contributing to the economic growth,” while policies were enacted to promote higher education for female students. In the 1970s, vocational training reached its peak with establishments of industry-affiliated schools as industrialization accelerated. As the economy moved from growth based on light industries to heavy chemical industries, industrial technology training for labor force was necessary. Reflecting these needs, the Korean government revised the Third Education Curriculum in 1973 which strengthened cooperative education. While growing male technical labor force was produced at industrial high schools, business high schools had more female students who were employed in manufacturing industry, social service industry and white-collar jobs such as tellers and bookkeepers after graduating. The 1980s were a time when, although official education of vocational training was on the decline compared to the 1970s, women specific vocational capacity businesses progressed divided by government-led vocational development projects and private sector vocational capability business.

As the shortage of labor force became more prominent in the 1970s due to the unskilled trades in light industry and manufacturing industry sectors where small and medium businesses had a hard time finding labor, the government and the ruling party in July 1976 announced that factory workers could attend night middle schools. In order to follow the policy companies expanded their welfare facilities, and night classes and industry-affiliated schools were installed. In accordance with Article 103, Paragraph 4 of Industry-affiliated Schools (Special Classes) Education Law, teenagers working in the industry were enabled to attend night classes at a high school near where they worked or attend high schools established by the industry. The law also completely
banned entrance fees and tuitions and collections of other payments and ensured that the legal status of the graduates would not be discriminated from the graduates of regular middle and high schools. At the time, the ratio of female laborers in industries such as textile and shoemaking was high. Thus, the ratio of women registered in industry-affiliated schools was at a high rate of 87.3 percent (Ministry of Education, 1990). It can be evaluated that the system, by sanctioning women to work and study at the same time, acted as a linkage that allowed women to have ongoing careers by offering workers opportunities to go onto colleges and universities.

4. Implications and Tailored Policy Recommendations

   a. Cambodia

   Although it is undeniable that the realization of gender mainstreaming is a fundamental prerequisite for achieving gender equality and more specifically the strengthening of women’s competency, it is necessary to examine the country’s sociocultural characteristics and economic situations, so that policies and projects on promoting female employment and entrepreneurship can naturally develop in accordance with the country’s stages of economic development, as in the case of Korea. In Cambodia’s case, because of the overall social poverty, practical and direct programs for strengthening women’s economic competency should be implemented in conjunction programs to eradicate poverty, along with gender mainstreaming policies.

   1) Women’s Education

   In Cambodia’s case, economic development plan and women’s education should be set as parallel objectives, more tightly integrating the two objectives, Korea’s vocational training and industry-affiliated schools in particular have implications for Cambodian women. This can be applied to Cambodia in the following ways: First, the government can provide an environment in which women can work and get an education at the same time by establishing night classes or schools or night classes at nearby schools, particularly in big size companies, as in Korea. Second, it is also advisable to cultivate overall basic knowledge and competency by combining occupational training, basic literacy education, and formal education in occupation training centers such as Women’s Development Centers, not just in the factories. Corporations can financially
support this program and may select the best students to be recruited in their companies. As there is the precedent of success in attracting women’s attention to practical areas like home appliance repairs by providing education in Women’s Development Centers in areas that previously received limited attention, offering practical training applicable to real life alongside basic education of general knowledge and competency can generate synergic effects.

2) Institutional Support for Women’s Economic Empowerment

Although the Cambodian Ministry of Women’s Affairs is playing a pivotal role in strengthening women’s economic power and the National Training Committee is putting forth policies on national occupational trainings, the establishment of an organization that is exclusively in charge of small and medium business policies like in Korea should be looked into. It should be emphasized that Korea’s Small and Medium Business Administration not only supports small businesses including women but also actively seeks ways in which the government can create markets for products of women enterprises to be sold. Even though training programs for women entrepreneurship seem like they are being actively accomplished in some of the areas, it can be concluded that specific measures like providing space and funds for starting up businesses after the training that can lead to actual entrepreneurship are lacking. Cambodia’s Women’s Development Centers provide various educations for family units in areas like practical occupational training, living safety, nutrition information and labor rights advocacy, but the support they provide that will help for actually starting up businesses seems to be weak. Moreover, entrepreneurship capital is essential to entrepreneurship. Although Cambodia’s Provincial Training Center are providing small sums of capital for new businesses, there is a need for the financial support to be operated more systematically and widely as with Korea’s Small and Medium Business Administration. However, this is primarily an issue of finding sources of funding which is relied upon international aid organizations; thus, it is important to grow the capacity by establishing long-term aid partnerships.

3) Enhancing Women Entrepreneurship

A majority of Cambodian women work, but their labor is mostly in nonpaid labor or informal sectors. Because Cambodia lacks of decent employment for women and almost 80% of women reside in the rural areas, it is of prime importance that Cambodia boosts women entrepreneurship,
In particular, handicraft production relies on cottage industries, and although specific goods are produced over numerous generations, they lack awareness about the value of the goods they produce as well as knowledge about markets, outlets and mass production of goods. It will also be important to make an effort to organize unions of these producers to find their own markets without relying too much on the government, expand the limits of the market, and increase their ability to negotiate. As multilateral aid organizations like ILO and ADB provided support, systemizing support for concrete measures to connect goods with market value with an overall investigation of the producers is necessary. This will be an area where international aid organizations can cooperate. It is also advisable to offer office space for women’s entrepreneurships and to implement movable training courses to present entrepreneurship opportunities for women, particularly women in rural areas.

4) Cooperation with Korea

Lastly, as discussed in Chapter 4, Korea’s Cambodia Aid Project mainly concentrates on building physical facilities and transportation and communication sectors, and thus programs for gender mainstreaming and strengthening women are relatively weak. As requested in the in-depth interviews, it is optimistic that the two countries will be able to share experiences of activities Korean women’s enterprises, occupational training in accounting, management and beauty industry as well as awareness education about the value of women’s jobs and advanced education in science and technology based on Korea’s experiences and development know-hows.

b. Indonesia

This section explores the applicability of Korea’s case related to supporting women’s entrepreneurships and providing employment opportunities.

1) Women’s vocational and technical education

Korean experience of vocational and technical education for women is worth sharing in designing policies to improve Indonesian women’s economic participation, especially in formal sectors. Indonesian women are mostly self-employed or support family businesses rather than working as wage employees, due to lower education level and limited employment opportunities compared to men. Accordingly, Korea’s vocational and technical education programs for women
which helped women to find jobs right after graduating high school can be referred to in
developing policies to expand employment opportunities for women in Indonesia.

Considering Korea’s experience, it is important to promote vocational education system for
women and develop its curriculum which reflects the changing demand of labor market. As in
Indonesia, Korean education system also had vocational senior secondary schools as well as
general secondary schools, Korea’s vocational and technical education programs and policies
evolved depending on the demand of labor which changed according to national development
priorities. This is why Korea’s formal vocation education system enabled women to jump right into
the labor market after graduating from high school.

Also, in order to encourage more Indonesian women to attend the training courses, the cost of
education need to be adjusted. Indonesia offers non-formal vocational training courses, but their
cost of education is too high for women and the poor to access them. In the case of
industry-affiliated schools and night classes in Korea, it is prohibited by law to collect admission
fees, tuitions and other costs from students. In this regard, it is necessary to reduce educational
cost especially for women and marginalized groups.

On the other hand, the situation of today’s Indonesia differs from that of Korea in those days
when it introduced and developed the vocational and technical education. In detail, industry-affiliated schools and night classes were developed in cooperation between public and
private sectors. In those days in Korea, SMEs had difficulty in recruiting employees, so providing
education opportunities could induce more employees. In this regard, in order to effectively
promote vocational and technical education, close cooperation is needed between the government
and the private sector. Since Indonesian companies might be less interested in providing education
for their employees, incentives need to be provided to encourage them to participate in the
government’s policy to promote vocational and technical education.

Also, in relation to vocational and technical education for women in Korea, there was strong
criticism that academic pressure along with heavy labor put too much burden on women.
Therefore, this concern should be also considered in introducing education system for female
laborers through the education system such as industry-affiliated schools and night classes.

2) Supporting women’s entrepreneurship

Korea’s policy on supporting women’s entrepreneurship is based on the Act on Support for
Women-Owned Businesses (established in 1999), The Small & Medium Business Administration
(SMBA) conducts surveys on women-owned businesses and establishes annual plans to promote business activities. In the case of Indonesia, there is growing interest among women in starting their own businesses but there are not enough legal frameworks and policies for women entrepreneurs in place. Therefore, Indonesia needs a systematic legal framework for women’s entrepreneurship.

For women entrepreneurs, Korean government provided various supports along with financial support. The Korean government set up Women Enterprise Supporting Centers (14 regions including Seoul) to provide education on potentially promising businesses, consultation on business management and other information related to starting a new business. Women Enterprise Supporting Centers also provides office space for women entrepreneurs, facility installation costs, communal office equipment and operating costs. Korean endeavors to promote women’s ownership could give some ideas in developing more comprehensive measures to support women’s entrepreneurship in Indonesia.

In addition to Korean government, other non-governmental organizations also made efforts to promote women’s entrepreneurship in Korea. The Korean Women Entrepreneur Association (established under the SMBA) carries out various projects to support women entrepreneurs. Others include the Korea Venture Business Women’s Association, 21C Women CEO Association and the Korea Women Inventors Association. Similarly, Indonesia’s IWAPI (the Indonesia Business Women Association) also works toward enhancing the capabilities of women entrepreneurs and several private vocational training centers are providing vocational training programs focused on helping women generate income. Going forward, effective policy measures can be considered and developed based on the cooperation between the government and private sector/other non-governmental organization such as IWAPI.

Meanwhile, Indonesian women entrepreneurs are mostly involved in trade, hotel business and restaurants which are traditionally considered to be women’s jobs and paying less. Therefore, it is also important to find ways to help more women entrepreneurs challenge traditional gender roles expanding their entrepreneurship into new promising fields.
KWDI’s Knowledge Sharing on Women’s Policy in the Asia-Pacific Region: Women’s Human Rights

• Country Case – Indonesia
  Soo Yeon Lee, KWDI
1. Overview

The deep rooted feudalism, religion and colonialism spread patriarchal values in every aspect of society, which are hindering the promotion of gender equality awareness in Indonesia. Gender views in Indonesia's society have been formed based on social and political beliefs that regard the role of a woman as a wife and mother. The government-led propaganda, which is criticized by women activists as ‘ibuism’, focuses the value of women on successfully managing the household. Although the need for women’s participation in public sectors was raised during Soeharto’s regime, the agenda came to be settled through adopting the concept ‘peran ganda’ or the ‘dual role’ of women. Such views were not strongly challenged by Indonesian women activists (ibid., 47) who also respected the values of being a good wife and wise mother and did not conflict with their feminism demands.

Women’s movements in Indonesia mainly focused on issues related to education, reforming the marriage system, implementing the principle of equal pay for equal work, and public representation (Marlita & Powerwandari, 60). In particular, huge improvements were made on gender discrimination related to education while the marriage system and public representation system still needs improvement. The core of women’s issues in Indonesia is polygamy, which is the cause for women having a low social status and creating a vulnerable environment. Although the establishment of the Indonesian Marriage Law of 1974 helped to improve the rights of married women, the gender discriminative aspects of the law are now being criticized by women activities. In detail, the term ‘head of the family’ used under the law is considered as being unfavorable to women’s right to own property and right to take legal action (Powerwandari, Dadli & Ihromi, 2005, 20). The biased thinking that women are inferior to men and that women should depend on men is creating an environment in which abuse or violence against women is being tolerated.
Experts on women’s issues in Indonesia point to domestic violence and sexual violence as serious issues concerning women.

Such circumstances are not shown on objective indicators (as opposed to the level of women’s education or economic participation) but are undermining women’s rights and psychological health due to being closely linked to lives led by Indonesian women. Accordingly, the awareness on gender equality should be raised in order to address matters concerning women such as polygamy and sexual violence. In Indonesia, experts consider raising gender equality awareness as a prerequisite for resolving women’s issues. “No government policies or regulatory measures will be effective if society does not sufficiently acknowledge women’s basic rights and gender issues,” revealed an anti-sexual violence activist. A university lecturer and activist expressed that “Campaigns and public education should be continuously carried out to change people’s way of thinking and values. Policymakers and lawmakers need to be educated. Gender-related education should be provided to children early on. Religious leaders and opinion leaders should also put forth efforts to change the public’s thinking and attitude.”

Korea’s policy-based project on promoting education on gender equality awareness among public officials can be a useful reference so that gender equality education can become a policy priority in Indonesia.

2. State of gender equality awareness education in Indonesia

Education on raising awareness on gender equality is not widely spread in Indonesia, due to public-related projects with weak tangible results (such as the gender equality awareness education) being placed on the bottom of policy initiatives. Of note, a NGO activist claims that regional governments do not fully understand issues relating to women and regard gender issues and gender equality as two very different matters.

Against this backdrop, education on gender equality awareness is carried out through education of different purposes. For example, education on cultivating public awareness on gender equality is included in gender-related development cooperation projects in which the Indonesian government carries out with an international organization. The ‘Women’s Legal Empowerment’ project is participated by the World Bank, MoWECP, Ministry of Foreign Affairs, PAPPENAS and PEKKA, and aims to empower women’s legal rights and prevent violence and discrimination.
against women. And the education on gender equality awareness for women and law enforcement officials (e.g., police, prosecutors, court officers, etc.) is part of the project’s activities. Women are taught to understand and execute their rights and law enforcement officials receive gender-related training and educated on supporting women’s legal rights,


The project on the ‘Development of a Code of Practice on Sexual Harassment at the Workplace’ which is currently being carried out since 2009 by the ILO and the Ministry of Manpower and Transmigration (MOMT) does not focus on gender equality awareness education, but the project itself has the effect on the respective parties. In detail, developing guidelines on preventing sexual harassment at the workplace and organizing nationwide workshops for representatives of labor unions, APINDO and local autonomous bodies can help raise awareness on equal employment opportunity and in turn, enable the cultivation of awareness on gender equality.


Other joint projects that can help raise awareness on gender equality include ‘enhancing human rights and gender and reproductive rights of women and sexual minorities’ (with the Netherlands), ‘promoting women’s rights’ (with Germany), ‘establishment of law on promoting gender equality and strengthening women’s capability’ (with the Asian Development Bank), and ‘organizing seminars and training sessions to strengthen women’s political representation and decision-making on rebuilding stability in areas affected by conflict’ (with the UN Women).

Besides MoWECP, Indonesia’s government committee on anti-sexual violence (Komnas Perempuan) carries out researches and projects on preventing violence against women as well as provides education on gender equality awareness for public officials. Its focus is on integrating gender views in establishing, implementing and revising laws pertaining to violence committed against women. In line with the implementation of local autonomous bodies and gender discriminative laws, Komnas Perempuan also provides education for gender trainers at the Ministry of Home Affairs, Ministry of Human Rights and Law, MoWECP, and the Bureau of National Development Planning on Gender Justice.

Since 2005, Korea and Indonesia has been jointly carrying out the project on ‘strengthening policy capacity related to women’s rights and gender equality’ which is an in-depth education on gender equality awareness for public officials, Organized by the Korean Institute for Gender
Equality Promotion and Education (KIGEPE), educational programs range from gender theories, women’s policy development in Korea to gender mainstreaming tool.

MoWECG also provides education on a wide range of topics, such as gender concept and theory, history of women’s capacity development, relation between gender and development, gender impact assessment as a tool for gender mainstreaming, gender statistics, gender budgeting, and introduction of best practices.

3. Education on gender equality awareness for public officials in Korea

a. Background

International conferences had a large influence in spreading the education of gender equality awareness among public officials in Korea. In detail, a nation’s responsibility for developing women’s policies was underlined at the 4th World Conference on Women held in Beijing in 1995. In joining the United Nations (UN) in 1991, Korea recognized the importance of participating in international movements related to women’s issues. The Committee on Promoting Globalization (set up in October 1995 as an advisory committee under the direct supervision of the President) announced the ‘top ten tasks for women’s development’ and one of the top ten was the ‘Framework Act on Women’s Development’ which was established in December 1995. In 1997, the Office of the Minister of State for Political Affairs introduced the ‘1st Basic Plan on Women’s Policy (1998-2002)’ in accordance with the Framework Act on Women’s Development, focusing on resolving matters concerning women and promoting women’s development. In detail, the Basic Plan included carrying out nationwide campaigns to raise awareness on gender equality, supporting the development of public campaigns on promoting gender equality, encouraging government/public training centers to provide education on gender equality for adults as well as public enterprises and private companies.

Early on, the need for gender equality awareness education was acknowledged in Korea, which led to the establishment of the Korea Women’s Development Institute (KWDI) in 1983, the Women’s Policy Deliberation Committee under the Prime Minister’s Office, and the Office of the Minister of State for Political Affairs which was established in 1988 to carry out researches and education on gender equality. Joining the UN Committee on the Elimination of Discrimination
against Women (CEDAW) in 1984 and developing the 'Basic Plan on Women’s’ Development’ in 1985 backed Korea’s efforts toward promoting and strengthening gender equality. KWDI initially concentrated research on raising awareness on gender equality. In detail, analysis was conducted in 1985 on gender roles described in text books and portrayed in the media and the guideline on resolving gender discrimination was developed in 1987 (20-Year History of Korea Women’s Development Institute, 70). In 1988, KWDI carried out research on measures to improve attitudes toward women’s issues. In December 1989, the development of women-related curriculum for government/public training centers was proposed to the Women’s Policy Deliberation Committee and was adopted. Education for the general public and instructors began to be provided from 1996 and for public officials from 1997 following the establishment of an education center within the KWDI. In addition, KWDI carried out research on government/public training courses on gender equality in 1996 and educational programs for instructors specialized in social education for women in 1997. Based on the research results, KWDI provided education on raising awareness on gender equality among women’s social education instructors (20-Year History of Korea Women’s Development Institute, 120).

Gender equality awareness education was also provided to public officials by other relevant institutions. In order to address the deeply-rooted gender discrimination in society, the Office of Minister of State for Political Affairs and the Women’s Special Committee under the direct supervision of the President provided education on gender equality awareness from 1991 to central and regional government officials involved in national policy development.

b. Project details

1) Short-term education and specialized education

Education on raising awareness on gender equality among public officials is divided into short-term education and specialized education. Short-term education programs are managed by the Office of the Minister of State for Political Affairs and the Women’s Special Committee and provided by government/public training centers. Specialized education programs are managed by the Ministry of Gender Equality and provided to different public officials for varied periods by the KIGEPE.
2) Education on enhancing gender sensitivity among public officials  
(2003~present)

The establishment of the Korean Institute for Gender Equality Promotion and Education (KIGEPE) in 2012 jumpstarted the specialized education on enhancing gender sensitivity among public officials. By target and period, KIGEPE began to provide specialized education on enhancing gender sensitivity for central and regional government officials. The need for such education increased based on the government-led development of gender statistics, gender impact assessment of policies and gender budgeting following the enactment of the National Fiscal Act.

(a) Purpose of establishment

The Korean Institute for Gender Equality Promotion and Education (KIGEPE) is a government-affiliated organization established in 2003 under the Ministry of Gender Equality for the purpose of cultivating awareness on gender equality among civil servants and other public officials in accordance with the provisions under Article 33 of the Framework Act on Women’s Development. KIGEPE’s mission is supporting and providing gender equality education in order to improve the gender discriminatory thinking and practice in Korea’s society and to build a healthy society that can help develop an individual’s ability and talent regardless of gender.

KIGEPE is responsible for promoting and supporting gender equality education, fostering professionals specialized in gender equality education, developing gender equality education programs and providing consultation services, and establishing networks with domestic and foreign gender equality education institutes (2005 Education Program of KIGEPE).

(b) Characteristics and scope of education

KIGEPE takes a differentiated approach in terms of developing educational contents, applying educational methodology and managing educational programs. In detail, dedicated instructors are assigned to small groups, new education evaluation systems are developed and utilized, advanced educational methods are implemented, and on-site education is provided.

KIGEPE provides education related to gender equality policy, strengthening women’s leadership and fostering professionals.

(1) Gender equality policy education

The purpose lies in raising awareness on gender equality in the workplace, at home and in
society through fostering public policymakers specialized in gender equality, offering training related to gender impact assessment to help plan/implement policies and set budgets, and providing participatory-type education such as discussions.

Education courses relate to developing gender equality policies, performing gender impact assessment of policies, raising awareness on gender equality and promoting equal partnership between women and men. Education is provided for government and public officials who work in women’s policy divisions, who are responsible for handling general administrative affairs/personnel management/education/statistics/planning/budget, lawmakers, military and police officers, school teachers, parliamentary and council members and their advisers, and members of government committees. Evaluation scores are given after participants complete the mandatory education programs (which last one day through five days) and optional education programs (Appendix Table II-8).

Curriculum subjects include: 1) understanding the paradigm shift in gender equality and promoting gender equality policy; 2) understanding the concept and method of gender impact assessment; 3) practical training on gender equality policy development; 4) preparing and analyzing statistical data on gender equality; 5) training on building equal partnership between women and men in public society; 6) creating a family-oriented organizational culture that values gender equality.

(2) Education on strengthening women’s leadership

The purpose lies in developing skills on decision-making and organizational management to help women become economically active, identifying one’s own leadership style and developing vision through sharing knowledge and experience, and widening networks through mentoring and career development programs.

Education courses relate to building leadership among female public officials and civic leaders. Education is provided for women in public office positions (Grades 5 through 9), women who work in public enterprises, members of women’s organizations and women leaders. Education scores are given after participants complete the mandatory education programs (which last one day through five days) and optional education programs.

Curriculum subjects include: 1) understanding the organizational culture in public offices; 2) raising awareness on gender equality and strengthening women’s leadership; 3) learning how to effectively communicate and resolve conflicts between women and men; 4) learning how to
achieve personal growth and self-improvement; 5) developing organizational vision and strategies; 6) understanding gender equality policy monitoring.

(3) Fostering professionals

The purpose lies in fostering professional instructors specialized in providing education on prevention of sexual harassment and on gender equality in the workplace, at home and in society through practical training programs to help instructors fine tune their skills.

Education courses relate to fostering professionals specialized in providing education on prevention of sexual harassment and gender equality, fostering professionals specialized in offering counseling on sexual harassment, and providing special education on prevention of sexual harassment to public office managers. Education is provided for individuals in public institutions and educational/training centers related to gender equality and women’s issues, individuals in women’s organizations and civic groups who are responsible for providing education and developing policies, counselors specializing in violence against women, academics specializing in gender equality and women’s issues at universities, certified education and research institutes, and public officials responsible for sexual harassment counseling in central administrative agencies, local autonomous bodies, municipal education offices and related public service-related organizations.

Curriculum subjects include professional training for counselors and special education for managers which range from basic-level to advance-level courses.

(4) Number of trainees

The following table shows the accumulated number of trainees by the types of trainings provided by KIGEPE to public officials

| [KIGEPE’s education programs by target (December 31, 2011)] (Unit: number of person) |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | Public officials | General public | Total | Male | Female | Total |
| Category | Gender sensitivity policy | | | | | |
| Male | 1,429 | - | 1,429 | 1,429 | | |
| Female | 1,178 | - | 1,178 | 1,178 | | |
| Total | 2,607 | - | 2,607 | 2,607 | | |
| Male | 1,429 | 1,178 | 2,607 | 1,429 | 1,178 | 2,607 |
4. Key implications and a proposal on gender equality awareness training for public officials in Indonesia

Training for cultivating awareness on gender equality among public officials in Korea started in the beginning of the 1990s with the development of curriculum on gender equality by the government and training centers for public officers, when was still early in the history of women’s policy in Korea. Policies related to women’s issues began to be buckled down following the establishment of an organization specifically dealing with women’s issues in 1983. The fact that training for public officers on gender equality awareness began in less than a decade span after the period reveals a remarkable progress of the project. As such, it teaches us that training project for raising public officers’ gender equality awareness was propelled by the normalization of the implementation system of women’s policies. Another noteworthy accomplishment of the project is the establishment of the Korean Institute for Gender Equality Promotion and Education (KIGEPE) in 2003 under the Ministry of Gender Equality (established in 2001) to provide specialized and systematic education on gender equality awareness among public officials. The establishment of government funded training center for the promotion of gender equality awareness of public officers is an exemplary case unique to Korea and was made possible by the existence of the Ministry of Gender Equality and also by the political movement at the time.

Two lessons can be learned from this. First, the development of women’s policies implementation system laid the basic framework for training to raise awareness on gender equality. From the national policy perspective, educating public officials on gender equality may not be a
priority. Therefore, in order to persuade the government of the importance of gender equality awareness education, relevant ministries, women’s organizations and academia need to convey a unified voice, and especially the ministry in charge should be strongly committed towards ensuring the justification for providing education and securing budget. Second, the importance of the role of research institutions that address women’s issues. As previously noted, even before the establishment of the Ministry of Gender Equality, basic level of education on gender equality awareness was provided to public officials through curriculum developed for such purpose by government/public training centers. And this was mainly attributable to the role of the Korea Women’s Development Institute (KWDI). The KWDI developed the ‘Guideline on Improving Gender Discrimination’ in 1985 and continued to carry out researches on promoting education on gender equality awareness among public officials. Such research activities enabled the continuity of gender equality education for public officials prior to the establishment of the KIGEPE.

Against this backdrop, we propose measures to systematically promote education on gender equality awareness of Indonesia’s public offices. Indonesia is well positioned to carry out this project as it already has a ministry in charge of women’s issues. However, there are hurdles to overcome such as gender equality policy having a low policy priority and the difficulty in securing budget.

In order to successfully carry out the project, educational programs need to be developed that are tailored to Indonesia’s circumstances rather than adopting Korea’s case. Considering that accessibility between the central and regional governments is limited due to the nation’s vast size and many insular regions, it would be more effective to introduce a dual training system rather than Korea’s unified one. First, a central gender equality education center can be established within or under Indonesia’s Ministry of Women Empowerment and Child Protection (MoWECP) and its objectives will be: 1) providing education on gender equality awareness and gender mainstreaming to public officials of MoWECP and other relevant ministries; 2) supporting, coordinating and cooperating with regional gender equality education centers; 3) fostering professionals specialized in gender equality awareness education. Secondly, education on gender equality awareness for regional public officials will be provided by setting up a regional education center within each local government of Borneo, New Guinea, Sumatra, Java and Celebes. The purpose of the regional education centers will be: 1) providing education on gender equality awareness and gender mainstreaming for public officials in respective regions; 2) providing education in the regions of low accessibility by dispatching instructors.
Budget planning should also be approached diversely. First, the education center within MoWECP needs to secure budget from the ministry in order to maintain continuity and independency in carrying out the project. Only part of projects of the central government’s education center can be carried out as an international development cooperation project. The regional education centers have options of either to secure budget from the government or to carry out projects as an international development cooperation project when factoring the limited budget of regional governments. For the international development project, regional governments should make a plan for establishing an education center and apply for an ODA fund to donating countries including Korea. The Korea International Cooperation Agency (KOICA) is highly likely to take on the project. Of note, it is essential to receive cooperation and support from the MoWECP in regards to establishing regional education centers. The MoWECP needs to come up with a blueprint on gender equality education for public officials nationwide and provide support to local autonomous bodies. In addition, the education centers under the central and regional governments need to design a joint strategy and exchange information on developing and evaluating annual plans.

MoWECP needs to be committed and focused in order to successfully carry out the project on promoting gender equality awareness education among Indonesian public offices. The ministry needs to acknowledge that gender equality awareness is the fundamental basis for implementing women’s policies. Education on raising gender equality awareness is required for the whole population but this is hard to carry out realistically, so the efficient solution is to provide education first to public officials. And then, efforts need to be made to secure budgeting from the respective ministry based on providing reasonable grounds following the assessment of gender equality awareness education programs being carried out in Indonesia. The assessment can be carried out in the form of a survey on gender equality awareness among public officials, state of gender equality education, changes in the mindset of public officials after receiving education, and loopholes and areas of improvement regarding the present gender equality education system. This can also be carried out with an ODA fund or jointly with the Korea Women’s Development Institute.