

What drives female labor force participation? Comparable micro-level evidence from eight developing and emerging economies

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Motivation

- In the last two decades, in the developing world:
 - ▶ rising female education,
 - ▶ declining fertility,
 - ▶ economic growth,
- favorable background for rising FLFP rates everywhere.

Female labor force participation rates, age 15+

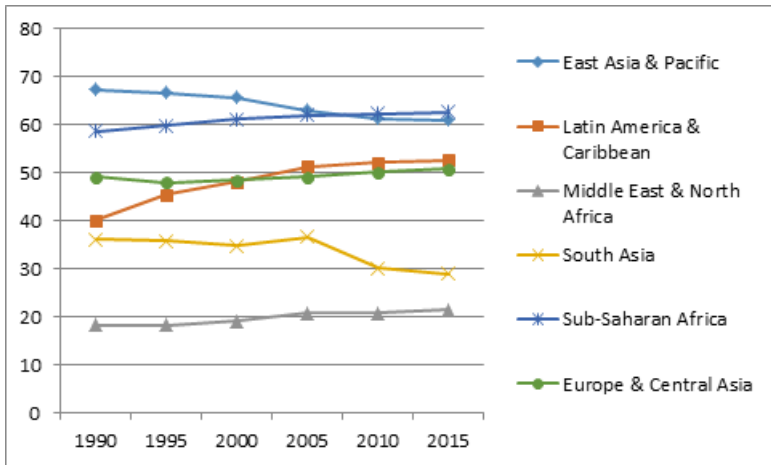


Figure 1: Source: ILO, modeled estimates

Puzzle

- Klasen and Pieters (2015) on India: *“Against this background, it is puzzling to see that the reported female labor force participation rate in urban India has stagnated at around 18 percent since the 1980s.”*
- Schaner and Das (2016) on Indonesia: *“Why, in the face of so much change, has Indonesian women’s labor force participation remained so stagnant?”*
- Majbouri (2018) on MENA region: *“Fertility and the Puzzle of Female Employment in the Middle East”*
- Gasparini and Marchionni (2015): in LA, slowdown in the growth of female labor supply since the 2000s
- etc...

What we do

We use comparable microdata from 8 low and middle-income countries, covering the period 2000–2014, to ask:

- 1 How are women's (and their households') characteristics associated with FLFP, and what are the key commonalities and differences across countries?
- 2 What drives FLFP changes over time *within countries*?
- 3 What explains differences in FLFP rates *between countries* and how has this changed over time?

How we do it

- 1 We estimate FLFP models for each country and year,
- 2 We decompose changes in FLFP over time for each country,
- 3 We decompose gaps in FLFP between countries.

Our contribution

- richer data than in cross-country analyses → heterogeneity across space and time,
- unified empirical framework → direct comparison between countries and over time,
- robust FLFP correlates over large samples and several periods.

Empirical model

- We follow the specification of Klasen and Pieters (2015):
- Population: **married** women of ages 25-54 living in **urban** areas.
- Probit model:

$$P(LFP_{ict} = 1) = \Phi \left(\alpha_{ct} + \sum_E \beta_{ct}^E D_{ict}^E + \mathbf{X}_{ict} \gamma_{ct} + \delta_{rct} \right), \quad (1)$$

Explanatory variables

- D_{ict}^E : woman's education attainment dummies.
- X_{ict} - individual and household level:
 - ▶ age, age^2 ,
 - ▶ ethnic or religious group,
 - ▶ per capita household income excluding the woman's earnings (log),
 - ▶ education attainment of household head,
 - ▶ at least one male household member has wage employment (dummy),
 - ▶ number of children 0–2, 3–5, boys 6–14, girls 6–14.
- δ_{rct} - region fixed effects.

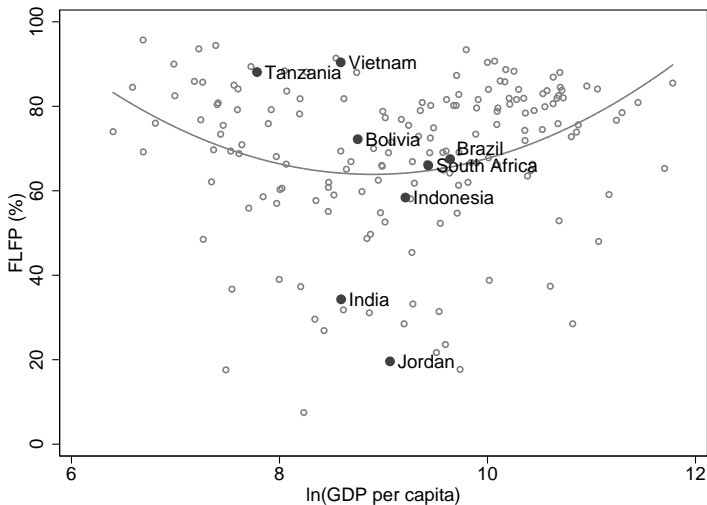
Interpretation

- reduced-form correlates,
- not causal, not structural (no own-wage effects),
- supply-side focus,
- (local) demand conditions captured by regional fixed effects.

Data

- Large scale repeated cross-sectional surveys for:
- Bolivia, Brazil, India, Indonesia, Jordan, South Africa, Tanzania, Vietnam,
- 32 surveys, ~ 800,000 urban married women (prime-age),
- Period: roughly 2000-2014.

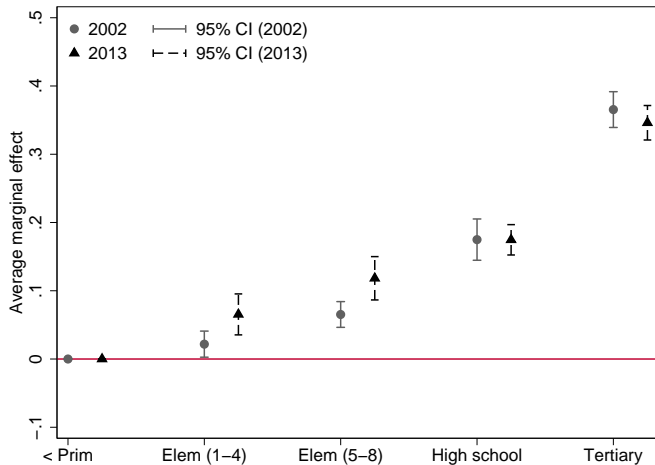
FLFP (prime-age) vs. income, 2014



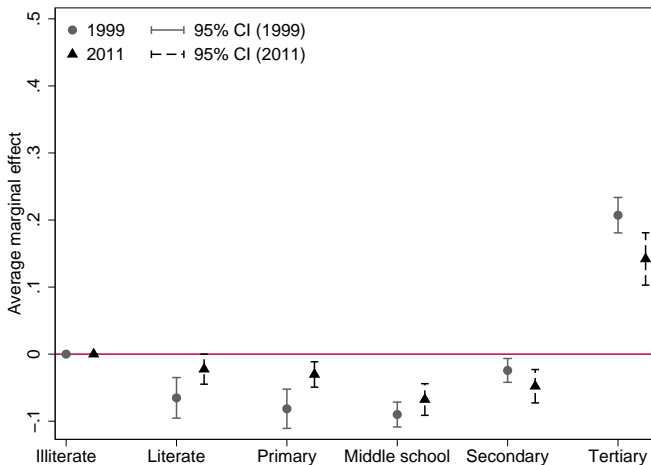
Result 1

- No universal relationship between a woman's education and her LFP status:
- strong, positive, and linear in Brazil and SA,
- U- or J-shape in India, Indonesia, and Jordan,
- Mixed in Bolivia, Tanzania, and Vietnam.

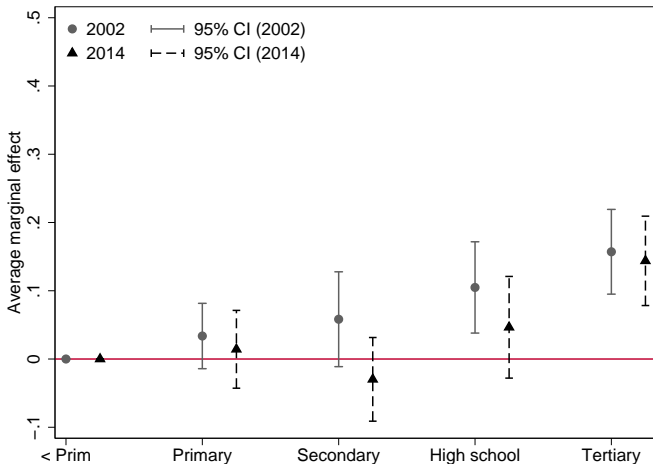
Average marginal effects of own education: Brazil



Average marginal effects of own education: India



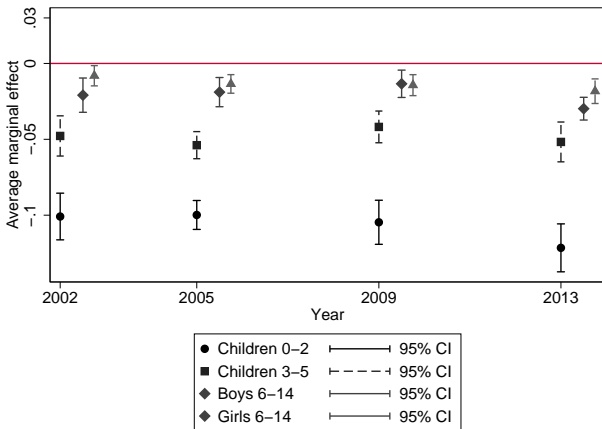
Average marginal effects of own education: Vietnam



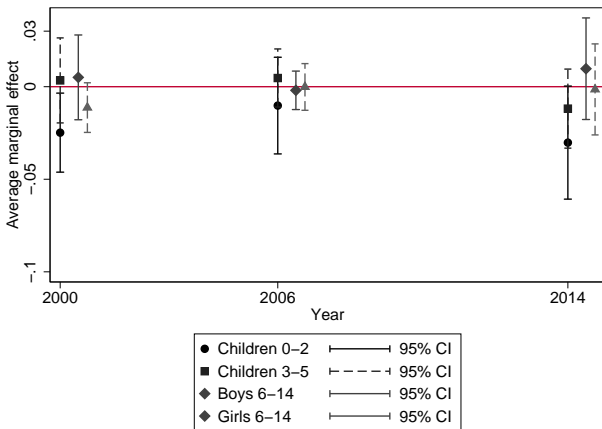
Result 2

- The negative effect of fertility is stronger in richer countries.

Average marginal effect of young children: Brazil



Average marginal effect of young children: Tanzania



Result 3

- Household circumstances lose their grip on FLFP in richest countries: Brazil and SA.
- Negative household income effects very strong in India, Indonesia, and Bolivia,
- Same for household head education.

Average marginal effect of log income: Indonesia

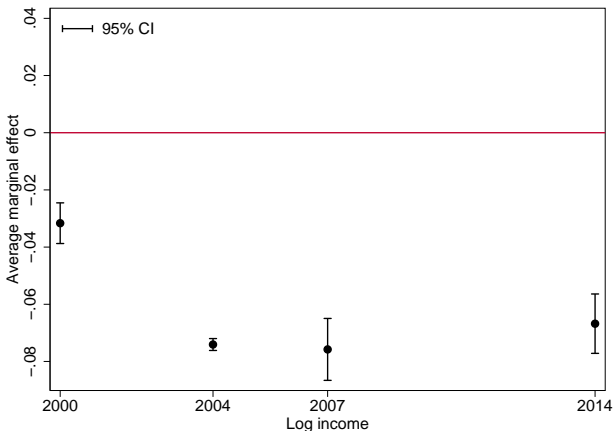


Figure 2: *Notes:* income is the household per capita earnings from main job excluding woman's own earnings

Average marginal effect of log income: South Africa

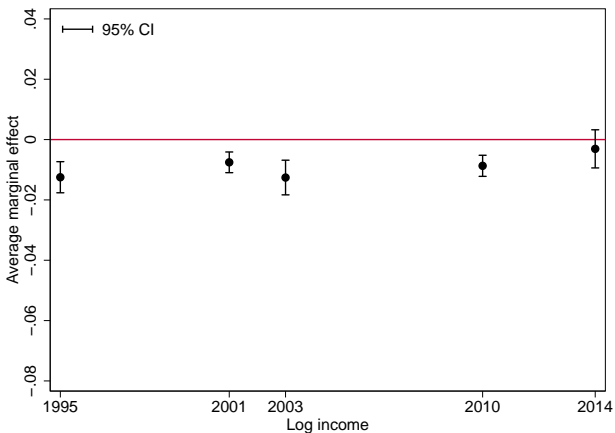


Figure 3: Notes: income is the household per capita earnings from main job excluding woman's own earnings

Robustness

Correlates are robust to:

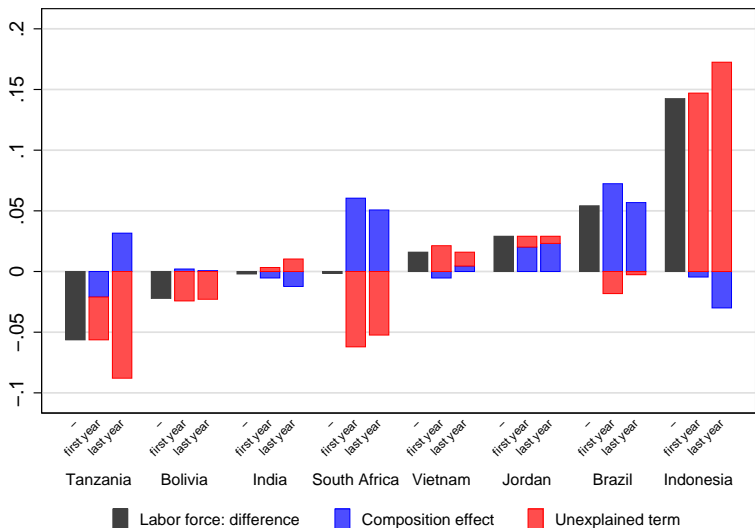
- PSU fixed effects (Brazil, Bolivia, SA, Tanzania),
- trends in marriage rates and urbanization,
- controlling for rural-urban migration directly (Tanzania) and indirectly (Brazil, Bolivia).
- [▶ Details](#)

Within-country decompositions: results

Explained (composition effect) vs. unexplained (coefficients and unobservables) changes in FLFP:

- 1 composition effect explains FLFP changes relatively well in India, Brazil, and Jordan,
- 2 coefficients and unobservables account for most of the change in Bolivia, Indonesia, and Vietnam,
- 3 composition and unexplained term cancel each other out in South Africa,
- 4 results depend on the choice of coefficients in Tanzania.

Composition effect vs. unexplained term

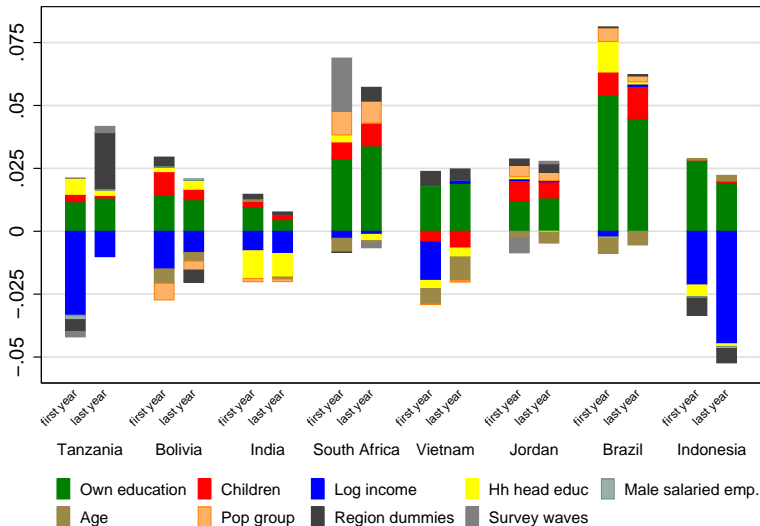


Within-country decompositions: results

Contribution of variable groups:

- 1 rising female education and falling fertility contribute positively everywhere,
- 2 but the magnitude of these contributions varies across countries,
- 3 in all but richest 3 countries (Jordan, SA, Brazil) positive education and fertility contributions are offset by rising household income,
- 4 other factors contribute only marginally.

Contribution of variable groups



Between-country decompositions

- Brazil's coefficients as reference,
- decompose FLFP gap of each country *viz a viz* Brazil,
- decompose gaps around 2000, and around 2014.

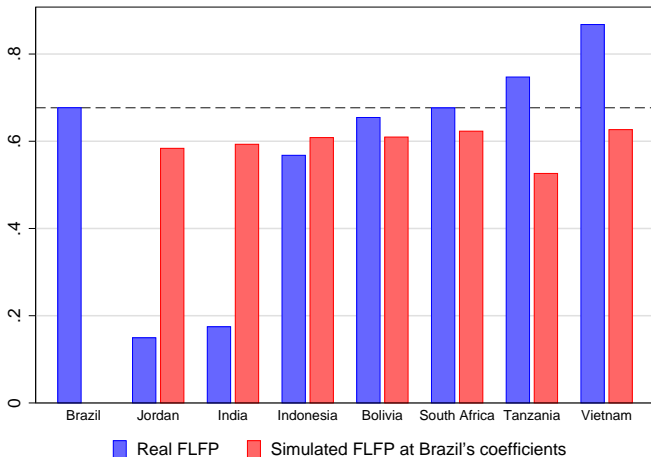
Between-country decompositions: results

- 1 covariates cannot explain FLFP gaps between countries,
- 2 for some countries, the composition effect even has the “wrong” sign,
- 3 coefficients and unobservables account for the bulk of FLFP variation between countries.

A thought experiment

- Imagine there is a single, fictional, labor market, where:
 - 1 all women face Brazil's coefficients and unobservables, irrespective of their country origin,
 - 2 but, otherwise, each woman has her own observable characteristics as given in the data.
- What would be the FLFP rates in this “Brazilian”-like market?

“Brazilian”-like labor market (c. 2014)



Conclusion

- Participation-returns to women's *own characteristics* and *family circumstances* differ substantially across countries,
- In fact, heterogeneity in returns to these characteristics explains most of the between-country differences in participation rates.

Policy message

- Economic growth alone or further improvements of women's labor market characteristics \nRightarrow FLFP rates $\uparrow\uparrow$,
- *unless*: removal of barriers and constraints to female employment both at the household and at the labor market level in each country.

Thank you for your attention

Sample selection bias

- Sample composition effect due to trends in:
 - 1 urbanization rates
 - 2 marriage rates
- problem if selection into urban areas and marriage is correlated with labor force attachment.

Solution (following Blau and Kahn 2007):

- estimate parsimonious probit models to predict urban and marriage probabilities (age, age2, education, region, children)
- create “artificial” samples with constant urbanization and marriage rates by excluding the women with the lowest urban and marriage propensity.

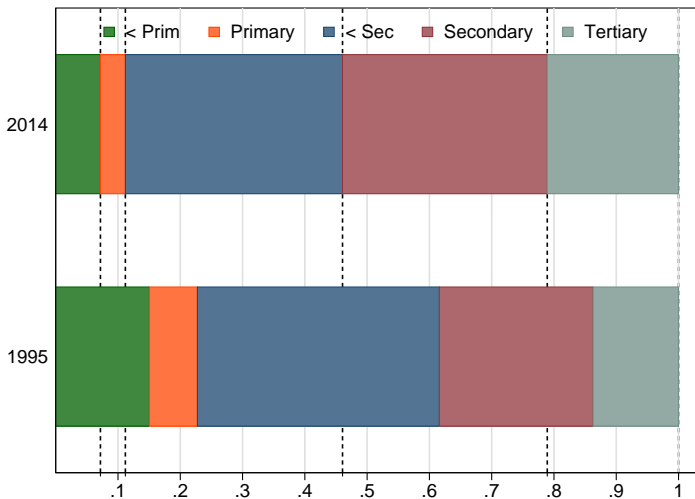
Selection bias in the education

- Massive expansion in education attainment in some countries,
- Rising education levels in our 25-54 group: more educated younger cohorts replacing less educated older cohorts.
- If the older cohorts were positively selected on education then, the decreasing AMEs for secondary and tertiary education could be due to a decline in this positive selection over time.

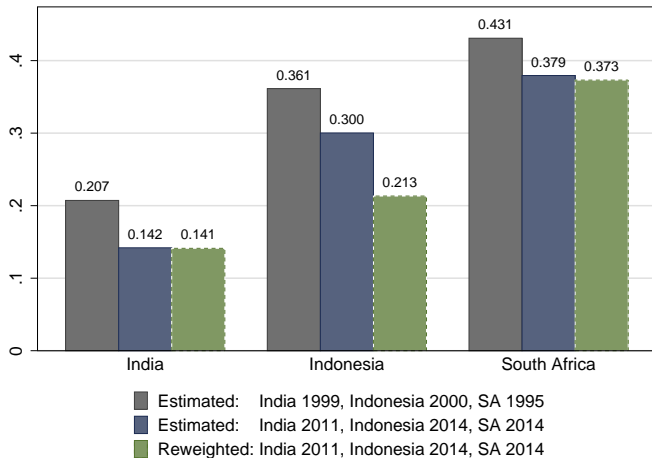
Our solution (following Klasen and Pieters 2015):

- Estimate an upper bound on this selection effect
- By weighting the AMEs of the first period by the changes in the distribution of education attainment

Distribution of educational attainment: example South Africa



Selection into education



Decomposition analysis for nonlinear models

- Fairlie's (2006) extension of the Oaxaca-Blinder decomposition analysis,
- Groups: A , B (two years, or two countries)
- Decomposition at group A 's coefficients:

$$\overline{LFP}_B - \overline{LFP}_A \approx \left[\sum_{N_B} \frac{\Phi(X_B \hat{\beta}_A)}{N_B} - \sum_{N_A} \frac{\Phi(X_A \hat{\beta}_A)}{N_A} \right] + \left[\sum_{N_B} \frac{\Phi(X_B \hat{\beta}_B)}{N_B} - \sum_{N_B} \frac{\Phi(X_B \hat{\beta}_A)}{N_B} \right], \quad (2)$$

- Equally valid: decomposing at group B 's coefficients.
- We show results using both coefficient vectors (A and B).