# Nobel symposium in Economic Sciences: Microdevelopment research in the last 20 years

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- 1. Open unemployment is less common in LICs.
  - In Ethiopia, 5 % national, and 17% urban does not tell the full story
  - "Most people work because they cannot afford not to" (WB, 2019)

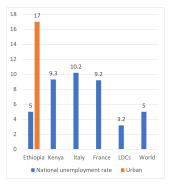


Figure: Unemployment rate

Source: ILO stat



- 2. High share of employment is in the informal sector
  - Jobseekers queue for wage work (Blattman and Dercon, 2018)
  - Self-employment and "slippery job ladder" wage employment (Donvan et al., 2023)

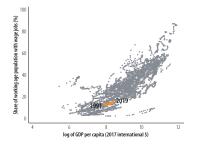


Figure: relationship between wage work and per capita income

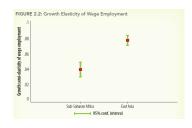


Figure: Growth Elasticity of Wage Employment

Source: Africa Pulse 2023

- 3. Reemployment rates are low and turnover rates are high
  - In India, 80% of garment workers quit in two years (Adhvaryu et al., 2016)
  - In Ethiopia, 88% of garment workers quite in four years, with two third quitting in the first year (Abebe et al. *forthcoming*)

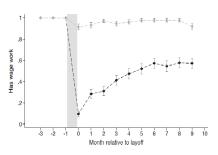


Figure: Women struggle to reintegrate back to the labor market

Source: Abebe et al. (ongoing)

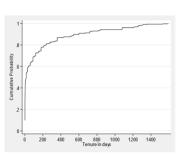


Figure: Turnover rates are the highest the first three months

Source: Abebe et al. (WBER

- 4. Labor intensive manufacturing will create jobs but will remain insufficient to absrob the growing labor force
  - Structural transformation towards services

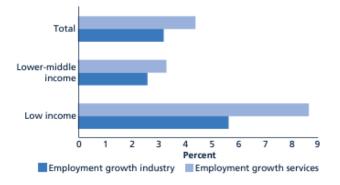


Figure: Changes in urban share of population by income group, 1990-2014

Source: WB (2019)



- 5. Substantial gender gap in labor market outcomes.
  - Labor market outcomes were worse for women than men during the Covid-19 pandemic (World Bank, 2022).
  - Women search differently, work less, likely in low-paying sector and earn less
    - In Nigeria and Ethiopia wages are 22% and 36% lower for women than men



Figure: Gender gap in wages in Ethiopia Figure: Gender gap in wages in Niger

Source: WB: Ethiopia and Nigeria Gender Diagnostic Reports, 2020 & 2023



- 6. Workers are not protected against the consequences of job loss
  - Severance pay may not be suitable for consumption smoothing

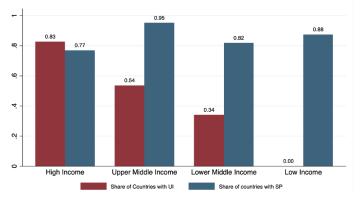


Figure: Distribution of unemployment insurance and severance pay by income group

Source: Expanded data to 160 countries from Gerard & Naritomi (AER 2021)

7. With the rise of urbanization and the increasing significance of the service sector, both primary and secondary cities continue to thrive as job hubs.

### Important Labor Market frictions

- 7.1 Job search is expensive
  - People live away from the city center and hence pay for commuting
  - Many applications are not made compared to available vacancies
- 7.2 Recruitment is hard and expensive
  - Screening applicants is difficulty (many lack relevant experience, standard job application procedures)
  - Recruitment eats into firms resources (money and staff time)
  - social networks are important source of hires (Sapin et al., 2020).

### ALMP will be increasingly in demand

• Transport infrastructure, such Bus Rapid Transit (BRT) and rails, can promote inclusvity (Martinez et al. 2020; Kondylis et al. 2020)



# What evidence is available from policy evaluations

- Labor demand: Interventions fostering job creation or reducing cost of labor
  - PSD, IPs, FDI, macroeconomic stability, regulation
  - Limited evidence on the impact of supporting firms with recruitment or wage subsidy (Groh et al., 2016; Hensel et al., 2022)
    - Take-up is limited, when taken-up, effects are short-lived and tends to come at the expense of the control
- 2. Labor supply: Interventions building on human capital and increasing participation of women.
  - TVET training is widespread but mixed evidence on impact and cost effectiveness (McKenize 2017; Alfonsi et al., 2020)
- 3. Mobility: attenuating constraints to geographic and sectoral mobility
  - Migration and land policies (Bryan et al., 2014; Bryan and Morten 2019)
  - FCV, IDP, and refugees status
- 4. Functioning of the markets: Improving labor market flexibility and inclusvity
  - Search and matching frictions
  - Making labor markets work for women



# Commonly used ALMP

# Improving labor markets through tackling search cost and matching frictions:

- Search cost: can be monetary, time, physical and psychological
  - High search cost generates inefficiency and inequality in labour market outcomes
  - Search expense is a significant share of income or spending for unemployed jobseekers
    - □ In Addis Ababa (Abebe et al., 2021) job seekers spend nearly 16% of overall spending and in Johannesburg (Carranza et al. 2022)18% of income is spent on search related activities.
  - With urbanization, search frictions could become more salient
    - ☐ Following urbanization in Nigeria, aggregate household labor supply declined impacting women more adversely compared to men (Animashaun and Emediegwu 2023).
    - ☐ In Ethiopia, individual's likelihood of formal employment is negatively related to their home's distance from city center (Abebe et al. 2021)

# Commonly used ALMP

Various interventions aimed at reducing search frictions show promising results

- 1. Subsidizing search:
  - 1.1 Transport subsidy: Supporting search through transport subsidy can improve search behavior but results are often short-lived (Franklin 2018; Abebe et al, 2021; Banerjee and Sequeira 2023)
  - 1.2 Application subsidy: Application incentive improves both quantity and the quality of applicants (Abebe et al., 2021)
- 2. Skills signaling: Supporting search by improving job seekers signaling ability can improve search strategies and labor market outcomes.
  - Reference letters and skills certification in South Africa (Abel et al., 2020; Carranza et al. 2022) Ethiopia (Abebe et al., 2021) and Uganda (Bassi and Nansamba 2022).

# Commonly used ALMP

- 3. Information: accurate information about the labor market can improve workers' belief, efficacy of job search and firm's retention
  - Information about wage growth and promotion prospects improve retention (Wu and Wang 2023)
  - Job fair can help jobseekers adjust their expectations and job search behavior (Beam, 2016; Abebe et al., 2022)
    - A study in Egypt shows that information barriers are as significant a constraint as finance in limiting job fair attendance (Crepon et al., 2020)

# What policies work to narrow the gender gap in the labor market

Making labor markets work for women: Some evidence on how to promote women's participation in the labor market

- 1. Child Care: Access to child care increases women labor force participation at both the extensive and intensive margins (Bjorvatn 2022; Halim et al., 2023)
  - Childcare availability and workplace flexibility (Clark et al. 2019; Ajayi et al. 2022; Donald et al. 2023)
    - Women are willing to participate in labor markets when part-time or home-based work (e.g., gig work) positions are available (e.g., Ho et al., 2023 in India)
    - Mixed evidence on fertility control and contraception use (e.g., Finlay 2021; Bandiera et al. 2020; Branson and Byker 2018)

# What policies work to narrow the gender gap in the labor market

- 2. Household bargaining and control over resources
  - Interventions that bestow resource control or alleviate expropriation risks can promote investment in self- and wage-employment (Campos et al., 2024; Field et al., 2021)
  - Spousal competition can led to sub-optimal resource allocation to women businesses and, even worse, could lead to cannibalizing of their businesses (campos et al., 2024)
- 3. Changing norms/beliefs: misperceptions about community's attitude towards women labor market participation can discourage women's participation
  - Stigma against women's labor market participation is likely overestated, and the misperception gap is larger for men (Bernhardt et al. 2018; Bursztyn et al., 2020)

# What policies work to narrow the gender gap in the labor market

- 4. Making public spaces safe during commuting and at work (Christensen and Osman 2023)
  - Women accept lower wages for shorter and safer commutes (Le Barbanchon et al., 2021)
- 5. Hiring and work place discrimination: practices that reduce discrimination and harassment in hiring and workplace can promote labor market participation and good occupational choices for women.
  - Real or perceived discrimination can distort women's entry into male-dominated sectors (Alibhai et al., 2015)
  - Women may face conscious and unconscious biases during hiring and after employment
  - Scarcity of rigorous experimental estimates on the effects of gender-debiasing interventions on firm managers



## Future Research

#### Several avenues for future research

- Does improvements in match quality improve firm productivity and profitability?
  - How to reduce turnover, improve match quality and "lock" workers into jobs?
- More work on ALMP and beyond
  - Long-term impacts of ALMP
  - Spillover and displacement effects of ALMP
  - Psychological support to increase search and labor supply
- FCV, climate change and informal settlements
  - How do local labor markets work for IDPs and refugees?
  - What are the appropriate jobs and social cohesion programs? (E.g., Safetynet programs in refugee receiving Cs, e.g., Jordan, Ethiopia)
- Recruitment technology and search strategies
  - Implications of WFH, gig work, AI and innovative platform design?

### Future Research

#### Several avenues for future research

- Public Employment Services and reentry of women
  - How do PES help in the re-entry of female workers back to the labor market after interruptions arising from childbirth and child-rearing?
  - How do PES support the integration of migrant women into the formal wage market?
  - How do PES address discrimination and safety issues in public spaces?
  - How do PES improve resilience against employment shocks?
- Migration: Government supported migration
  - How does it affect stayers and leavers?
- Policies supporting growth-oriented entrepreneurship
  - Targeting entrepreneurs with the right economic objectives for "jobs growth" intervention?

# Thank You!