JOURNAL OF ASIAN SOCIOLOGY
Volume 49 | Number 1 | March 2020, 57-74
DOI 10.21588/jas/2020.49.1.003 **Article**

Life Satisfaction, Occupation and Gender*

Seulki Choi | KDI School of Public Policy and Management
Kyungwon Lim | Korea Development Institute

This study aims to understand the impacts of wages and occupational prestige on life satisfaction among wage workers by occupation and gender in South Korea using data from the Korea Labor and Income Panel Study (KLIPS) and analyzing it with a fixed effects ordered logit analysis. The results show that wage positively affects life satisfaction for both male and female workers but that it matters more for women. The effects are also different by occupation. Wage is more significant in the life satisfaction of male managers and clerks. Regarding prestige, it has no significant impact on the life satisfaction of male workers, but it affects female workers. By occupation, it matters more for managers, professionals, and semi-professionals but for clerks, it does not affect much among male employees. On the other hand, it dominates all occupations among female workers, so the differences in life satisfaction by occupation amongst women can be said to be mainly due to occupational prestige.

Keywords: *gender, life satisfaction, occupational prestige, wage*

*We are grateful to the KDI School of Public Policy and Management for providing financial support [20160055]. We also thank to the anonymous reviewers for their valuable comments.

Introduction

It is neither wealth nor splendor but tranquility and occupation which give you happiness.
—Thomas Jefferson

Occupation alone is happiness.
—Samuel Johnson

The sayings above tell us that happiness can be derived from one's occupation. Many workers spend approximately one third of their time at their place of work during the workday, which is a significant amount of time that adds up to a large part of their lives. It is therefore possible to consider occupation as a very significant determinant of one's happiness or level of life satisfaction. According to a report by CareerBliss featured in Forbes magazine in 2017, the so-called "happiest job" is marketing specialist with recruiter as a close second. On the opposite end of the spectrum, the toughest job is home health aide.[1] What determines these variations of happiness by occupation? Wages could be the single most important factor, but paychecks are not enough to understand the full variation. We need to see the internal and external conditions of each occupation. Internally, a good working environment may have a positive effect on workers' happiness. Externally, a good reputation may have a positive effect as well.

This article intends to study the mechanisms of occupation and happiness—measured as life satisfaction—considering wage, internal working environment, and external occupational prestige as influencing factors. We will also examine whether these factors have different effects depending on gender. We analyze individual panel data from the Korea Labor and Income Panel Study (KLIPS) collected from 1998 to 2015. Based on the data, statistical results can be reported by using regression analysis with a fixed effects ordered logistic regression model. Discussion and conclusion will follow.

[1] More information could be found here: https://www.forbes.com/sites/karstenstrauss/2017/03/13/the-happiest-jobs-of-2017/#3bf60eb49966

Literature Review

It is well known that income is positively associated with an individual's level of life satisfaction (Veenhoven 1994; Haring, Stock, and Okun 1984; Diener et al. 1993). In general, it could be said that the higher the wage, the higher the level of life satisfaction. In other words, workers engaged in well-paid occupations would have higher levels of satisfaction in life.

Why would employees whose occupations are well-paid have higher levels of life satisfaction? There are several explanations. The first is that wages serve as the main source of material affluence. Differences in earning determine the extent to which people enjoy material affluence. Thus, the higher the wage an individual earns, the more necessities, commercial goods, and leisure activities they would be able to enjoy (George 1992; Pinquart and Sörensen 2000). Conversely, low wages bring about economic constraints leading to low material resources that reduce one's subjective well-being (Pearlin et al. 1981). The utility perspective also suggests that material affluence matters by explaining that one's utility depends on one's commodity bundle as determined by his or her budget constraints.

The second reason higher wages suggest higher levels of life satisfaction is their basis for comparison with others. Every person tends to compare his or her abilities with those of others. Social comparison theory, proposed by Leon Festinger in 1954, presents two kinds of comparison among people: downward and upward comparison. A comparison with those who are worse off is called "downward comparison" and leads to higher levels of life satisfaction (Stewart et al. 2013). On the other hand, upward comparison causes a negative impact on one's level of life satisfaction (Frieswijk et al. 2004). Based on this theory, workers who more often compare themselves with others in a downward way have higher levels of life satisfaction, while those who do so in an upward way become dissatisfied with their lives. In other words, it could be said that well-paid workers are likely to be more satisfied with their lives.

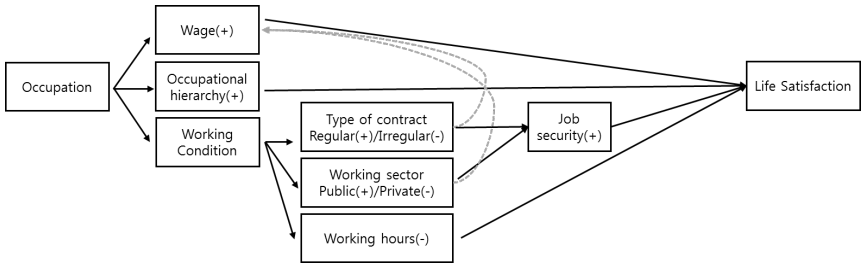
Each occupation is located at a different position within the hierarchy of occupational prestige. This hierarchy is built not on subjective perception but on popular evaluation. Even at the same wage level, external evaluation of an occupation—that is, a job's prestige—would also be responsible for a difference in the level of life satisfaction by occupation. There are two reasons that the level of life satisfaction varies by prestige. One reason is social comparison. Individuals compare themselves in terms of not only income or

wage but also their status (Guven and Sørensen 2012). The other reason hinges on the respect they receive from others. Social status, often measured by occupational prestige, has been defined as respect from others (Anderson, Hildreth, and Howland 2015). Based on this definition, it seems that more prestigious occupations would tend to earn more respect and admiration, with research showing that respect received has a positive effect on one's level of life satisfaction (Allain et al. 1996; Anderson et al. 2012). Also, the respect received at work reduces work stress and supports the positive relationship between one's level of life satisfaction and occupational prestige.

Apart from wage and occupational prestige, internal working conditions of a job could be a determinant of workers' life satisfaction. The work environment can be defined by various aspects from looking at contract type to determine whether it is a regular or irregular job, the hours of work, to whether the work belongs to the private or public sector. First, according to the type of contract, there are two kinds of workers: regular or irregular. Irregular workers suffer from several disadvantages which are detrimental to their life satisfaction: (1) job insecurity (Witte 1999; Burchell, Ladipo, and Wilkinson 2005) and (2) more dangerous and harder work (Boyce et al. 2007; Choi 2014). Thus, it is argued that irregular workers are less satisfied with their lives than regular workers are (Dawson, Veliziotis, and Hopkins 2017).

Second, considering the effects of long working hours on health, stress, and family life, longer working hours would reduce the level of life satisfaction of workers, meaning that the level of life satisfaction is negatively associated with long hours of work. Many studies show substantial evidence of the negative relationship (Clark and Oswald 1996; Golden and Wiens-Tuers 2008; Scollon and King 2004). However, there have been disagreements on the relationship between these two. In particular, some argue that demographic and objective characteristics of each individual moderates the impact of working hours (Pereira and Coelho 2013) with gender being one of such characteristics. Thus, we anticipate in our study that working hours would have differing effects on the level of life satisfaction by gender.

Third, there are differences in the work environment and characteristics of work between the public and private sectors. One of the noticeable differences is job security, which is higher in the public sector than in the private sector (Munnell and Fraenkel 2013; Luechinger, Meier, and Stutzer 2010). Also, public sector workers reliably earn higher wages than private sector employees do (Zawojska 2008; Tansel 2005). Considering that the public sector offers more job security and higher salaries, public sector workers would likely be more satisfied with their jobs and lives than those



1) + (positive impact), - (negative impact)

2) Type of contract and working sector determine one's wage, that is, they have an indirect impact on life satisfaction involving wage effect. Thus, we draw the dotted line between those two and wage.

Fig. 1.—illustrates how each occupational feature affects one's life satisfaction as mentioned above.

working in private companies.

By reviewing previous literature, we were able to find clues as to the impacts of wage and occupational prestige on the level of life satisfaction. Previous findings imply that both positively affect an individual's level of satisfaction so that those working in higher paid and more prestigious occupations would have higher levels of life satisfaction. If so, how important do workers in each occupation consider wage and prestige to their level of life satisfaction? Does it vary by occupation? The descriptive and empirical studies conducted to answer these questions are described in the following chapters.

Data, Variables, and Method

Data

Data from the Korea Labor Income and Panel Study (KLIPS) was used for this study. The KLIPS is a longitudinal survey of members from 5,000 households representing South Korean adults. It mainly takes samples from the urban areas in South Korea. It has annually investigated economic activities, movements in the labor market, education, job training, and social lives of individuals since 1998.

However, KLIPS had an attrition problem and had limitations due to

sampling only from urban areas. Thus, KLIPS carried out additional sampling in 2009, expanding its target population from the urban to the entirety of South Korea based on the Korea Census in 2005. The final sample of KLIPS, thus, is 6,721 households including 1,415 additional samples.

The analytical sample will be limited to the respondents who were currently employed at the time of the survey from 1998 to 2015. It consists of 13,190 respondents with 82,797 observations.

Variables

The dependent variable is overall life satisfaction. To measure it, the research uses a single question: "How generally satisfied are you with your life?" Although some would argue that using a single measure item is inappropriate, much preceding literature has supported its reliability for research (Wanous, Reichers, and Hudy 1997; Mark and Nagy 2002; Dolbier et al. 2005). For the question, respondents were able to choose from 1(very satisfied) to 5 (very dissatisfied). In order to interpret regression results more conveniently, the rating of answers was recast in reverse order so that a higher number would indicate higher life satisfaction.

The key independent variables that this paper was interested in are occupation dummies, wage, and occupational prestige. Occupation dummies are used to check the difference in life satisfaction by occupation. They follow one-digit classification with six groups: group 1 (managers), group 2 (professionals), group 3 (semi-professionals), group 4 (clerks), group 5(service and sales workers), and group 6 (manual workers).[2]

Wage is measured by monthly wage measured in million won in the South Korean currency. In order to reflect the effect of annual inflation, it was corrected with the GDP deflator relative to 2010. In addition to regular payments, the monthly wage contains workers' overtime pay. The average monthly wage of the analytical samples is 1.82 million Korean Won.

To capture occupational prestige from the outside, we adopt the occupational prestige score in South Korea constructed by Yoo and Kim in 2006, which has been used in other studies (Jung 2009; Jeong and Kang 2015; Yu and Shin 2012). It ranges from 0 to 99.99 with an average of 41.43. The

[2] Manual worker is the group composed of four occupations: skilled agricultural, forestry, and fishery workers (6), craft and related trades workers (7), plant, machine operators, and assemblers (8), and elementary occupations (9).

highest score corresponded to medical experts, except for nurses, whose score is 99.99 and the lowest score corresponded to elementary occupations in agriculture, forestry, and fishery industry and whose score is 0.74.

Other job characteristics such as a regular job dummy, hours of work, and a public sector dummy were also included. A regular job dummy consists of 1 (regular) and 0 (irregular) based on the subjective response in KLIPS. According to Table 1, 68 percent of workers were regular employees.

KLIPS has weekly working hours of workers as a continuous variable. We simplify it into four categories: fewer than 40 hours, 40-45 hours, 46-52 hours, and more than 52 hours a week. The 40-45 hour range was used as the

Table 1
Descriptive Statistics

Variable	Mean	S.D.	Max	Min	Observations
Life satisfaction (1-5, five point scale)	3.31	0.64	5	1	82382
Occupation (dummies)					
Manager	0.02	0.12	1	0	82797
Professional	0.14	0.34	1	0	82797
Semi-professional	0.09	0.29	1	0	82797
Clerk	0.19	0.40	1	0	82797
Sale and service worker	0.14	0.35	1	0	82797
Manual worker	0.41	0.49	1	0	82797
Monthly wage (one million won)	1.82	1.39	55	0	82797
Occupational prestige	41.43	14.24	99.99	0.74	82048
Regular job (dummy)	0.68	0.47	1	0	78677
Weekly hours of work					
less than 40 hours	0.11	0.32	1	0	82797
40–45 hours	0.35	0.48	1	0	82797
46–52 hours	0.22	0.41	1	0	82797
More than 52 hours	0.31	0.46	1	0	82797
Public sector (dummy)	0.13	0.34	1	0	82698
Male (dummy)	0.60	0.49	1	0	82797
Age	40.71	12.07	86	15	82797
Spouse (dummy)	0.67	0.47	1	0	82797
College graduate (dummy)	0.26	0.44	1	0	82797

reference category for laborers who work 40 hours per week.

Finally, a public sector dummy was added to look into the life satisfaction gap between private and public workers because the job requirements and working environments of public sector workers are quite different from those of private sector workers. Workers engaged in the government or public institutions were indicated as 1, and those otherwise were indicated as 0. Based on the sample, 13 percent of all workers work with the government or in public institutions.

Statistical Model

In this study, a fixed effects ordered logistic regression[3] was adopted in order to control for the impact of unobserved personal characteristics likely to cause omitted variable bias. The formula of the analytical model is presented below.

$$LS_{it} = \alpha + \beta X_{it} + C_i + \varepsilon_{it}$$

Where LS_{it} = Overall life satisfaction
X_{it} = Independent variables
C_i = time-invariant unobserved characteristics
ε_{it} = random error
of each individual, i at t period

LS_{it} is life satisfaction of *i,* which means each individual, at t period. X_{it} indicates the group of independent variables including demographic traits, occupation dummies, a monthly wage, occupational prestige, and other job characteristics. Among independent variables, demographic traits are default control variables in our models. C_i refers to an individual's time-invariant unobserved characteristics and ε_{it} represents random error.

The analytical strategy is as follows. First, compare the effect of occupation by types by comparing them to manual jobs after controlling only for age, marital status, and educational attainment. Second, compare the effects of wage instead of adding occupation by types. Through these two models, we can capture the gross effect of occupation and wage separately. Third, we will see the changes of coefficients by adding occupation dummies

[3] This research used Stata commands offered by Baetschmann et al. (2011) for a fixed effects ordered logistic regression.

and wages at the same time. Fourth, we will add the external evaluation variable—the occupational prestige score—and watch for changes in the coefficients of each occupation dummy and a wage. Finally, we will add internal working condition variables. These analytical models are applied to male and female workers separately.

Findings

Table 2
Comparative Statistics of Main Variables by Occupation and Gender

Occupations	Life satisfaction (Average)		Monthly wage (Average)		Occupational Prestige (Average)		Working hours (Average)		Regular Workers (Percentage)	
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Manager	3.59 (3.594)	3.68	3.77	2.78	82.02	79.90	48.47	43.48	95.5%	88.2%
Professional	3.59 (3.586)	3.56	3.00	1.93	62.46	56.55	46.68	42.54	90.8%	83.7%
Semi-professional	3.45	3.44	2.26	1.36	50.89	50.88	48.16	41.67	83.9%	71.5%
Clerk	3.49	3.44	2.58	1.56	42.65	41.11	49.03	44.60	91.2%	80.2%
Sale and Service	3.28	3.16	1.92	1.04	40.02	34.03	54.39	47.57	72.6%	39.9%
Manual worker	3.20	3.06	1.79	0.87	36.62	24.53	51.17	45.04	60.8%	40.7%

We round the values for the first four variables to 2 decimal places but we leave those for manager and professional's average life satisfaction to 3 decimal places in parentheses to compare both.

Table 2 shows the levels of life satisfaction, wage, occupational prestige, and working hours, in addition to the proportion of those who are employed in a regular job (as opposed to an irregular position) by occupation and gender. It suggests that the level of life satisfaction is positively associated with monthly wage and occupational prestige. Managers tend to have the highest levels of life satisfaction, wage, and prestige, all at the same time. They are followed by professionals. One interesting point is revealed between semi-professionals and clerks. They have very similar levels of life satisfaction while their levels of wage and occupation prestige are different. Semi-

Table 3
Regression Analysis for Male Wage Workers

	Model (1)	Model (2)	Model (3)	Model (4)	Model (5)
Age	0.093*** (0.004)	0.071*** (0.005)	0.072*** (0.005)	0.073*** (0.005)	0.075*** (0.006)
Spouse	0.694*** (0.064)	0.646*** (0.064)	0.631*** (0.065)	0.629*** (0.065)	0.624*** (0.067)
College	-0.134 (0.143)	-0.170 (0.143)	-0.219 (0.142)	-0.222 (0.142)	-0.284+ (0.151)
Occupation dummies (Reference – manual workers)	–	–	–	–	–
Manager	0.476** (0.166)		0.353* (0.167)	0.151 (0.217)	0.159 (0.228)
Professional	0.444*** (0.120)		0.393** (0.120)	0.279* (0.139)	0.264+ (0.144)
Semi-professional	0.391*** (0.100)		0.383*** (0.099)	0.319** (0.109)	0.305** (0.112)
Clerk	0.334*** (0.089)		0.286** (0.088)	0.258** (0.089)	0.200* (0.091)
Sale and service	-0.016 (0.094)		-0.028 (0.093)	-0.035 (0.093)	-0.043 (0.096)
Monthly wage		0.180*** (0.031)	0.172*** (0.031)	0.169*** (0.031)	0.142*** (0.032)
Occupational prestige				0.005 (0.003)	0.002 (0.003)
Regular					0.190*** (0.051)
Weekly hours of work					
Less than 40 hours					-0.227*** (0.066)
40- 45 hours(Reference)	–	–	–	–	–
46 – 52 hours					-0.095** (0.033)
more than 52 hours					-0.147*** (0.035)
Public sector					-0.001 (0.077)
Observations	49016	49505	49016	49010	45812
The number of respondents	7212	7149	7149	7146	7056

Standard errors in parentheses
* $p < 0.10$, * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

Table 4
Regression Analysis for Female Wage Workers

	Model (6)	Model (7)	Model (8)	Model (9)	Model (10)
Age	0.116*** (0.005)	0.102*** (0.005)	0.102*** (0.005)	0.102*** (0.005)	0.102*** (0.006)
Spouse	0.335*** (0.073)	0.306*** (0.074)	0.314*** (0.074)	0.310*** (0.074)	0.290*** (0.075)
College	-0.055 (0.146)	-0.108 (0.145)	-0.152 (0.147)	-0.162 (0.148)	-0.144 (0.157)
Occupation dummies (Reference – manual workers)	–	–	–	–	–
Manager	-0.562 (0.474)		-0.672 (0.475)	-0.993+ (0.511)	-1.072+ (0.589)
Professional	0.365** (0.139)		0.320* (0.139)	0.138 (0.174)	0.077 (0.178)
Semi-professional	0.258* (0.122)		0.249* (0.122)	0.094 (0.152)	0.046 (0.155)
Clerk	0.337** (0.111)		0.307** (0.110)	0.220+ (0.121)	0.119 (0.125)
Sale and service	-0.007 (0.078)		-0.008 (0.078)	-0.069 (0.086)	-0.043 (0.089)
Monthly wage		0.200*** (0.041)	0.209*** (0.040)	0.205*** (0.040)	0.208*** (0.043)
Occupational prestige				0.006+ (0.004)	0.006 (0.004)
Regular					0.155** (0.052)
Weekly hours of work					
Less than 40 hours					0.008 (0.060)
40- 45 hours (Reference)	–	–	–	–	–
46 – 52 hours					-0.000 (0.046)
more than 52 hours					-0.130** (0.050)
Public sector					-0.027 (0.086)
Observations	32628	32877	32628	32628	30833
The number of respondents	5959	5921	5921	5921	5848

Standard errors in parentheses
* $p < 0.10$, * $p < 0.05$, ** $p < 0.01$, *** $p < 0.001$

professionals earn less than clerks but the position boasts a higher level of prestige. On the other hand, clerks have a lower score than semi-professionals in terms of their occupational prestige, but its level of wages is higher. At this point, it could be seen that the level of life satisfaction of semi-professionals is determined more by occupational prestige while wage is more influential for that of clerks. The next stage would attempt to find the answers for the cases of other occupations by conducting empirical analysis.

Model (1) in Table 3 shows the effects of occupation dummies after controlling for age, marital status, and educational attainment for male wage workers. The equivalent model for female wage workers is model (6) in table 4.

According to model (1), for male wage workers, the highest level of life satisfaction is enjoyed by managers, followed by professionals, semi-professionals, and clerks. The average level of life satisfaction among sales and service job employees is not statistically different from that of manual workers, meaning that they are not systematically different from each other and that they share the lowest satisfaction among occupations.

According to model (6), for female wage workers, the level of life satisfaction among managers was not systematically different from that of manual workers. This means that female managers appeared to have the lowest satisfaction among occupations, along with manual workers. However, because of the very small number of female managers in the dataset, it is not easy to say whether there is no difference between managers and manual workers in terms of life satisfaction level. Among female workers, professionals, semi-professionals, and clerks have higher satisfaction than service, sales and manual workers, which is similar to their male counterparts.

Models (2) and (7) show that wages are positively associated with life satisfaction for both male and female workers and that the size of the wage coefficient of female workers is larger. A previous study has shown that income matters more for those with lower incomes and for women (Guven and Sørensen 2012). This argument could be taken to explain why female workers are more sensitive to a wage than male employees.

Models (3) and (8) include occupation dummies and a monthly wage at the same time. Since they control for the wage effect on life satisfaction, the coefficient of each occupation dummy tells us the aggregated impact of its job characteristics other than wage. First, as we are able to see that wage is a factor in increased life satisfaction in models (2) and (7), wage has a positive impact on life satisfaction when controlling for other job characteristics.

Second, the results show that the magnitude of each occupation dummy becomes smaller in comparison with models (1) and (6) due to the inclusion of a monthly wage variable. We are able to find that the life satisfaction gaps among occupations shown in models (1) and (6) are substantially due to the wage effect. Third, when it comes to looking at coefficients of occupation dummies in models (3) and (8), we discover that male workers are more satisfied with their lives than female workers due to the aggregated impact of job characteristics except for wage. For every occupation except for sales and service jobs, male workers have a higher life satisfaction level than female workers do.

Models (4) and (9) add the occupational prestige variable to models (3) and (8). First, occupational prestige has no significant impact on male employees' life satisfaction while its impact on the female employees' satisfaction is slightly significant and positive. Considering that prestige mainly comes from society or occupational prestige, this result could be evidence that it matters more for women (Guven and Sørensen 2012). Not only was it observed that the impact of prestige on life satisfaction varies by gender, but also the change in the coefficient of every occupation dummy is markedly different between men and women. In model (4), the coefficients of men who worked as managers, professionals, semi-professionals, and clerks did not lose their statistical significance, but those of women working as professionals, and semi-professionals lost statistical significance. This means that wage and occupational prestige are the main factors that make the life satisfaction gap between the women professionals' group (including semi-professionals) and manual workers.

Models (5) and (10) add variables related to internal working environment to the previous models. Specifically contract status (regular or irregular), hours of work, and public sector dummy are studied. First, for both male and female employees, regular workers have a higher level of life satisfaction than irregular workers do. This disparity in life satisfaction between regular and irregular workers could be attributed to the level of job insecurity experienced by irregular workers and the tight labor market which makes it difficult for them to find other jobs after the expiration of their contract. Second, the difference in working hours also contributes to the level of workers' life satisfaction. The impact of working hours on life satisfaction is significant but differs by gender. For male workers, dissatisfaction is prominent among those working less than the full-time standard of 40 hours per week and those who work more than 45 hours a week. However, for female workers, working less than 40 hours is not associated with an increase

or decrease in the level of their life satisfaction. In addition, for female workers, life satisfaction is not really affected even if they work for more than 45 hours unless they work more than 52 hours a week. Finally, there was no difference in the level of life satisfaction between public sector workers and private sector workers.

Discussion and Conclusion

We tried to identify the factors driving South Korean wage workers' life satisfaction, and how life satisfaction differs by occupation and gender. The occupational prestige ranking and other job characteristics such as contract status, hours of work and whether they are private or public employees were also included in the empirical models. By using KLIPS as our data source, the impacts were estimated using a fixed effects ordered logit regression approach. The empirical results showed that for working men, managers and professionals were most satisfied with their lives and for working women, life satisfaction among professionals is the highest. Moreover, it was also found that the level of wages has a positive effect on workers' life satisfaction, with a larger impact on female workers. This provides empirical evidence for the argument that wage affects women more than men, as argued by Guven and Sørensen (2012).

This research shows that wage has a positive effect on life satisfaction for employees. Also, it is found that wage is one of the substantial factors producing disparities in life satisfaction among occupations. In addition, the aggregated impact of other factors with the exception of wage was larger for men.

When it comes to occupational prestige, it matters more for women than men. Also, when this variable is included in the empirical models (4) and (9), we are able to see that the life satisfaction gaps among occupations were diminished, specifically for women.

For both men and women, regular workers were generally more satisfied with their lives rather than irregular workers. The influence of hours of work on life satisfaction also varies by gender. For men, dissatisfaction could be observed not only when they work long hours but also when they work less than the regular weekly 40 hours in South Korea. On the other hand, the level of life satisfaction among female workers is affected only by excessive work hours, specifically, more than 52 hours a week. Finally, whether one's job is in the public or private sector does not influence the level of life satisfaction

either male and female employees.

Finally, we should mention our caution regarding the limitations of the study. First, we analyze only wage workers. There are other types of workers in the labor market such as self-employed workers and those with special employment, which have characteristics of self-employed and wage workers together. As such, occupations such as truck drivers or insurance salespersons are not included in the present study. We should be cautious in interpreting the results as they apply only to the targeted population.

Additionally, there is an issue of data limitation. Female managers have a negative coefficient in the regression model. But we failed to find a statistically significant gross effect from female managers in model 6 and found only a marginal negative effect from female managers in models 9 and 10 (p values are between 0.05~0.1). It may be true that female managers are not penalized in the context of life satisfaction. However these results may stem from a lack of observation in the sample. This could be linked to the smaller number of female managers in South Korea in general. When more samples for the managerial job are accumulated as time goes on, it would be possible to confirm the negative effects. Despite the limitations of this study due to a small number of samples of female managers, we are able to provide promising explanations as for why they have a negative coefficient by referring to Brockmann et al. (2018)'s results: women in management have less spare time than that male managers do, 2) declining fertility between 35 and 45 years old when their careers start. [4]

Finally, there is a measurement issue as well. This study captures the working environment partially and indirectly. Instead of measuring the degree of autonomy, safety, cleanness, and so forth at working place, a regular job dummy, working hours, and a public sector dummy were used to measure the working conditions. Thus it was not easy to fully reflect the impact of the working environment on life satisfaction through the variables presented. It will be safer to use the variables for the working environment as control variables in future studies.

(*Submitted*: September 25, 2019; *Revised*: March 1, 2020; *Accepted*: March 1, 2020)

[4] Women tend to sacrifice their time for their careers as well as for their household lives so managerial positions that traditionally provide less spare time than that of other occupations may be unpopular among women. It might cause conflicts in balancing work and home life.

References

Allain, T. J., J. A. Matenga, Z. Gomo, D. J. Adamchak, and A. O. Wilson. 1996. "Determinants of Happiness and Life Satisfaction in Elderly Zimbabweans." *The Central African Journal of Medicine* 42 (11): 308–11.

Anderson, C., M. W. Kraus, a. D. Galinsky, and D. Keltner. 2012. "The Local-Ladder Effect: Social Status and Subjective Well-Being." *Psychological Science* 23: 764–71.

Anderson, Cameron, John Angus D. Hildreth, and Laura Howland. 2015. "Is the Desire for Status a Fundamental Human Motive? A Review of the Empirical Literature." *Psychological Bulletin* 141 (3): 574–601.

Baetschmann, Gregori, Kevin E. Staub, and Rainer Winkelmann. 2011. "Consistent estimation of the fixed effects ordered logit model Consistent estimation of the fixed effects ordered logit model." *IZA Discussion Paper* 5443.

Boyce, Anthony S., Ann Marie Ryan, Anna L. Imus, and Frederick P. Morgeson. 2007. "'Temporary Worker, Permanent Loser?' A Model of the Stigmatization of Temporary Workers." *Journal of Management* 33 (1): 5–29.

Brockmann, Hilke, Anne-Maren Koch, Adele Diederich, and Christofer Edling, 2018, "Why Managerial Women Are Less Happy Than Managerial Men." *Journal of Happiness Studies* 19(3): 755-79.

Burchell, Brendan, David Ladipo, and Frank Wilkinson. 2005. "Job Insecurity and Work Intensification." In *Job Insecurity and Work Intensification*, 8–137.

Choi, Youngjin. 2014. "High-risk work, cultural conflicts and labor mobility: The experiences of foreign workers in the shipyard industry on the Korean East Coast." *International Area Studies Review* 17 (1): 57–74.

Clark, Andrew E. and Andrew J. Oswald. 1996. "Satisfaction and Comparison Income." *Journal of Public Economics* 61 (3): 359–81.

Dawson, Chris, Michail Veliziotis, and Benjamin Hopkins. 2017. "Temporary Employment, Job Satisfaction and Subjective Well-Being." *Economic and Industrial Democracy* 38 (1): 69–98.

Diener, Ed, Ed Sandvik, Larry Seidlitz, and Marissa Diener. 1993. "The Relationship between Income and Subjective Well-Being: Relative or Absolute?" *Social Indicators Research* 28 (3): 195–223.

Dolbier, Christyn L., Judith A. Webster, Katherine T. McCalister, Mark W. Mallon, and Mary A. Steinhardt. 2005. "Reliability and Validity of a Single-Item Measure of Job Satisfaction." *American Journal of Health Promotion* 19 (3): 194–98.

Frieswijk, Nynke, Bram P Buunk, Nardi Steverink, and Joris P J Slaets. 2004. "The Interpretation of Social Comparison and Its Relation to Life Satisfaction among Elderly People: Does Frailty Make a Difference?" *The Journals of Gerontology. Series B, Psychological Sciences and Social Sciences* 59 (5): 250–57.

Festinger, Leon. 1954. "A Theory of Social Comparison Processes." *Human Relations* 7 (2): 117–40.

Forbes. "The Happiest Jobs Of 2017." March 13, 2017. Retrieved October 28, 2017 (https://www.forbes.com/sites/karstenstrauss/2017/03/13/the-happiest-jobs-of-2017/#5ef656224996).

George, L. K. 1992. "Economic status and psychological well-being: A review of the literature and an agenda for future research." *Aspects of financial gerontology (pp. 69-99)*. New York: Springer.

Golden, Lonnie and Barbara Wiens-Tuers. 2008. "Overtime Work and Wellbeing at Home." *Review of Social Economy* 66 (1): 25–49

Guven, Cahit and Bent E. Sørensen. 2012. "Subjective Well-Being: Keeping Up with the Perception of the Joneses." *Social Indicators Research* 109 (3): 439–69.

Haring, Marilyn J., William A. Stock, and Morris A. Okun. 1984. "A Research Synthesis of Gender and Social Class as Correlates of Subjective Well-Being." *Human Relations* 37 (8): 645–57.

Jeong, Eunseok and Sangkyoung Kahng. (2015). "Effects of Job Loss on Self-esteem: Focusing on Gender Difference." *Health and Social Welfare Review* 35 (1): 84–109.

Jung, Dong-Il. 2005. "Occupational Qualification, Qualification Ecology, and Occupational Group Interests - The Introductions of National Technical Qualification in Korea, 1974~2004." *Korean Journal of Sociology* 43 (2): 166–202.

Luechinger, Simon, Stephan Meier, and Alois Stutzer. 2010. "Why Does Unemployment Hurt the Employed?: Evidence from the Life Satisfaction Gap between the Public and the Private Sector." *Journal of Human Resources* 45 (4): 998–1045.

Mark, S, and Mark S. Nagy. 2002. "Using a Single-Item Approach to Measure Facet Job Satisfaction." *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology* 75 (1): 77–86.

Munnell, Alicia and Rebecca Cannon Fraenkel. 2013. "Public Sector Workers and Job Security." *Center for Retirement Research, Boston College*, No.31, May 2013

Pearlin, Leonard I., Elizabeth G. Menaghan, Morton A. Lieberman, and Joseph T. Mullan. 1981. "The Stress Process." *Journal of Health and Social Behavior* 22 (4): 337–56.

Pereira, Maria C., and Filipe Coelho. 2013. "Work Hours and Well Being: An Investigation of Moderator Effects." *Social Indicators Research* 111 (1): 235–53.

Pinquart, Martin and Silvia Sörensen. 2002. "Influences of Socioeconomic Status, Social Network, and Competence on Subjective Well-Being in Later Life: A Meta-Analysis." *Psychology and Aging* 15 (2): 187–224.

Tansel, Aysit. 2005. "Public-Private Employment Choice, Wage Differentials, and Gender in Turkey." *Economic Development and Cultural Change* 53 (2): 453–77.

Scollon, Christie Napa, and Laura A. King. 2004. "Is the Good Life the Easy Life?" *Social Indicators Research* 68 (2): 127–62.

Stewart, Tara L., Judith G. Chipperfield, Joelle C. Ruthig, and Jutta Heckhausen. 2013. "Downward Social Comparison and Subjective Well-Being in Late Life: The

Moderating Role of Perceived Control." *Aging & Mental Health* 17 (3): 375–85.
Veenhoven, R. 1994. *Correlates of Happiness: 7838 Findings from 603 Studies in 69 Nations, 1991-1994*. Rotterdam: RISBO, Erasmus University
Wanous, John P, Arnon E Reichers, and Michael J Hudy. 1997. "Overall Job Satisfaction: How Good Are Single-Item Measures?" *Journal of Applied Psychology* 82 (2): 247–52.
Witte, Hans De. 1999. "Job Insecurity and Psychological Well-Being: Review of the Literature and Exploration of Some Unresolved Issues." *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology* 8 (2): 155–77.
Yu, Baeksan, and Suyeong Shin. "The Effects of Parents-Children Communication Styles According to Family Background on Teacher-Students Relationships and Occupational Aspirations" *Studies on Korean Youth* 23 (4): 51–78.
Yoo, Hongjoon, and Worlhwa Kim. 2006. "The Occupational Status Score in Korea: Past and Present" *Korean Journal of Sociology* 40 (6): 153–86.
Zawojska, Aldona. 2008. "Public Versus Private Sector Employment and Remuneration: Objective and Subjective Empirical Evidence from Poland." *Socialiniai Tyrimai* 3 (13): 186–96.

SEULKI CHOI is an associate professor at KDI School of Public Policy and Management, South Korea. He is interested in Population, Generation and Quality of Life. His recent works have published at *Health and Social Welfare Review* (2019), *Family and Culture* (2019), and *Journal of Governmental Studies* (2018). [E-mail: chois@kdischool.ac.kr]

KYUNG WON LIM is a research associate at the Korea Development Institute (KDI). He received his master's degree in development policy from the KDI School of Public Policy and Management, where his thesis focused on how much job discretion matters for job satisfaction of East German employees compared to West German employees. His main research interest includes science and technology policy, innovation, and start-up companies. Address: Department of Knowledge Economy, KDI, 263 Namsejong-ro, Sejong, Korea. [E-mail: kyungwon0523@kdis.ac.kr]