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# Do School Ties Matter?

## Evidence from the Promotion of Public Prosecutors in Korea

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## Abstract

Does stronger networks capital favor graduates from elite schools over their same-ability peers in promotion? To help answer the question, we examine the public prosecutors' position changes data in South Korea. The key empirical challenge is to control for unobserved individual heterogeneity, such as ability. For the purpose, we employ various techniques such as shared frailty model in duration analysis, instrumental variables estimation, and panel fixed effects estimation. Once we control for individual heterogeneity, the apparent effects of school ties largely disappear. Even when we take OLS evidence at face value, which does not account for unobserved heterogeneity, favoritism based on school ties seems to be a phenomenon limited to the highest echelon of the hierarchy.

## I. Introduction

Does stronger networks capital favor graduates from elite schools in promotion over their same-ability peers? To help answer this question, we examine the public prosecutors' position changes data in South Korea.

The answer to this question obviously bears directly on equity, but also has implications for efficiency. The presence of favoritism may discourage workers from investing in productive human capital, if they perceive promotion is determined by criteria other than merit. Favoritism may also disrupt optimal job-worker matching, reducing organizational efficiency.<sup>1</sup>

The widely-shared perception in Korea that people sharing school (or birth-place) ties often help each other in ways legal and illegal makes the question eminently pertinent. The perceived practice of favoritism based on shared personal ties constitutes an important element in what is often characterized as “crony capitalism” in Asian countries, or more generally in developing countries around the world.

While there is no short supply of anecdotes supposedly vindicating the presence of school-ties favoritism, it is not clear how widespread the practice really is. According to a recent poll by Gallup Korea, commissioned by the Government Information Service, 87.7% of 1,048 Korean adults surveyed agreed that discrimination is significant based on where one went to school.<sup>2</sup> In the same study, however, 59.9% of respondents chose individual ability as the single most important factor for success in one's career, followed by school ties (20.4%), socioeconomic status of parents (17.1%), and place of birth (2.5%). Also interesting is the finding that the proportion of people who have personally experienced discrimination based on school ties is relatively small at 31.9%.

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<sup>1</sup> Preference for an individual with high networks capital may be in line with organization interest in positions featuring extensive external liaison.

<sup>2</sup> See <http://www.allim.go.kr/>.

In a study that confirms the presence of school-ties favoritism in an intriguing way, Korea Recruit, a private-sector job information provider, surveyed HR managers of large corporations. (Korea Recruit, 2003) The study asked them whether they would agree to stop asking job applicants to provide information on where they went to school. A surprisingly large number of respondents answered positive, the proportion close to 60%. Of those who would agree, about 40% cited as the main reason the concern that school-related information hinders objective evaluation focused on ability.

Given the importance of the question and the high level of public interest, it is surprising that, to our best knowledge, no formal study exists in the Korean literature to examine how serious the problem is in practice. Numerous studies try and document how graduates from elite colleges or high schools dominate in the upper echelon of prestigious organizations in the private sector and public. (Hahm and Yang, 2005) The common problem with the existing studies is their inability to disentangle the school-ties effect from the effect of unobserved individual heterogeneity. In average, it is the more highly able that go to elite schools. When they succeed in their career, it is hard to tell how much of their success is due to their individual ability and how much to their school ties.

In this paper, we measure the strength of an individual's networks capital by the proportion of people in the upper reaches of the organization sharing high school ties, and examine its impact on career duration, promotion, and appointment of key positions. To control for unobserved individual heterogeneity, we employ various econometric techniques such as 2SLS, panel fixed effects model, and shared frailty model in duration analysis. Once we control for individual heterogeneity, the apparent effects of school ties largely disappear. Even when we take OLS evidence at face value, which does not account for unobserved heterogeneity, favoritism based on school ties seems to be a phenomenon limited to the highest echelon of the hierarchy in the Korean Public Prosecutors' Office.

The remainder of the paper proceeds as follows. The next section briefly discusses relevant literature. Section 3 introduces data and empirical strategies. Section 4 presents the results of empirical analysis, to be followed by

concluding remarks in section 5.

## II. Literature Review

(This section needs to be beefed up)

In contrast to the voluminous literature on discrimination based on race and gender, discrimination (or favoritism) based on school ties has received little attention from researchers. This lack of attention probably reflects that favoritism based on school ties is not really a serious social issue in most rich countries. The economics literature most relevant for the issue of the paper then seems to be the one on the effect of school quality or college selectivity on labor market outcomes. Several recent studies adopted careful and ingenious empirical strategies to control unobserved individual heterogeneity.

Brewer, Eide, and Ehrenberg (1999) explicitly model high school students' choice of college type based on individual and family characteristics, and estimate selectivity-corrected outcome equations. Behrman, Rosenzweig, and Taubman (1996) difference out unobserved individual and family characteristics using twins data. Both papers find a substantial impact of college quality on subsequent earnings. Dale and Krueger (2002) compare college quality and earnings among students who are accepted and rejected by a comparable set of colleges, and are comparable in terms of observable variables. Interestingly, the latter study finds no impact of college selectivity on later earnings. Kim (2004) takes advantage of the highly unusual admission freeze at the University of Tokyo in 1969 as a natural experiment, and finds that the cohort denied a chance to study at the prestigious university did not suffer disadvantages in terms of promotion in government service.

We have also to mention the literature in administrative science motivated by sociology of networks. One interesting study by Seidel, Polzer, and Stewart (2000) for instance reports that lack of social ties (as indicated by job referral by a friend already working for the firm) largely explain the minority workers' failure to secure a negotiated pay increase.

A fair summary of the relevant literature then seems that there is no consensus view on the impact of school ties (or school selectivity) on labor market outcomes. The current paper contributes to the literature by employing a highly direct measure of individuals' networks capital in the form of the proportion of superiors sharing school ties. That we are examining the public sector labor market in a country that is often suspected of favoritism based on personal ties and thus provide a useful data point should also be counted as a contribution.

### III. Data and Empirical Strategies

The main data to be analyzed come from public announcements of annual personnel changes in the Public Prosecutors' Office (PPO henceforth) in Korea.<sup>3</sup> Additional personal information is gathered from the database provided by OSEO.com, a private-sector information provider on legal services, and also from the *Korean Who's Who in the Legal Profession* (2004).<sup>4</sup> The supplementary personal information includes high school and college attended, years of attendance, college major, and biographic information such as birth date and place of birth.

The resulting longitudinal data set traces initial appointment, position change and promotion, and resignation from the prosecutorial service for 1,730 individual prosecutors for the period from 1992 to 2004. We have observations for 14,350 person-years in total.

Despite the relatively large sample size, the number of observations available for some analyses can be quite small due to interaction between temporal coverage in our data set and years it takes a typical prosecutor to be promoted to a higher rank.

To understand this, see Figure 1. The first column represents the annual entry

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<sup>3</sup> The authors are grateful to Soohyung Lee of *The Donga Ilbo*, a Korean daily, for providing this data.

<sup>4</sup> *Hankuk bupjo daekwan*. (in Korean)



cohorts running from 1 to 32. Because of the mandatory military service for male citizens, the actual year a newly appointed prosecutor begins to work for the PPO may vary, depending on whether one is exempted from the service due to physical or other considerations. In the hierarchy of the PPO,<sup>5</sup> new prosecutors are assigned the initial rank of 6. Typically, it takes about 9 years to be promoted to rank 5, then further 7 years to rank 4. With additional 4 years of service, he may be promoted to rank 3, what one might consider the bottom rank in the senior echelon of the organization. Suppose one wants to examine whether school ties affect promotion from rank 5 to rank 4. The relevant cohorts for this examination run from entry cohort 9 to 14. Throwing in earlier or later cohorts would confound the effects of school ties with a selection bias and other noise.

Figure 2 compares survival estimates between graduates of elite high schools and others. In the figure, elite high schools are defined as the seven top schools in terms of the personnel share in the PPO. The comparison unequivocally establishes that graduates from elite high schools tend to survive longer.<sup>6</sup> The up-or-out rule of internal competition within the pyramidal organization means that the raw probabilities of promotion are higher for the group. The essential question that we attempt to address in the paper asks whether this is due to differential endowment of networks capital or due to ability differences between the two groups.

The empirical investigation sets up the stage by measuring the high-school networks capital for each individual prosecutor by the proportion of superiors from the same high school.<sup>7</sup> Using this measure, we examine the impacts of school ties on various employment outcomes, such as employment duration, promotion to a higher rank, and appointment to coveted strategic positions. The

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<sup>5</sup> As of 2004, the PPO had 1,381 public prosecutors in total. The hierarchy consisted of 861 prosecutors in rank 6, 400 in rank 5, 79 in rank 4, 31 in rank 3, and 9 in rank 2. Only one person fills the sole position in the top rank, the Prosecutor General.

<sup>6</sup> Peto-Peto test resoundingly rejects the null hypothesis that survival rates are equal between the two groups.

<sup>7</sup> We focus in this paper on school ties among high school alumni, ignoring school ties among college graduates. We employ the information on where one went to college as a control variable partly capturing individual ability. This asymmetric treatment reflects the popular observation that cliques within the PPO, to the extent they exist, tend to be formed based on high-school networks.

last outcome measure reflects the widely-shared consensus evaluation among the public prosecutors themselves and the journalists covering the PPO for news media.<sup>8</sup>

The key empirical challenge is how to control for unobserved individual heterogeneity, such as ability. Our baseline empirical strategy lines up proxy variables for individual ability (or aptitude for service in the PPO).

The proxy variables employed include college attended; age when the individual passed the national certification exam for lawyers; college major; and the first post upon promotion to rank 5. Institutions of higher education are quite strictly stratified along academic achievement. Reflecting this observation, regression controls include dummy variables for top four universities in terms of their graduates' representation in the PPO.<sup>9</sup> The age when the individual passed the exam and whether he majored in law in college, we argue, reflect the individual's aptitude for career as a public prosecutor. There is a well-established hierarchy among posts usually manned by first-year rank-5 prosecutors. The relative importance of each post is widely understood to reveal the organizational evaluation of performance and competence. We classify these posts into 22 groups, and field dummy variables representing these groupings as a part of our regression control.

We supplement the proxy variables strategy with appropriate methods depending on the context, including instrumental variables estimation, panel fixed effects estimation, and shared frailty model in duration analysis.

In examining the linear probability model for the effects of school ties on promotion to the next rank, we also use as an instrument shared region-of-birth ties with the reigning president. As head of the executive branch of the government, the Korean president and his office staff are known to have a significant influence in the appointment of top cadres in the PPO, including the appointment of the Prosecutor General, but rarely stoop so low as to manage

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<sup>8</sup> We would like to thank Soohyung Lee of The Donga Ilbo for sharing his expert knowledge regarding this classification.

<sup>9</sup> The top four institutions are Seoul National, Korea, Yonsei, and Sungkyunkwan.

personnel movement in the lower echelon of the PPO. As a result, there is a good chance that the proportion of superiors from the same high school will be higher if the individual prosecutor in the lower part of the hierarchy shares the region-of-birth with the president. At the same time, we argue that whether an individual prosecutor hails from the same region as the president is not likely to be correlated with the prosecutor's unobserved ability. The region-of-birth tie shared with the president makes a valid instrument if the variable is correlated with endogenous regressors, but not with the error term.

When we examine the effects of school ties on appointment to key positions, we take advantage of repeated observations for a given individual in our panel data. If the assumption is granted that the correlation between the regressors including the school ties variable and the disturbance term is due to individual-specific time-invariant factor, then differencing or within transformation eliminates the individual fixed effect. OLS estimates based on the transformed model would then be consistent.

We also model how different factors, including the school ties variable, affect duration of one's career within the PPO. In duration analysis, modeling focuses on the hazard rate, or the conditional probability of exit at time  $t$ , given that the individual has survived up to time  $t$ . The proportional hazard model with Weibull distribution assumes the following parametric form the hazard rate  $\lambda(t)$ :

$$\lambda(t) = pt^{p-1}\lambda_0, \quad (1)$$

where the component  $pt^{p-1}$  represents the baseline hazard. The baseline hazard exhibits positive duration dependence if  $p > 1$ , negative duration dependence with  $p < 1$ , and no duration dependence with  $p = 1$ . Individual or environmental factors ( $X$ ) are assumed to shift the baseline hazard up or down as follows:

$$\lambda_0 = \exp(X_j\beta). \quad (2)$$

In an attempt to control for unobserved heterogeneity, our duration analysis also estimates the shared frailty model, the equivalent of panel fixed effects model in duration analysis.

## IV. Results

Table 2 presents the results of duration analysis. The estimated models are duration models with proportional hazard representation, assuming Weibull distribution. To utilize the information on competence and performance evaluation contained in the first rank-5 post, we confine our analysis to individuals who have reached rank 5. To avoid selection bias, we focus on prosecutors belonging to entry cohort 10 or later. This leaves us with 2,933 person-years.

Models (1)-(3) differ from each other in the extent of regression controls adopted. Throughout the models (1)-(3), the school ties variable has a significant negative impact on the hazard. This means that the greater the proportion of superiors sharing school ties, the more postponed the exit will be for the individual concerned. It is interesting, however, that the estimated negative coefficient for the school ties variable gets smaller and smaller in absolute value, as we employ more and more extensive list of proxy controls. The estimated coefficient for the school ties variable in the first three models suggests that one standard deviation increase in the school ties variable, or about 5 percentage point increase, would reduce the hazard rate by 15-20%.

Models (4) and (5) assume shared frailty, among graduates from the same high school (model (4)) and among observations for a given individual (model (5)). In both the models, it is remarkable that the estimated coefficient is not statistically significant any more. As noted above, shared frailty in duration analysis is equivalent to the fixed effects assumption in panel linear models.

Tables 3-5 report the results of OLS estimation of linear probability models. The outcome variable is whether one gets promoted to the next rank (from rank 5 to 4 in Table 3; from rank 4 to 3 in Table 4; from rank 3 to 2 in Table 5). The message from the results is simple: favoritism based on school ties, if it exists at all, is a phenomenon limited to the highest echelon in the hierarchy.

The result of OLS estimation of a simple linear probability model reported in column (1), Table 3, suggests a modest, but positive and significant impact of

school ties on prosecutors' promotion from rank 5 to rank 4. However, as we control for various proxy measures of one's unobserved ability or aptitude in later columns, the estimated coefficient drops down dramatically, and loses its statistical significance. In Table 4, all the regression results suggest lack of any impact of school ties on one's promotion from rank 4 to rank 3.

When we examine the impacts of school ties on promotion from rank 3 to rank 2 in Table 5, however, we witness a remarkable change in the patterns. Estimated coefficients for the school ties variable are not only statistically significant, but quite large in terms of implied impacts. The effects of school ties persist even when we control for an extensive list of control variables.

The IV estimation results in Table 6 suggest that we had better take the results reported in Table 5 with a grain of salt. The instrument used is the region-of-birth tie shared with the reigning president. The estimated coefficients for the school ties variable are statistically insignificant, and vary a lot depending on specifications.

Finally, Table 7 estimates the linear probability model, examining the effects of school ties on appointment to coveted strategic positions. As the 57 strategic positions are scattered throughout the lungs of the organizational ladder, a given prosecutor may occupy a key position in one year to move to a not-so-important position the next, or the other way round. What is significant for our analysis is that repeated observations allow us to estimate panel models, both random effects and fixed effects. Both the models assume that the error term is the sum of individual-specific fixed effect and idiosyncratic error. The panel fixed effects model allows for possible correlation between the individual fixed effect and regressors (but not between the idiosyncratic error and regressors), and addresses the problem by eliminating the fixed effect using transformations such as differencing or within transformation. The resulting estimates based on the fixed effects assumption would then be consistent whether the individual fixed effect is correlated with regressors or not, under the maintained assumption that idiosyncratic error is not. If the individual fixed effect is correlated with regressors, OLS (or pooled OLS, POLS) or random effects estimates would be biased.

It is remarkable that while OLS and random effects estimates are positive and statistically significant, the fixed effects estimate is very small, and statistically indistinguishable from zero.

## V. Concluding Remarks

We examined the effects of high school ties on various employment outcomes such as employment duration, promotion, and appointment to strategic positions in the Public Prosecutors' Office in Korea. Our investigation paid a particular attention to isolating the school ties effects from unobserved individual heterogeneity such as ability. Our key findings are as follows.

First, while graduation from elite high schools is shown to raise employment duration in a raw comparison, the effects lose statistical significance once we control for shared frailty in duration analysis. Second, favoritism based on school ties in promotion decisions, to the extent it exists, seems to be limited to the highest echelon in the hierarchy of the PPO. Third, effects of school ties on appointment probabilities to strategic positions disappear once we control for individual heterogeneity using a panel fixed effects estimator.

Do our results imply that exercised public concern about favoritism or discrimination based on school ties in Korea is, after all, much ado about nothing? Our own assessment is that we do not know the answer to the question yet. On the one hand, the paper investigated an organization in the public sector, where competitive pressure for efficiency may not be as high as in the private sector. On the other hand, public prosecutors' work environment is high unusual, in that their performance and competence are continually put to test and to public scrutiny in court proceedings. Clearly a lot more econometric case studies should precede any attempt at summary assessment of the school-ties favoritism in the country. The authors intend to make further contributions along the line.

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Figure 1. Promotion matrix

Entry cohort	Entry year	promotion to 5 <sup>th</sup> rank	Promotion to 4th rank	promotion to 3rd rank	promotion to 2nd rank
1	72	84	91	95	97
2	73	85	92	96	98
3	74	86	93	97	99
4	75	87	94	98	0
5	76	88	95	99	1
6	77	89	96	0	2
7	78	90	97	1	3
8	79	91	98	2	4
9	80	92	99	3	5
10	81	93	0	4	6
11	82	94	1	5	7
12	83	95	2	6	8
13	84	96	3	7	9
14	85	97	4	8	10
15	86	98	5	9	11
16	87	99	6	10	12
17	88	0	7	11	13
18	89	1	8	12	14
19	90	2	9	13	15
20	91	3	10	14	16
21	92	4	11	15	17
22	93	5	12	16	18
23	94	6	13	17	19
24	95	7	14	18	20
25	96	8	15	19	21
26	97	9	16	20	22
27	98	10	17	21	23
28	99	11	18	22	24
29	0	12	19	23	25
30	1	13	20	24	26
31	2	14	21	25	27
32	3	15	22	26	28



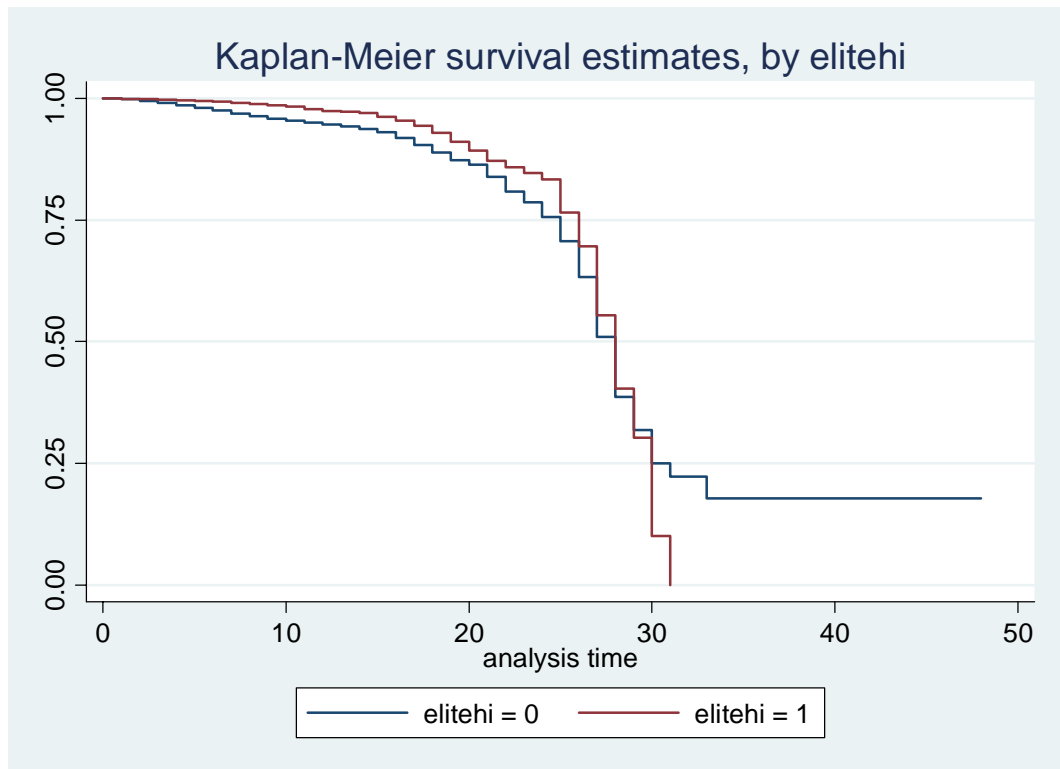


Figure 2. Kaplan-Meier survival estimates

Graduates from elite high schools seem to survive longer. What drives this difference, school-ties favoritism or individual heterogeneity?

**Table 2. Impact estimates of high-school ties on employment duration at PPO**

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
proportion of superiors sharing high-school ties	-3.8799 (1.3525)**	-3.3225 (1.4128)*	-3.2660 (1.4803)*	-3.9110 (5.1543)	0.8267 (2.9905)
entry cohort		-0.0275 (0.0088)**	-0.0173 (0.0104)+	-0.2271 (0.1444)	-0.0106 (0.0213)
SNU		-0.4817 (0.2037)*	-0.4558 (0.2193)*	0.1928 (0.8646)	-0.5433 (0.2458)*
Korea		-0.0065 (0.2775)	0.3979 (0.3195)	1.9015 (1.2078)	0.3554 (0.3621)
Yonsei		-14.9985 (864.5640)	-15.1922 (1,178.376)	-24.3066 (5,078.876)	-19.4451 (9,824.6089)
SKK		-1.8055 (0.6068)**	-1.8214 (0.6123)**	0.4656 (1.8408)	-2.0420 (0.6543)**
age at appointment		0.1564 (0.0397)**	0.1321 (0.0419)**	0.6097 (0.2054)**	0.1251 (0.0467)**
college major law		-0.2526 (0.3089)	-0.2037 (0.3206)	-0.9216 (1.3265)	-0.3678 (0.3526)
dummy for key positions			-15.1648 (780.9690)	-25.2765 (3,125.675)	-19.4834 (4,861.4910)
Constant	-6.3921 (0.2400)**	-10.4788 (1.3062)**	-9.9932 (1.4341)**	-20.6462 (6.2307)**	-9.8913 (1.5535)**
Rank 5 starting place controlled	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
Observations	2933	2933	2933	2933	2933

**Note:** Standard errors in parentheses. + significant at 10%; \* significant at 5%; \*\* significant at 1%. The estimated models are duration models with proportional hazard, assuming Weibull distribution. Model 1 has just one regressor, the proportion of superiors sharing high-school ties; models 2 and 3 control for an increasing list of covariates. Models 4 and 5 have the same list of covariates as model 3, but assume shared frailty, the equivalent of panel fixed effects in linear models. Model 4 assumes the frailty is shared within individual, and model 5 within graduates from the same high school.

**Table 3. OLS estimates of school-ties impacts on promotion from rank 5 to 4**

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
<b>proportion of superiors sharing high school ties</b>	<b>1.0552</b> <b>(0.4887)*</b>	<b>0.2983</b> <b>(0.4988)</b>	<b>0.4100</b> <b>(0.5182)</b>	<b>0.2818</b> <b>(0.4906)</b>
<b>entry cohort</b>		<b>-0.1146</b> <b>(0.0197)**</b>	<b>-0.1105</b> <b>(0.0210)**</b>	<b>-0.1040</b> <b>(0.0199)**</b>
<b>SNU</b>		<b>0.1239</b> <b>(0.0766)</b>	<b>0.1390</b> <b>(0.0802)+</b>	<b>0.1128</b> <b>(0.0765)</b>
<b>Korea</b>		<b>0.0145</b> <b>(0.1080)</b>	<b>-0.0011</b> <b>(0.1159)</b>	<b>-0.0576</b> <b>(0.1109)</b>
<b>Yonsei</b>		<b>0.3119</b> <b>(0.1758)+</b>	<b>0.3396</b> <b>(0.1880)+</b>	<b>0.2426</b> <b>(0.1789)</b>
<b>SKK</b>		<b>0.1315</b> <b>(0.1206)</b>	<b>0.1639</b> <b>(0.1265)</b>	<b>0.0622</b> <b>(0.1215)</b>
<b>starting place in Seoul</b>		<b>-0.0195</b> <b>(0.0612)</b>	<b>-0.0160</b> <b>(0.0645)</b>	<b>-0.0348</b> <b>(0.0612)</b>
<b>age at appointment</b>		<b>-0.0037</b> <b>(0.0124)</b>	<b>-0.0034</b> <b>(0.0133)</b>	<b>-0.0042</b> <b>(0.0127)</b>
<b>college major law</b>		<b>0.0668</b> <b>(0.1157)</b>	<b>0.0359</b> <b>(0.1211)</b>	<b>-0.0465</b> <b>(0.1153)</b>
<b>Core position at level 5</b>				<b>0.3107</b> <b>(0.0586)**</b>
<b>Constant</b>	<b>0.3520</b> <b>(0.0365)**</b>	<b>1.8407</b> <b>(0.4311)**</b>	<b>1.8023</b> <b>(0.4860)**</b>	<b>1.5960</b> <b>(0.4605)**</b>
<b>Starting place controlled</b>	<b>No</b>	<b>No</b>	<b>Yes</b>	<b>Yes</b>
<b>Observation</b>	<b>269</b>	<b>269</b>	<b>269</b>	<b>268</b>
<b>Adjusted R-</b>	<b>0.0135</b>	<b>0.1304</b>	<b>0.1028</b>	<b>0.1983</b>

**Note:** Standard errors in parentheses. + significant at 10%; \* significant at 5%;

\*\* significant at 1%. Linear probability models examine the effects of high-school ties on promotion from rank 5 to rank 4. The school ties variable has a significant impact in a simple regression, but loses significance as covariates are added.

Table 4. OLS estimates of school-ties impacts on promotion from rank 4 to 3

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
proportion of superiors sharing high-school ties	0.1043 (0.5491)	0.1824 (0.5936)	0.0526 (0.6246)	-0.2916 (0.5459)
entry cohort		-0.0181 (0.0150)	-0.0119 (0.0164)	-0.0006 (0.0144)
SNU		0.2432 (0.1332)+	0.2028 (0.1400)	0.1655 (0.1219)
Korea		0.5250 (0.1871)**	0.4742 (0.1901)*	0.4145 (0.1655)*
Yonsei		0.7795 (0.3033)*	0.8171 (0.3221)*	0.4715 (0.2853)
SKK		0.3356 (0.2173)	0.1363 (0.2429)	0.0755 (0.2119)
starting place in Seoul		0.1922 (0.0897)*	0.1959 (0.0974)*	0.1012 (0.0865)
age at appointment		0.0010 (0.0171)	-0.0037 (0.0174)	-0.0072 (0.0152)
college major law		0.1752 (0.1817)	0.1354 (0.1941)	0.1756 (0.1692)
Core position at level 5				0.3261 (0.0866)**
Core position at level 4				0.3513 (0.0819)**
Constant	0.4968 (0.0561)**	0.0743 (0.5943)	0.6914 (0.7039)	0.2959 (0.6191)
Starting place controlled for	No	No	Yes	Yes
Observation	137	137	137	137
Adjusted R <sup>2</sup>	-0.0071	0.0661	0.0815	0.3071

Note: Standard errors in parentheses. + significant at 10%; \* significant at 5%;

\*\* significant at 1%. Linear probability models examine the effects of high-school ties on promotion from rank 4 to rank 3. The school ties variable is shown to have no significant impact.

Table 5. OLS estimates of school-ties impacts on promotion from rank 3 to 2

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
<b>Proportion of superiors sharing high-school ties</b>	<b>1.0069</b> (0.7606)	<b>2.3191</b> (0.8109)**	<b>1.9725</b> (0.8180)*	<b>2.0577</b> (0.8955)*
<b>Entry cohort</b>		<b>-0.0864</b> (0.0259)**	<b>-0.0815</b> (0.0311)*	<b>-0.0788</b> (0.0312)*
<b>SNU</b>		<b>-0.0411</b> (0.2278)	<b>-0.0751</b> (0.2543)	<b>0.0482</b> (0.2697)
<b>Korea</b>		<b>0.1627</b> (0.2669)	<b>0.0728</b> (0.3052)	<b>0.2660</b> (0.3307)
<b>Yonsei</b>		<b>0.2213</b> (0.3687)	<b>0.0680</b> (0.5368)	<b>0.1093</b> (0.5968)
<b>SKK</b>		<b>0.4565</b> (0.3201)	<b>-0.1717</b> (0.4963)	<b>-0.0323</b> (0.5464)
<b>starting place in Seoul</b>		<b>-0.0981</b> (0.1221)	<b>-0.1646</b> (0.1336)	<b>-0.1605</b> (0.1339)
<b>age at appointment</b>		<b>-0.0187</b> (0.0179)	<b>-0.0231</b> (0.0175)	<b>-0.0254</b> (0.0178)
<b>college major law</b>		<b>0.4973</b> (0.3242)	<b>0.4024</b> (0.4137)	<b>0.4017</b> (0.5125)
<b>Core position at level 5</b>				<b>0.1354</b> (0.1998)
<b>Core position at level 4</b>				<b>-0.0459</b> (0.1421)
<b>Core position at level 3</b>				<b>-0.1773</b> (0.1271)
<b>Constant</b>	<b>0.2570</b> (0.0702)**	<b>0.7661</b> (0.7784)	<b>2.0238</b> (1.0208)+	<b>1.9336</b> (1.0443)+
<b>Starting place controlled for</b>	<b>No</b>	<b>No</b>	<b>Yes</b>	<b>Yes</b>
<b>Observation</b>	<b>59</b>	<b>59</b>	<b>59</b>	<b>59</b>
<b>Adjusted R<sup>2</sup></b>	<b>0.0128</b>	<b>0.2438</b>	<b>0.3336</b>	<b>0.3360</b>

Note: Standard errors in parentheses. + significant at 10%; \* significant at 5%; \*\* significant at 1%. The school ties variable has a significant positive impact in all the linear probability models presented above.

**Table 6. IV estimates of the school-ties impact on promotion from rank 3 to 2**

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
<b>Proportion of superiors sharing high-school ties entry cohort</b>	<b>0.4522</b> <b>(7.4940)</b>	<b>3.4881</b> <b>(5.5141)</b>	<b>-7.8091</b> <b>(15.7607)</b>	<b>-7.4972</b> <b>(13.0284)</b>
		<b>-0.0885</b> <b>(0.0282)**</b>	<b>-0.0610</b> <b>(0.0775)</b>	<b>-0.0740</b> <b>(0.0669)</b>
<b>SNU</b>		<b>-0.0907</b> <b>(0.3280)</b>	<b>0.2792</b> <b>(0.8065)</b>	<b>0.1929</b> <b>(0.6080)</b>
<b>Korea</b>		<b>0.1852</b> <b>(0.2919)</b>	<b>-0.3339</b> <b>(0.9472)</b>	<b>-0.3656</b> <b>(1.1065)</b>
<b>Yonsei</b>		<b>0.2479</b> <b>(0.3963)</b>	<b>-0.1034</b> <b>(1.2412)</b>	<b>-1.0557</b> <b>(2.0229)</b>
<b>SKK</b>		<b>0.4707</b> <b>(0.3335)</b>	<b>-0.5477</b> <b>(1.2706)</b>	<b>0.4498</b> <b>(1.3354)</b>
<b>starting place in Seoul</b>		<b>-0.0811</b> <b>(0.1478)</b>	<b>-0.3274</b> <b>(0.3983)</b>	<b>-0.3069</b> <b>(0.3474)</b>
<b>age at appointment</b>		<b>-0.0123</b> <b>(0.0352)</b>	<b>-0.0686</b> <b>(0.0828)</b>	<b>-0.0610</b> <b>(0.0612)</b>
<b>College major law</b>		<b>0.6809</b> <b>(0.9179)</b>	<b>-1.0870</b> <b>(2.5594)</b>	<b>-2.0716</b> <b>(3.5106)</b>
<b>Core position at level 5</b>				<b>0.8931</b> <b>(1.1075)</b>
<b>Core position at level 4</b>				<b>0.0807</b> <b>(0.3481)</b>
<b>Core position at level 3</b>				<b>0.1574</b> <b>(0.5268)</b>
<b>Constant</b>	<b>0.2835</b> <b>(0.3629)</b>	<b>0.3765</b> <b>(1.9832)</b>	<b>5.2909</b> <b>(5.7124)</b>	<b>4.0452</b> <b>(3.6169)</b>
<b>Observation</b>	<b>59</b>	<b>59</b>	<b>59</b>	<b>59</b>
<b>R-squared</b>	<b>0.0208</b>	<b>0.3341</b>		

Note: Standard errors in parentheses. + significant at 10%; \* significant at 5%; \*\* significant at 1%. Linear probability models are estimated through IV. The endogenous school-ties variable is instrumented by the individual's shared regional ties with the president in reign. Estimated impacts range widely, depending on the specification.

**Table 7. Effects of school ties on employment probabilities to strategic positions**

	(1)	(2)	(3)
	OLS	panel, random effects	panel, fixed effects
proportion of superiors sharing hschool ties	0.5539 (0.0528)**	0.4732 (0.0641)**	0.0124 (0.1148)
Constant	0.0442 (0.0035)**	0.0465 (0.0045)**	0.0617 (0.0047)**
Observations	8322	8322	8322
Number of id		851	851

Note: Standard errors in parentheses. + significant at 10%; \* significant at 5%; \*\* significant at 1%. The dependent variable is a binary variable for employment to one of 56 identified “strategic” positions in the organization. Once individual heterogeneity, or fixed effects, are controlled for, effects of high school ties disappear as shown in column (3).

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