Attributes of a 'Good Job': Construct Formation and Validation in South Korea*

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이 연구는 이른바 '좋은 일자리(good job)'를 측정하기 위한 양질의 지수(index)를 구성해내고 이를 다각도에서 평가하고 검증하려는 목적을 지닌다. '좋은 일자리'의 개념이 지니는 학술적, 실용적 중요성에도 불구하고 그 핵심적 구성지표들이 과연 무엇이며 좋은 일자리의 취득(attainment)을 추동하는 원인 및 취득의 결과는 과연 어떤 것인지에 대한 이론적, 경험적 공백이 여전하다. 이러한 공백이 존재하는 이유로는 그간 국내외 학계에서 측정속성이 우수하고 유용성 또한 높은 지수를 구성해보려는 진지한 성찰이 결여되어 있었다는 점 이외에도 일부 그러한 노력의 경우 각종 이론적, 분석적 한계를 피할 수 없었다는 점을 지적할 수 있다. 이 같은 문제점으로 인해, 이론적으로 취약하고 경험적으로 파편화된 연구결과들이 무성할 뿐, 이론적 정교성 및 실증적 엄정성을 두루 겸비한 양질의 지수는 좀처럼 찾아보기가 어려웠다. 이 연구에서는 사회학, 경제학, 심리학 등에서 좋은 일자리를 규정할 때 사용하는 소수의 핵심적 지표들을 바탕으로 이론적 토대가 굳건한 지수를 구성하고 이 지수의 타당도를 대표성 높은 전국표집 자료를 동원해서 여러 측면에서 동시에 평가해보았다. 국내 여러 사업장의 다양한 근로자들을 대상으로 수집된 자료를 바탕으로 공변량구조분석(LISREL) 방식을 통한 실증분석을 시도한 결과 임금, 직업위세, 권위, 고용안정성 등이 핵심적 지표인 것으로 밝혀졌으며, 이 지표들을 복합적으로 합성한 지수는 그 구성지표, 원인, 결과 등과 관련해서 수렴·판별타당도 및 구성타당도를 구비하는 것으로 나타났다. 이러한 연구결과가 시사하는 바의 제반 논제들과 관련된 학술적·실천적 함의를 마지막으로 논의하였다.

핵심단어: 좋은 일자리, 지수, 지표, 타당화, 임금, 직업위세, 권위, 고용안정성

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I. Research Question

What is a good job? What are the defining characteristics of a good job? Who obtains a good job and what is a major consequence of a good-job attainment? These questions might look simple and straightforward, since a lot of people used to ask them in everyday life. Unlike this plain impression, however, they are one of the most important and recurring themes to which a huge number of social scientists kept paying attention over a long period of time. It is one of the major arguments of the current paper that the questions in fact go to the heart of the issues of job quality and labor-market achievement and, interestingly enough, the questions like these constitute a sort of crevice in which fragmented speculations and research findings continued to flourish with a relative shortage of overarching solid theoretical underpinning and stringent empirical adjudications. We call this a crevice, primarily because ample evidence is not available, to one's surprise, despite the significant academic and policy implications associated with them.

A scholarly interest in a good job goes back to three disciplines by large: economics, sociology and psychology. Each discipline tends to characterize a good job in considerably different ways. With an emphasis on monetary rewards, economists try to equate a high paying job to a good job. Sociologists have been traditionally distinct from economists in their strong emphasis on social and/or occupational prestige accrued to a job: a job with high prestige is a good one, often irrespective of income. Unlike economists and sociologists who focus on rather objective characteristics such as monetary income and occupational prestige, psychologists have been unique with their emphasis on the subjective state of mind of a job-holder: a job is good, regardless of income or prestige, insofar as the holder is emotionally attached to it.

Although each discipline taps some crucial aspects of the phenomenon, none appear to succeed in grasping an overall, comprehensive feature of a good job. The extent to which a job is good or bad, it is argued, should be assessed through a simultaneous consideration of several major characteristics of the desirability of a job. To reiterate, a job with high income may or may

not be good depending on the levels of occupational prestige or emotional attachment (Sewell and Hauser, 1975). In a similar vein, a job to which its holder is strongly attached may or may not good depending on its pay or prestige levels. This provides a case to suggest that a global conceptualization and measurement of a job's desirability be attempted in order to capture several features of a job at the same time. This is tantamount to saying that a composite index of a good job needs to be constructed which is not only couched on some solid theoretical underpinnings but also empirically valid in several different respects. A composite index like this is warranted due mostly to two crucial reasons: it facilitates a simple and handy rank-ordering of diverse jobs that is not prone to some specific job characteristics (e.g., objective vis-à-vis subjective, extrinsic vis-à-vis intrinsic and the like); it also facilitates to gauge an individual worker's overall success in the competitive labor market in the eyes of the labor force as a whole (Jencks, Perman and Rainwater, 1988)[1].

The current study is an attempt to formulate a comprehensive index of a job's overall desirability for one thing and to evaluate its empirical validity for another. To be more precise, conceptual formulation of the index is done by relying on Max Weber's famous multi-dimensional approach to the conceptualization of class. As will be indicated shortly, the three typified dimensions of economic income, social prestige and political power Weber uses to characterize the notion of class have a high degree of parallel with and the resultant applicability to the attributes of a good job. Now that previous studies on the good job, as will be indicated, often fail to provide

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1) Given that "goodness" and "badness" of a job is essentially a psychological state and that not all individuals define "good' and "bad" jobs in the same way, the criterion to distinguish between good and bad jobs should ultimately be how the job-holder perceives his/her incumbent job rather than how a discipline characterizes it. Although we certainly are not opposed to this basic fact, however, we still want to rely on the job characteristics in the workplace, instead of job-holder's perspective, for the criterion of a job desirability. Use of job characteristics as a criterion is intended to satisfy the two basic needs for formulating an index of a good job—rank-ordering diverse jobs and rating overall success of job-holders in the competitive labor market—unlike the job-holder's perspective that is highly likely to obliterate an objective frame of reference for such rank-ordering and rating. Admittedly, this usage of ours is premised on the assumption that certain relatively clear "packages" of factors might exist in the workplace which differentiate "good" from "bad" jobs (Jencks et al., 1988; Kalleberg, Reskin and Hudson, 2000; Mueller and McDuff, 2002).

a theoretically solid and parsimonious conceptualization, employment of Weberian approach to the conceptualization is believed to be one of the major thrusts of this study.

Subsequent evaluation of the validity of the constructed index is going to be done by proposing a few ideal criteria for a valid index and applying them to the index. Specifically, three different validation criteria will be set forth and put to a stringent adjudication. The first is the extent to which a limited set of solid and parsimonious job attributes all converges into the supposed latent construct of a good job at the expense of other non-relevant constructs. The second is the extent to which a few theoretically grounded antecedents of the good-job attainment or labor-market success that are firmly established in the literature do account for variations in the constructed index. The third criterion is the degree to which the index explains variations in some salient outcome of the job attainment. To use statistical terminologies, the first criterion concerns discriminant-convergent validity, while the latter two concern construct validity.

Before addressing the conceptual rationales and validation strategies underlying the suggested index in details, we will introduce two of the most representative studies that tried to create an index like ours in the past. A critical evaluation of these studies is expected to provide a way to construct a new index that overcomes the problems inherent in previous studies.

II. Critical Review of Preview Studies

As pointed out earlier, this study is not the first to construct a comprehensive index of a good job. On the contrary, there have been several similar attempts (e.g., Jencks et al., 1988; Clark, 1998; Kalleberg et al., 2000; Ritter and Anker, 2002) and two of these, with their full-fledged commitment to create such index, require a particular attention.

The study of Jencks and his colleagues (1988) would probably be the first and most serious attempt in this respect. The drive that has propelled their study, as is the case with the current study, was the necessity to develop a

comprehensive index that is not specific to economic, sociological, or psychological explanations of a job's desirability. Such index, they believed, serves the aforementioned two-fold goals of rank-ordering diverse jobs and rating overall success of job holders in the competitive labor market. With this in mind, they created the so-called IJD (Index of Job Desirability) on the basis of earnings and 13 nonmonetary job characteristics (working hour, union contract, job security, workplace authority, employment sector and the like) and subsequently tried to validate the weighted index for the U.S. population.

Concretely, this was done by evaluating the relative contribution of each job characteristic to the factor configuration of a good job on the one hand and by evaluating the degree to which several predictors (race, sex, educational attainment, etc.) account for variations in the proposed index. Their major findings include: (1) although earnings are single most important characteristic of a job's desirability, the 13 nonmonetary job characteristics altogether are twice as important as earnings; (2) a substantial amount of variations (44.9%) in the IJD is explained by the suggested predictors.

Jencks et al. (1988), despite its virtue of an impressive start-off, appears to suffer from a few limitations. The first and foremost is its atheoretical orientation. An excessive reliance on the empirical outcome of an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) has led to the failure to provide a conceptualization of job desirability that is firmly based on some coherent theory. The second is the lack of parsimony in the developed index: with a total of 14 job characteristics, the index is unlikely to be quite useful and handy in rank-ordering jobs and rating workers' labor-market success. The third is their failure to assess the extent to which the suggested index accounts for variations in some crucial outcome associated with the attainment of a good job.

Another study is a more recent work performed by Ritter and Anker (2002). They developed a composite measure of a good job by combining workers' satisfaction with a set of job characteristics (pay, fringe benefits, nature of work, autonomy, skill upgrade and promotion) and attempted to validate the measure for the workers in five countries (Argentina, Brazil, Chile, Hungary and Ukraine). Based on data from the ILO People's Security

Survey, they tried to see how variations in the measure are explained by job-holder's individual characteristics (gender, age, educational attainment), workplace characteristics (number of employees, workplace safety), job characteristics (tenure, skill transferability) and employer-employee relationships (union status, trust to the employer). Their findings include: (1) simple and objective job characteristics, such as payment and employment status, can hardly become full-fledged indicators of a good job; (2) instead, subjective perceptions and evaluations of the job-holders, aside from the objective characteristics, are decisive building blocks of a good job.

Similar to Jencks et al. (1988), Ritter and Anker (2002) suffers from an atheoretical orientation, non-parsimonious conceptualization and failure to validate the measure for some outcome of a job attainment. Besides these, their study is also plagued with the facet measure of satisfaction. To reiterate: considering that the summated facet measure, no matter how encompassing it could be, tends to possess several built-in problems—(a) relatively unimportant facets may be included at the expense of other more relevant facets (Scarpello and Campbell, 1983); (b) researcher's subjective evaluation is likely to be involved in selecting the facets (Ironson et al., 1989); (c) responses to each facet is vulnerable to some temperaments of the respondents (Ryan and Smith, 1954); (d) a simple summation of several facets tends to lose sight of some peculiar patterns of configuration for individual worker's affective responses (Ironson et al., 1989)—a multi-faceted, global measure should have been used. Furthermore, Ritter and Anker's (2002) attempt to create an index based on the facet satisfaction with a set of job characteristics, as should be elaborated later, is plagued with another problem of confounding the index formation itself with its validation for some crucial outcome.

Ⅲ. Theoretical and Analytical Strategies

In order to settle down the problems associated with the previous studies, this study employs five strategies. These strategies, as such, constitute the

distinctive features shaping the current study. Each strategy will now be discussed in full details.

First, as pointed out earlier, M. Weber's multi-dimensional concept of class that combines economic, social and political aspects altogether is borrowed for a more theoretically grounded and parsimonious conceptual formulation of a good job. A few rationales are in order with respect to borrowing Weber's class concept for a good job. Interestingly enough, class and job desirability are quite similar in that both of the two (high class and good job) are the most representative, hierarchically rank-ordered, scarce resources with limited amounts preferred by people in their daily lives.

More important, Weber's alleged rationale to provide the three dimensional conceptualization of class is highly consistent with the rationale for multi-dimensional conceptualization of a good job. That is, considering that Weber proposed such conceptualization by arguing that people's life chances in the market (a broadly defined notion) are shaped quite intricately by the three salient domains of economic (income), social (prestige) and political (power) factors, a case might be made to suggest that the rationale could be extended most equivalently to the above-indicated rationale for the good-job formation (i.e., rank-ordering diverse jobs and rating a worker's success in the labor market). Economic, social and political dimensions, in short, are the most salient aspects of both class and good job that crucially represent the outcomes of the labor market.

Second, now that good job and class are not an identical concept and that zooming our focus exclusively on the three components is highly likely to commit an misspecification error in writing equations for the suggested index, however, a set of other job features that are established as critical attributes of a good job in the literature need to be also considered together with the three components indicated above. All these characteristics should then be put to a rigorous empirical assessment on an equivalent basis in order to see how crucial each characteristic is relative to others on the one hand and how exhaustive those characteristics are as a whole on the other hand. In effect, this is to evaluate not only the relative weight or relative contribution of each of the suggested characteristics to the supposed latent factor, but the degree

to which some combinations of those characteristics cluster together into a certain factor configuration. This kind of evaluation is warranted since a considerable amount of variations exist both within and across the conventional attributes of a job (Sewell and Hauser, 1975; Jencks et al., 1979). At any rate, the assessment will be done by an exploratory factor analysis (EFA) and the result of this analysis should work as evidence for the discriminant-convergent validity associated with the suggested index.

As other job features besides income, occupational prestige and exercise of power, we propose five features of job security, union membership, employment sector, hours worked and job opportunity. These features are suggested since they represent conceptual domains not properly tapped by the three characteristics above. Apparently, these job features were predominant in both of the two major streams of arguments in the literature, although the two have been directly opposed to each other with respect to the interrelationships among the features in different workplaces. One stream is the dualist and labor-market segmentation arguments of several decades ago (see Doeringer and Piore, 1971; Hodson and Kaufman, 1982; Baron and Bielby, 1984), which posited that the primary market segment comprises "good" jobs and the secondary segment comprises "bad" jobs. They contend that good job characteristics cluster together, like bad job characteristics clustering together (Piore, 1971).

Another stream is the so-called the "compensating differentials" argument in labor economics (see Smith, 1937 [1776]; Smith, 1979; Brown, 1980), which claims that good (or bad) jobs are not necessarily good (or bad) in all working conditions. This argument clearly distinguishes between material and nonmaterial features of work and holds that market mechanisms operate to compensate for the low paying jobs with several nonmaterial rewards and benefits in order to initially attract the workers and keep them from leaving the workplace (Ehrenberg and Smith, 1996), with the result being an apparent incongruence among the levels of several job features. Even if an evaluation of which of the two arguments is more plausible is not one of our purposes, an analysis of data in this study is going to provide a clue as to the debate surrounding the two arguments.

Third, the index constructed by the above procedure is required to be validated once again with respect to its antecedents. If the constructed index is indeed valid, then a set of variables established as strong predictors of the good-job attainment or labor-market achievement should be able to explain a substantial portion of variance in the index. Since the current study is an attempt to create an overall index that combines economic, sociological and psychological explanations altogether, it is hardly surprising to select the antecedents or predictors, too, out of the three explanations.

It is important to note at this point that we are going to focus on only a few, usually one or two, critical variables from each explanation. Economic explanation, to begin with, is well-known for its emphasis on human capital as a determinant of labor market outcome: those who possess a lot of human capital succeed in obtaining a good job in the labor market due mostly to the productivity signified by the capital (Becker, 1964). Particularly important among several kinds of human capital is the educational attainment. Sociological explanation tends to differ from economic explanation with its strong emphasis on social capital. Sociologists argue that people equipped with social capital, often irrespective of their human capital, get a better job. Of considerable interest among diverse forms of social capital is network ties: compared with those who have strong ties, those who have weak ties are more likely to obtain preferred jobs, since such ties work as an effective mechanism for job attainment (Granovetter, 1974).

Psychological explanation differs a lot from economic and sociological explanations, because it does not clearly stipulate what the antecedents are for the attainment of a good job. A review of relevant literature, however, indicates that psychologists tend to regard, up in front, the socio-demographics, such as gender and age, as the most important explanatory variables. Taken together, a multivariate analysis of these predictors each representing three dominant explanations—educational attainment, network ties, socio-demographics—would provide a clue as to the degree to which variations in the suggested index are successfully explained by the theoretical antecedents. This result, as such, should work as evidence for construct validity of the suggested index.

Fourth, the constructed index is required to be validated one more time with respect to its consequences. An index of a good job with high construct validity, it is argued, should be able to empirically confirm the causal associations posterior, as well as anterior, to the attainment of a good job. Obviously, a good job has both causes and consequences: not only is a good job obtained on account of some reasons, it also produces some tangible outcomes. None of the extant studies, however, have ever attempted the kind of construct validation both back and forth as the current study attempts and this should be regarded as one of the major thrusts underlying this study.

One thing that bewilders us, however, is the fact that consequences of a good job, unlike its antecedents, are not well established in the literature. Although we are not quite sure about the reason for this imbalance and this can certainly be a research topic in its own right, a shortcoming of knowledge on the consequences obliges us to designate a new variable of our own. For this, we suggest the employee responses to work, or work orientations, that are typically represented by job satisfaction and organizational commitment.

Employee responses to work are suggested as a primary consequence of a good job in the causal chain due to two principal reasons. One reason is that there exists a sizable amount of theories and evidence in the literature showing that employee work responses are not a job characteristic per se but an outcome—actually the single most important outcome—resulting from several job characteristics (Mowday, Porter and Steers, 1982; Price, 1997; Kim, 1999). Another reason is that the strategy to treat job satisfaction, an instantiation of employee work responses, as one of the integral, constituting elements of the index, as Ritter and Anker (2002) did, is highly likely to compound the index formation itself with its validation for a certain outcome. On conceptual grounds, it may be indicated that job characteristics themselves should be distinguished from employee responses to these characteristics as much as possible and that the former should preferably be causally prior to the latter. On empirical grounds, too, it can be indicated that a failure to distinguish between job characteristics and responses to them is well likely to result in compounding empirical assessments of each component, thereby

washing out each of their impacts in the multivariate statistical analysis.

Among several different features of employee work responses (see Morrow, 1983), we focus on two of the most representative features, job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Since the reference frames for each—i.e., the incumbent job and the employing organization—are the most salient aspects of the notion of 'work,' there does exist a sufficient reasoning to solicit both of the two at the expense of others in evaluating the impact of a job attainment. In doing this, those job characteristics that might ultimately be dropped from the constructed index due to their weak loadings or cross-loading complications would be treated as independent variables together with the good-job variable. A comparison among the effects of good-job and those left-out variables is believed to provide an answer as to the extent to which good job really operates as a decisive explanatory variable for employee responses to work. The result of this outcome analysis, together with the result of the predictor analysis illustrated above, should work as ample evidence for construct validation of the suggested index.

The fifth and final strategy of this paper concerns the occupational group for which the index is going to be constructed and validated. Considering that wage earners and self-employees, each representing two of the mutually exclusive and exhaustive groups of active labor force, are entirely different from each other in such matters as workplace characteristics and the subjective reference frame for a job desirability, it could be suggested that a separate construct formation and validation be attempted for each group of workers. To illustrate, not only do several critical job features, such as job security, labor union and promotion[2], apply only to wage earners, but the work orientation of organizational commitment also applies only to wage earners. Furthermore, wage earners are usually motivated by a broadly defined notion of organizational rewards that include all sorts of extrinsic and intrinsic rewards, whereas self-employees are motivated primarily by monetary or extrinsic rewards, at least more often than wage earners (Hom

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2) These are the most important organization characteristics of internal labor markets (ILMs). Note that one of the basic assumptions underlying discussions on ILMs is the contract relationship between the employer and employees (see Doeringer and Piore, 1971).

and Griffeth, 1995).

Thus, it would be plausible to say that a good job for one group may not necessarily be a good job for the other group: a high paying job for self-employees, for instance, could be a bad, or merely decent, job for wage earners. As a result, an attempt to incorporate the two groups of workers without sharply distinguishing them in constructing and validating an index would make a serious mistake and produce, in effect, non-contextual explanations. It appears that the problem is even more acute in South Korea than any other countries, in which the proportion of self-employees out of the total labor force—20 percent approximately, as compared to around 40 percent wage earners (the rest 40 percent is comprised of students, housewives, unemployed and the like) (Korea National Statistical Office, 2004)—is almost the highest among the industrialized countries in the world. For these reasons, the construction and validation of the good-job index in this study restricts its focus only to wage earners at the expense of self-employees.

To sum up, the theoretical and analytical strategies illustrated above are believed to resolve the problems inherent in the previous studies to a large extent and provide a plausible answer to the research questions raised at the very beginning of this paper.

IV. Methodology

1. Data

The Korean General Social Survey (KGSS) is the data we use to construct and validate the index of a good job suggested in this study. The KGSS is a national sample survey that is designed and conducted by the Survey Research Center at the Sungkyunkwan University, Seoul, Korea. The Survey is relatively recent in Korea, beginning with the KGSS Pilot Study (2002), KGSS-2003, KGSS-2004, KGSS-2005, KGSS-2006 and KGSS-2007 in sequence.

Similar to the GSS in the United States, the KGSS is an annually repeated, academic social survey that covers a wide variety of topics of social scientific interests. Each year's questionnaires usually combine the so-called replicating cores, ISSP (International Social Survey Programme) module and either EASS (East Asian Social Surveys) module or special module together into a single survey framework. Its target population includes the adult population aged 18 or over who live in households of Korea and the representative samples are drawn from it by means of multi-stage area probability sampling procedures. Structured face-to-face interviews that are administered primarily by a trained group of student interviewers are then conducted for the selected samples. Further details on the KGSS, plus the related surveys of ISSP and EASS in Korea, are documented in Kim (2004).

The 2004 KGSS was fielded approximately for the two months of June to August 2004, yielding valid samples of 1,312 out of 2,000, for a response rate of 65.6%[3]. Selection of wage earners (470) among these and a listwise deletion of missing cases (49) for the variables has brought the final sample analyzed for the current study to 421. The sample, as such, consists of national representative wage earners in all occupational categories. The wide spectrum of wage earners included in the analysis is expected to produce greater variance in the variables and also enhance the generalizability of the findings.

2. Measurement

Employee work orientations of job satisfaction and organizational commitment, the final outcome variables in the causal chain, were each

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[3] Two criteria are available to evaluate the representativeness of the sample obtained in this study. The first is the valid response rate of 65.6 percent, a conservatively estimated figure, which suggests a proper representation of the population. The second is the employment status, one of the most decisive demographic characteristics, of the selected sample: employees or wage-earners (470; 35.8%), self-employees (259; 19.7%) and the unemployed (including students, housewives and the like) (583; 44.4%). The corresponding percentages in the population are 39.9, 19.5 and 40.6, respectively (Korea National Statistical Office, 2004). A non-parametric Chi-square test for the distribution of employment status between the sample and population reveals statistical insignificance, again suggesting that the sample provides an adequate representation of the population.

operationalized by the widely used, standardized measurement scales whose psychometric properties have been well documented in the literature. To be precise, job satisfaction was measured by three items adapted from the Brayfield and Rothe (1951) scale and organizational commitment was measured by three items adapted from the OCQ (Organizational Commitment Questionnaire) (Porter, Steers, Mowday and Boulian, 1974). Apparently, both of the measures are intended to tap a global assessment of employees' affective responses to their jobs or organizations.

A principal component analysis (EFA) for the six items in terms of direct oblimin criterion has identified one salient factor. One item for organizational commitment, however, did exhibit a weak loading: the item was also turned out to be lowering the internal consistency of the underlying factor configuration. Subsequent analysis for the remaining five items showed a neat factor structure and high reliability (Cronbach's α=0.8840). This is evidence suggesting that three items for job satisfaction and two items for organizational commitment are, in effect, tapping a single, broader underlying construct of work orientation. Table 1 contains descriptive statistics for work orientation as well as other variables in the analysis.

Measurement of each of the job characteristics appears to be relatively simple and straightforward (see Table 1) and no detailed elaborations would be required. Suffice it to say, however, that occupational prestige was operationalized by the SIOPS (Ganzeboom and Treiman, 1996). Note that the score is based purely on the ISCO-88 occupational categories and, as such, it is free from the problem of contamination between occupational prestige and other relevant variables, notably educational attainment, in the multivariate analysis.

As for the predictors of the job attainment or labor-market achievement, finally, human capital and social capital were each tapped by years of schooling and network ties (strong vs. weak) in getting a job. Descriptive statistics for the two demographic variables, gender and age, are also available in Table 1.

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics for the Variables (n=421)

Variables	No. Items	Mean	s.d.	Min - Max	Skewness
Final Outcome Variable					
Work Orientation[a]	5[b]	3.545	0.866	1-5	-0.494
Job Characteristics					
Good Job[c] [e]	4	37.716	11.288	13.930-66.405[d]	0.124
Pay	1	182.898[f]	120.583[f]	25-1050[f]	1.896
LN (Pay)	1	4.993	0.698	3.219-6.957	-0.574
Occupational Prestige: SIOPS[g]	1	41.200	13.587	13-78	0.150
Exercise of Authority (0=non-exercise; 1=exercise)	1	0.321	0.467	0-1	0.771
Job Security	1	3.423	1.224	1-5	-0.349
Union Membership (0=non-member; 1=member)	1	0.152	0.359	0-1	1.945
Employment Sector (0=private sector; 1=public sector)	1	0.219	0.414	0-1	1.367
Hours Worked (Ave. hrs. a week)	1	48.007	16.814	2-168	1.050
Job Opportunity	1	3.344	1.152	1-5	-0.354
Human & Social Capitals					
Years of Schooling	1	13.342	3.470	0-23	-0.826
Network Ties (0=strong tie; 1=weak tie)	1	0.171	0.377	0-1	1.754
Demographic Variables					
Gender (0=female; 1=male)	1	0.584	0.493	0-1	-0.343
Age	1	38.701	11.302	19-71	0.618

note: [a] Cronbach α=0.8840
[b] 3 items for job satisfaction + 2 items for organizational commitment.
[c] Good Job = 0.77501*LN(Pay) + 0.77997*SIOPS + 0.59789*Authority + 0.44421*Job Security.
[d] 13.930 = worst job; 66.405 = best job.
[e] Coefficient Alpha cannot be used to assess reliability for the composite index, since the different items of the index are not interchangeable.
[f] Unit=10,000 won. 1 U.S. dollar is equivalent to 1,177 won, as of July 2004.
[g] Standard International Occupational Prestige Score (Ganzeboom and Treiman, 1996).

3. Analysis

Data were analyzed by the maximum likelihood (ML) estimation procedures in LISREL8 (Jöreskog and Sorbom, 1993). LISREL, or covariance structural analysis, is most appropriate in this research for three reasons: (1) each of the outcome variables of good job and work orientation has multiple indicators; (2) use of latent variables in estimating the causal relationships corrects for random measurement errors, or unreliabilities, in manifest variables that attenuate the measures of associations among latent variables;

Table 2. LISREL Estimates of Zero-Order Correlations (n=421)[a]

Variables	1)	2)	3)	4)	5)	6)	7)	8)	9)
1) Work Orientation	–								
2) Good Job	0.481***	–							
3) Union Member	0.063	0.156**	–						
4) Public Sector	0.114*	0.293***	0.064	–					
5) Hours Worked	0.009	0.107*	0.072	-0.103*	–				
6) Job Opportunity	0.166***	0.115*	-0.161***	-0.138**	-0.031	–			
7) Yrs. of Schooling	0.131**	0.581***	-0.004	0.271***	-0.071	0.220***	–		
8) Weak Tie	0.106*	0.233***	0.054	0.096*	-0.057	-0.026	0.186***	–	
9) Male	-0.025	0.330***	0.102	-0.009	0.200***	-0.045	0.108*	-0.027	–
10) Age	0.121*	-0.063	0.011	-0.002	0.034	-0.324***	-0.470***	-0.122**	0.053

note: [a] The correlations are obtained from the LISREL measurement model and, as such, the coefficients are corrected for unreliability.
* $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$, one-tailed test.

(3) ML procedures in estimating a structural model that contains multiple outcome, or endogenous, variables provide a statistical evaluation of the overall goodness of the model fit to the data.

The multivariate analysis of LISREL ML estimation requires the fulfillment of a few statistical assumptions. Two of the most critical assumptions— linearity and low multicollinearity—were tested. Linearity was tested by standard F-tests that decompose linear and nonlinear components; the results indicated no significant deviations from linear association between any predictor and outcome variables. Multicollinearity was tested by the eigenvalue decomposition method (Gunst, 1983). The smallest eigenvalue was larger than 0.05, a conventional criterion value to determine the collinearity, which suggests that problematic symptoms of multicollinearity are not likely to exist among the predictor variables. Additional information pertinent to multicollinearity is provided in Table 2 that presents the LISREL-corrected correlation coefficients for variables in the analysis.

Table 3. Factor Loadings for Job Characteristic Variables (n=421)[a]

| Variables	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3
LN (Pay)	**0.80056**	-0.15376	0.24487
SIOPS	**0.80171**	0.20724	-0.09131
Authority	**0.60871**	-0.16512	-0.08951
Job Security	**0.44819**	0.19669	-0.02008
Union Member	0.08140	-0.04168	**0.32363**
Public Sector	0.21332	**0.62331**	0.27557
Hours Worked	0.16975	-0.08162	**-0.42356**
Job Opportunity	0.08690	**-0.33848**	0.22557
Eigenvalue	2.43001	1.24292	1.21700
Variance Explained	30.4%	15.5%	15.2%

note: [a] Loadings are from the pattern matrix that was obtained by the oblimin rotation of the factors. Bold-faced figures are statistically significant.

V. Results

Prior to presenting the results of data analysis in details, a brief note is in order with respect to the causal ordering among the predictor and outcome variables in the structural model. As shown in Figure 2, human capital and social capital, plus the demographic variables of gender and age, are postulated to impact on both good job and work orientation; good job and other job characteristics are then postulated to impact on work orientation. In particular, the amount of variance in the composite index of a good job that is accounted for by the predictor variables is expected to provide an answer as to the extent to which a few theoretically solid antecedents do explain the suggested index. Further, comparison of the structural coefficients among the job characteristics including the index will provide a clue as to the relative importance of the index vis-à-vis other job characteristics. Apparently, these results should work as evidence for construct validity associated with the suggested index of a good job.

The first and foremost research question we raised concerns the defining characteristics of a good job. We suggested identifying those characteristics on the basis of a theoretically solid and parsimonious, especially Weberian, conceptualization, along with a few critical job characteristics in the

Figure 1. Factor Structure of a 'Good Job'
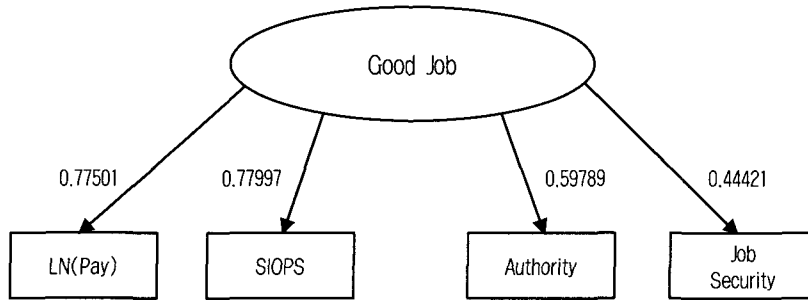
workplace. An EFA was done to provide an answer[4]. As presented in Table 3, when the eight job characteristics were put altogether into a factor analysis, one distinct factor configuration consisting of four characteristics— Ln (Pay), SIOPS, authority exercise and job security—was extracted (eigenvalue=2.43; variance explained=30.4%). The remaining characteristics, although they produced two more factors, were not merely quite invisible but also had unclear conceptual meanings. As a consequence, the salient factor was interpreted as clustering together to signal the supposed latent construct of a good job and it was concluded that a good job possesses four crucial attributes: high pay, high occupational prestige, exercise of authority and job security. Recalling that a theoretically solid and parsimonious conceptualization of a good job proposed in this study tried to conceive the first three attributes as defining building blocks, this result may be interpreted as demonstrating the discriminant-convergent validity of the suggested good-job index.

A necessity to evaluate the relative weights associated with each attribute of a good job on a new and equivalent basis has prompted us to conduct another EFA that encompasses only four attributes in the absence of others. The result showed that Ln (Pay), SIOPS, authority exercise and job security

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4) Principal axis factoring was the extraction method used. As with most social science variables (Kim and Mueller, 1978), we expected the factors to be correlated and used an oblique rotation for factor analyses throughout this paper.

had factor loadings of 0.77501, 0.77997, 0.59789 and 0.44421, respectively (Figure 1). To express in a regression model, the following equation holds true when it comes a good job for Korean employees: Good Job = 0.77501 * Ln(Pay) + 0.77997 * SIOPS + 0.59789 * Authority + 0.44421 * Job Security.

As the equation indicates, pay and occupational prestige have the largest and roughly same weights, followed by authority and job security. Substantially, the equation implies that the amount of weights associated with pay, occupational prestige, authority and job security, in sequence, is 29.8%, 30.0%, 23.0% and 17.1%, respectively. The factor analysis result has led us to form the composite variable of a good job by computing simple sums of the four items.

Our second question concerns how successful the above index is in being accounted for by a few critical antecedents of a good-job attainment in the labor market. The result for this, along with one for the third question on the consequence of a good-job attainment, was obtained by estimating the structural equation model[5]. As shown in Table 4 and Figure 2, not merely do the four predictors of years of schooling, network ties, gender and age explain as much as 47.4 percent of the variance in the suggested index of a good job, but all predictors also have statistically significant impacts on the

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5) The possibility remains that the modifications in the measurement model could improve the model fit to the data and also alter the estimates of structural coefficients. With this possibility in mind, modification indices (MIs) for correlated measurement errors among the endogenous variable items were examined and several theta-epsilons (TEs) were consecutively freed up. In deciding which TEs were to be freed up, four criteria were utilized: (1) theoretical plausibility; (2) the degree of similarity in item wordings; (3) size of MIs in the previous analysis; (4) size of the residual covariance terms in the previous analysis (residual TE>2.00). After finishing these analyses, the model in which the above-indicated measurement errors among the endogenous variable items were allowed to be correlated was compared to the model in which they were not allowed to do so. The results revealed no substantially meaningful differences in terms of the estimates, explained variances and model fit statistics. Further, in addition to freeing up correlated measurement errors among the endogenous variable items, those among the exogenous and endogenous variable items (theta-delta-epsilons, TDEs) were also examined and freed up. Using the above-indicated model in which measurement errors among the endogenous variables were allowed to be correlated as a baseline model, a few new TDEs were freed up successively. The same criteria used for freeing up TEs were used here, too. Again, the results showed no meaningful patterns. As a consequence, a decision was made not to pay any more attention to the model that allows the measurement errors among any items to be correlated.

Table 4. LISREL Estimates (Standardized Coefficients) for the Explanation of
'Good Job' Attainment and Employee Work Orientation (n=421)

Variables	Dep = Good Job		Dep = Work Orientation	
	r	b	r	b
Human & Social Capitals				
Years of Schooling	0.581***	0.642***	0.131**	-0.202**
Weak Tie	0.233***	0.149***	0.106*	0.007
Demographics				
Male	0.330***	0.247***	-0.025	-0.211***
Age	-0.063	0.240***	0.121*	0.144**
Job Characteristics				
Good Job			0.481***	0.637***
Union Member			0.063	0.040
Public Sector			0.114*	0.026
Hours Worked			0.009	-0.006
Job Opportunity			0.166***	0.197***
R^2	0.474		0.338	
x^2	500.284 (d.f. = 108) (p<0.001) [x^2 for Independence Model (d.f. = 136) = 2,352.621]			
Model Fit Statistics	GFI=0.878; AGFI=0.827; CFI=0.823; IFI=0.825			

note: * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$, one-tailed test.

index in the predicted directions. To reiterate: the employees who have more educational attainment, who got a job via weak ties, who are males and who are older do obtain better jobs than their counterparts. As would be normally expected, human capital evidenced by educational attainment has the strongest impact among them. All the four predictors are emphasized as critical antecedents of a good-job attainment in the literature and, as such, this supports for the explanatory ability and thereby construct validity, of the suggested index.

Our third and final question concerns how successful the suggested index is in explaining employee work orientation, the most important consequence of a job attainment in the labor market[6]. As Table 4 indicates, after controlling for the effects of human capital, social capital and two demographic variables, the suggested index has by far the largest effects on work

6) Note that the result concerning the effect of years of schooling on work orientation needs to be interpreted with caution, since it is highly likely to be a statistical artifact resulting from the flip of signs between the significant correlation and structural coefficients.

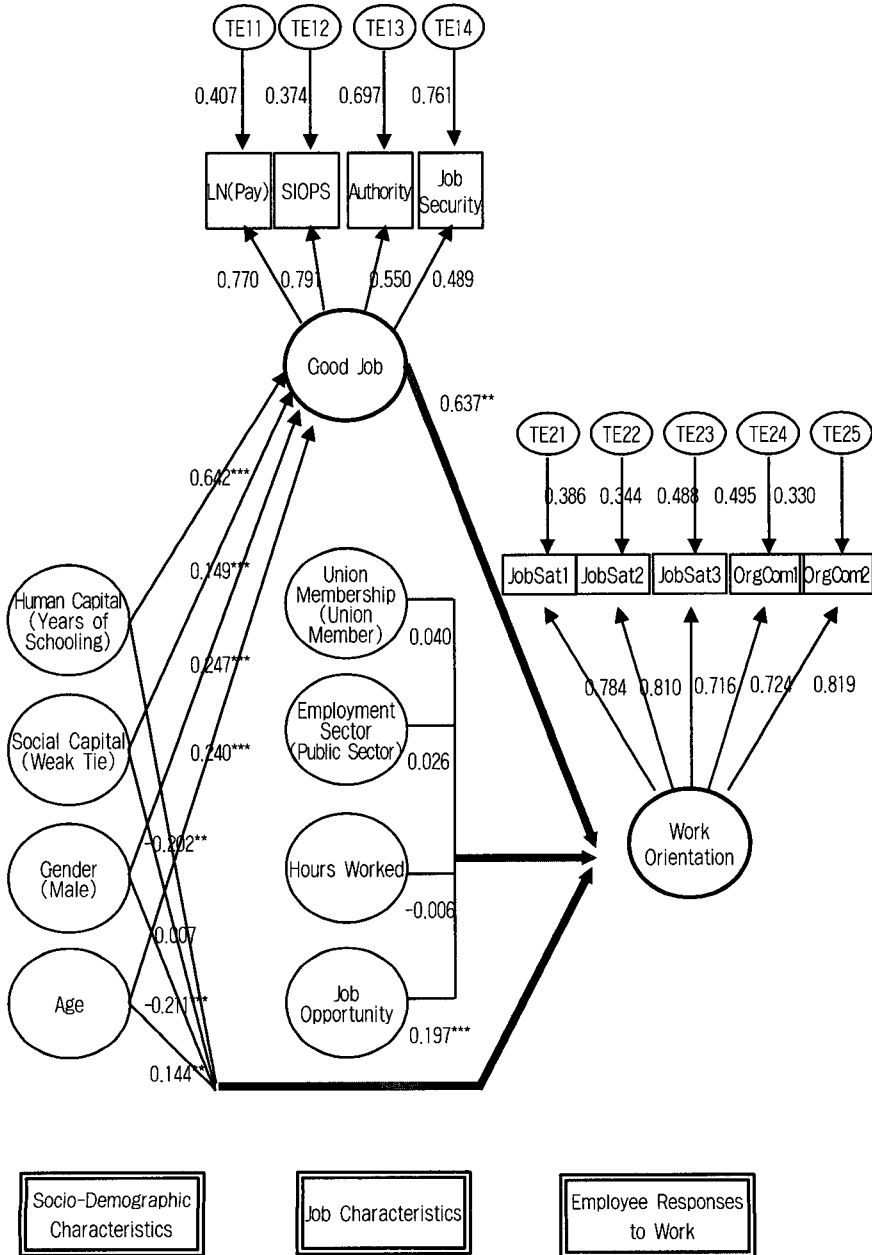Figure 2. Causes and Consequences of the 'Good Job' Attainment

Table 5. Confirmatory Factor Analyses for Competing Models of 'Good Job'
and Employee Work Orientation (n=421)[a]

Models	χ^2	d.f.	GFI	AGFI	CFI	IFI
(M0). Null Model	1,619.160	36	—	—	—	—
(M1). 1-Factor Model	341.511 (p<0.000)	27	0.824	0.706	0.801	0.802
(M2). 2-Factor Model[b]	133.505 (p<0.000)	26	0.934	0.887	0.932	0.933

note: [a] Increment of model fit statistics larger than 0.01 is regarded as substantively significant in conventional standard (Widaman, 1985).
      [b] Correlation between the two latent factors = 0.489 (p<0.001).

orientation[7]. As a matter of fact, the impact of the suggested index is 2.37 times of the aggregated impact of the remaining four job characteristics. In other words, the employees who attained good jobs maintain positive affective orientations to their jobs and employing organizations, to an unprecedented extent. To emphasize, the suggested index of a good job is the single most important explanatory variable for work orientation, whereas other job characteristics have only invisible impacts. This finding, along with the finding on the antecedents, provides a strong case to support for the construct validity of the suggested index of a good job.

VI. Discussion

Scholars interested in a 'good job' have long been producing, to our surprise, fragmented speculations and research findings in the relative absence

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7) A comment is in order with respect to the moderate amount of correlation (r=0.481, p<0.001) observed between the suggested index and work orientation. Although good job and work orientation are conceptually independent from each other, a possibility still remains that the two outcome or endogenous variables have an empirical overlap. In fact, this possibility is not unfounded, considering the actual likelihood that the two constructs are conceptually distinct but also highly correlated. They are likely to be correlated because they are causally related and they have many causes in common. To test for the distinctiveness between the two constructs on a firmer basis, therefore, a confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted and a few competing, nested models were compared one another. As seen in Table 5, the 2-factor model turned out to have the best fit than any other models. Substantially, this means that the good-job index and work orientation are not only conceptually but also empirically distinct constructs that could be simultaneously specified as endogenous variables in the same model.

of an overarching conceptualization and rigorous empirical evaluation. A few serious attempts to produce a composite index of a good job, if any, were often plagued with several problems, some theoretical and others analytical. This tendency has prevented the development of fruitful understandings on what the defining characteristics of a good job are and what the causes and consequences are from the attainment of such job. Most important, a comprehensive index that encompasses a few critical characteristics based on some solid theoretical underpinnings was in thirsty wants. The current study was prompted by this need and we tried to meet the need by constructing such index and subsequently validating it with respect to its constituent attributes, antecedents and a consequence.

Analysis of the 2004 KGSS data by developing and estimating a covariance structure model has yielded some noteworthy findings. In particular, the hallmarks or defining characteristics of a good job, as long as Korean employees are concerned, include wage, occupational prestige, authority and job security. Further, the composite index of a good job consisting of these characteristics is valid in three different respects: (1) it is measured not by other extraneous job characteristics but by the four crucial characteristics; (2) it is well accounted for by a few theoretically solid antecedents, especially human capital and social capital; (3) it operates as the single most important explanatory variable for the most salient outcome of employee work orientation. As such, the findings provide support for the discriminant-convergent validity and construct validity of the suggested index. At least four implications spring from these findings and each of these needs to be fully discussed now.

First, the finding that wage, occupational prestige, authority and job security are the defining characteristics of a good job suggests that Weberian approach to the good-job construct formation is convincing. This study suggested relying on Weberian conceptualization under the assumption that economic, social and political dimensions would probably be the most critical aspects of a good job, as well as class, which facilitate to rank order diverse jobs for one thing and to rate a worker's overall success in the competitive labor market for another. Consistent with this assumption, wage, occupational

prestige and authority, each representing economic, social and political dimensions, actually turned out to be 'reduced' into the factor configuration of a good job. The understanding that a good job and class are not identical phenomena and that the three dimensions are unlikely to be exhaustive enough, however, has urged us to take into account a set of other job characteristics (i.e., job security, union membership, employment sector, hours worked and job opportunity), as well, in constructing an index. Interestingly enough, an EFA for these characteristics as a whole on an equivalent basis has added only one more attribute (i.e., job security), besides the three attributes, for the index. This implies that the three attributes are critical, as hypothesized and relatively little is untapped by them. The only exception was job security, which suggests that it certainly is a residual conceptual domain not properly captured by the three attributes.

We are not quite sure if the finding about job security is unique to our sample. Both negative and positive reactions might be provided to this query. In the negative side, a drastic transformation of the employment practices towards a merit-oriented one, which has been taking place almost all over the world for the last couple decades, could have contributed to the importance of secure jobs to an unprecedented extent among the Korean employees. In the positive side, on the other hand, secure jobs would be more likely to be important to Korean employees due mostly to the fact that a lot of Korean workers were exposed to severe layoffs after the late Korean economic crisis of 1997. Regardless of which of the two is more plausible, we are still left with the fact that economic, social and political dimensions are crucial and that job security is one more crucial attribute of a good job insofar as Korean workers are concerned.

As indicated earlier, the findings in this study also have some implication for the long-lasting debate between the dualist and compensating differentials arguments. Our measure of the "goodness" of a job was a number of desirable job features and almost all those features, whether they are material or nonmaterial, showed positive and strong intercorrelations (see Table 2 and 3). This suggests that employers are not actually compensating for the absence of benefits with higher pay; a job that is bad on one dimension tends

to be bad on others, as well (Hudson, 1998). Stated in another way, the "good" work settings are consistently associated with greater occupational prestige, greater authority exercise, greater job security, union contract, public-sector employment, less work hours and greater job opportunity, in addition to greater amount of pay, which are clearly better than those found in the "bad" work settings. Our finding is consistent with Kalleberg and his colleagues (2000) and Mueller and MuDuff (2002), as well, who failed to observe empirical support for the compensating differentials argument.

Second, it should be emphasized that the index of a good job suggested in this study, unlike other indices in other studies, is both parsimonious and theoretically solid. As spelled out several times, we argued for a parsimonious and theoretically sound index, since previous indices were often plagued with the drawback of redundant and excessively empirical orientations. Thus we tried to keep only the small number of essential job characteristics in constructing an index from the outset. Obviously, such index would be almost useless if it fails to properly account for variations in the underlying construct and other variables in the causal chain. If the index succeeds in explaining a substantial amount of explained variances in the related variables, however, it remains nothing much to be desired. As shown in the results above, not merely did our index based on four crucial attributes explain a substantial amount of variance in the latent variable of a good job, but it was also explained by a few salient variables in the proposed model[8]. A plenty of evidence that include explained variances, model fit statistics and structural coefficients operating significantly in the predicted directions support for the overall performance of the model and consequently the empirical validity of the suggested index. We dare to say that the performance of the suggested index is acceptable when we consider the relatively small number of variables specified in the model and the relatively small number of cases analyzed for the study. With a succinct and

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8) Although we were not initially interested in assessing the so-call "contented female workers" argument (Crosby, 1982; Hodson, 1989; Phelan, 1994; Mueller and Wallace, 1996), the findings in this study provide support for the argument. As shown in Table 4, female workers are more attached to their jobs and employing organizations, despites their bad job situations relative to their male counterparts.

unsaturated model based on small observations, one is unlikely to obtain pretty high empirical performances (Bentler, 1990).

Third, the findings of this study have an added value due to the nature of the data analyzed. It is customary in labor market studies to focus only on some specific groups of workers in some specific organizations or territories. Certainly, this restriction is almost inevitable considering the practical constraints with which researchers are ordinarily faced: the limited amount of resources (budget, time, etc.) obliges them to focus on some confined groups of workers. Granted that the restriction is inevitable, however, it can in no way be desirable. This is simply because such restriction or confinement in data is eventually destined to end up with research findings quite specific to the sample, thereby jeopardizing the generality of their findings. As indicated earlier, the 2004 KGSS, the data we used, is distinct from other data since it comes from a truly representative national sample survey that is conducted by adhering to full probability sampling and stringent fieldwork procedures (see Kim, 2004). As such, the wage earners analyzed in this study encompass all sorts of employees in diverse occupational categories in diverse workplaces all over the country. This diversity or extended radius guarantees more variations in the variables, which consequently contributes to the enhancement of generalizability of the findings in this study.

Fourth, a final word of notice should be made with respect the utility of the global, comprehensive index of a good job suggested in this study. The area of a good job appears to be no exception to other areas in that a plethora of conceptualizations and operationalizations coexist and often compete with each other in the virtual absence of a standardized one. Obviously, this situation operates as a serious threat to the comparability of research findings and the production of cumulative knowledge on the topic. To put it simply, without a standardized index that is based on rigorous construction and validation procedures, one can hardly compare several findings and consequently arrive at a cumulative knowledge. We believe we tried to construct an index that approximates the standardized one. This belief comes from a few major thrusts of this study that attempt to overcome the shortcomings inherent in previous studies: not theory- but data-driven

orientations; non-parsimonious conceptualization; failure to validate the index with respect to both causes and consequences of a job attainment; focus on specific facets of job desirability; failure to assess relative weights of different attributes; failure to distinguish between wage earners and self-employees in validations. To characterize our index this way, however, does not necessarily mean that it is flawless and has already been standardized. On the contrary, we acknowledge that our index might contain several flaws and is far from being standardized yet. As a matter of fact, the current study was only the first validation attempt and hopefully, further attempts should be made from now on by using different samples in different societies in different times. In this process, the index might have to be modified and revised to a considerable extent in terms of its attributes and measurements. If this study could be regarded as a stepping stone, if not a finished product, for this enduring endeavor, we believe that it has fully achieved its original purpose of constructing an index of a good job that is sound on both theoretical and psychometrical grounds.

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Attributes of a 'Good Job':
Construct Formation and Validation in South Korea

Sang-Wook Kim · Hanam Phang

The research reported in this paper suggests an index of a 'good job' and validates it in several different ways. Not much is known yet, it is emphasized, about what the defining characteristics of a good job are and what the causes and major consequences are resulting from the attainment of such job. This is not merely because relatively little attention has been paid to construct a usable index, but also because a few studies, if any, were often plagued with several limitations, some theoretical and other analytical. As a consequence, fragmented speculations and research findings tended to flourish in the shortage of an overarching conceptualization and rigorous empirical assessment. In particular, a comprehensive index that encompasses a few critical job characteristics based on some solid theoretical underpinnings was in thirsty want. To relieve this want, the current study tries to formulate such index and validate it. A covariance structure analysis of representative national sample survey (Korean General Social Survey) data in South Korea indicates that wage, occupational prestige, authority and job security are the defining characteristics of a good job and that the index consisting of these characteristics is generally valid with respect to its constituent attributes, antecedents and a consequence, thereby supporting its discriminant-convergent and construct validities. The findings are interpreted with providing a few substantive implications stemming from them.

Key Words: good job, index, indicators, validation, income, occupational prestige, workplace authority, job security, KGSS