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The Labor Market Consequences of Gender Differences in Job Search

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THE LABOR MARKET CONSEQUENCES OF
GENDER DIFFERENCES IN JOB SEARCH

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The Labor Market Consequences of Gender Differences in Job Search*

by

Stefan Eriksson^a and Jonas Lagerström^b

October 21, 2008

Abstract

This paper studies gender differences in labor market outcomes using data from an Internet-based CV database. The women in the database get fewer firm contacts than men, and we show that this is partly explained by differences in education, experience and other skills, is not explained by differences in occupation and place of residence, and to a large extent is explained by differences in geographical search area. When we take into account differences in search area, the negative gender effect disappears. However, the results differ somewhat across subgroups: For highly skilled women a negative gender effect remains.

Keywords: Job Search, Gender Differences, Discrimination

JEL codes: J61, J71

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1 Introduction

In most countries, there are large and persistent gender differences in labor market outcomes. In general, women have lower labor force participation and employment rates, lower wages, are more likely to work part-time, and tend to work in a narrow range of female dominated jobs. Obviously, there are many possible explanations for these facts including discrimination, but one partial explanation may be that women are less mobile and thus less willing to accept jobs located far away from their place of residence. If female searchers restrict their job search to areas close to their current home, this may result in fewer job offers and thus lower employment and/or lower quality matches. Thus it is important to study if there are gender differences in job search behavior and, if so, if these differences matter for the labor market outcome.

The purpose of this paper is to study the labor market consequences of gender differences in job search. To do this we use data from an Internet-based CV database which contains detailed information about the characteristics of the searchers, their requirements about the location of the jobs they want to find, and the number of contacts they get with firms. This allows us to investigate if the searchers' choice of search area affects the number of contacts they get, and if this explains why women get fewer contacts than men.

Our data is from 'My CV' which is an Internet-based search channel provided by the Swedish Public Employment Office since the late 1990s. Anyone who wants to find a job is invited to submit details over the Internet to the database. Recruiting firms are allowed to search in this database for applicants that they find interesting and can contact them for interviews etc. by e-mail within the system. The data covers all applicants remaining as active searchers in December 2004 who agreed to participate in a research project on the recruitment behavior of firms. Our sample includes 15 523 searchers.

The dataset has several advantages. First, we have data on the requirements the searchers have about the location of the jobs they want to find: When registering in the database, the searchers have to state in which counties/cities they are looking for work. Thus we have detailed information about the geographical constraints of the searchers' job search. Second, we have detailed information about the searchers' personal characteristics, i.e. education, experience, other skills etc, which we need to control for gender differences in these dimensions. Our data includes essentially the same information as the employers have

when they choose which applicants to contact.¹ Third, our sample is quite large, includes a diverse pool of searchers, reflects genuine job search, and the types of jobs covered are not chosen by us.

We start by presenting descriptive statistics on the requirements searchers have about the location of the jobs they want to find. We show that women are more restrictive than men in their choice of search area: On average, women search in fewer cities, counties and local labor market areas, are less likely to accept jobs located anywhere in Sweden and are less willing to accept jobs located far away from their current home. These differences remain even if we compare men and women who are identical in terms of age, ethnicity, employment status, education, experience, other skills and place of residence. Then we investigate how the number of firm contacts the searchers get is affected by these differences. We show that women get fewer contacts than men. Some of this difference is explained by gender differences in education, experience and other skills, but not by differences in occupation and place of residence. However, even when we control for all these factors a clear negative gender effect remains. We then include variables measuring the searchers' restrictions on their search area, and find that these variables are highly significant: Searchers who look for work in the metropolitan areas get more firm contacts. Also, when we control for these differences, we find that the negative gender effect disappears. Thus our results show that gender differences in the searchers' choice of search area are an important explanation why women have a lower contact rate. Moreover, we find that there are some differences across subgroups: For women with postsecondary education or searching for white-collar jobs the search area is important, but a negative gender effect still remains when we control for the search area.

The dataset used in this paper is also used in Eriksson and Lagerström (2007) to study discrimination.² They show that firms use ethnicity, age and employment status, but not gender, to sort workers. However, the focus in that paper is on the employers' choice of which applicants to contact, and it does not explicitly consider how the searchers' search behavior, in terms of their requirements about the location of the jobs, affect their job search success.

Our paper is related to the literature on job search. In general, there is little direct

¹ We have access to all information except for the content of the personal presentation; see Section 2.

² Eriksson and Lagerström (2006) and Edin and Lagerström (2006) study discrimination using a related, but more restrictive dataset. None of these papers focus on the searchers' choice of geographical search area.

evidence due to lack of data, and thus most of the existing studies are based on surveys. Keith and McWilliams (1999), using US data from the NLSY, report that young men, on average, are engaged in more employed job search than young women. Also, they find that the returns from job search is similar for men and women when they engage in similar job search and mobility, but since women more often quit for family-related reasons their payoff tends to be lower.³ Parsons (1991) and van Opheim (1991) report evidence that women search less than men (see also Blau (1992) and Jones (1989)). Van Ham et al (2001) find no gender differences in the willingness to accept a job at a greater distance. However, for women the presence of a partner or children has a negative on their spatial flexibility, whereas for men it does not. Van Hooft et al (2005) report evidence that males and singles invest more time in search than females and individuals with families respectively.

A related strand of literature is papers that study the determinants of migration and/or willingness to move. However, most of these studies tend to focus on actual migration due to lack of data on searchers' willingness to move. An exception is Ahn et al (1999), who examine unemployed workers willingness to move using Spanish survey data and find that family responsibility, age and education are important.

The rest of this paper is organized as follows. Section 2 introduces the dataset and presents descriptive statistics. Section 3 discusses identification and estimation issues, presents the results and discusses robustness issues. Section 4 concludes.

2 Data

The database 'My CV' is a search channel offered to job seekers by the Swedish Public Employment Office since 1997. Anyone who wants to find a job, irrespective of current employment status, is invited to submit details to the database about their personal characteristics and the requirements they have about the jobs they want to find. This can be done either from home over the Internet or at the Employment Office. The searchers submit their information by entering their personal details into a number of standardized forms. In the forms, the searchers are asked to enter information about their education, labor market experience, other skills, the requirements they have about the jobs they want to find, and are

³ Larsson and Lindén (2006), using Swedish data, report that women, in general, do not search less than men, but women with children do.

asked to write a short personal presentation.⁴ The information is only made visible to employers if all forms have been completed, so there are no missing values. Employers are invited to search in this database for applicants that they find interesting, and can contact them for interviews etc. by e-mail within the system.

In late 2004, 'My CV' contained over 100 000 searchers. All searchers who logged into the system in December 2004 were asked about whether they wanted to participate in a research project on the recruitment behavior of firms. Nearly 40 percent agreed, and those who agreed were also asked to answer a short questionnaire.⁵ The sample we use includes 15 523 searchers. Table 1 presents some descriptive statistics about these searchers.

In Table 1 we see that the searchers in the sample are quite diversified with respect to age, gender, ethnicity, education, experience, occupation and place of residence: The average age is 34 years, 51 percent are women, 12 percent have non-Nordic names, 28 percent are employed, 53 percent are unemployed, and more than half have a post-secondary education, and most searchers have some labor market experience.

Table 2 presents descriptive statistics on the searchers' requirements about the location of the jobs they want.

In Table 2 we see that there are large differences between men and women in their geographical requirements about the jobs they want to find. Men search in around twice as many places, and are willing to accept jobs which are located around 50 percent farther away from their present home. The differences are qualitatively similar, but smaller in size, if we only consider searchers who have not stated that they are looking for work in all of Sweden.

An interesting question is if the gender differences in Table 2 remain if we control for observable differences in age, ethnicity, education, experience, place of residence etc. Table 3 presents OLS regressions of some measures of the searchers' geographical search requirements.⁶

In Table 3 we see that the negative gender effect remains even if we compare men and women who are identical in terms of age, ethnicity, employment status, education, experience, other skills and place of residence. The gender estimate is qualitatively similar, but smaller in size, if we only include searchers who have not stated that they are looking for

⁴ Due to privacy concerns, the Employment Office did not give us access to the personal presentations except for their lengths. The presentations may contain both information that have been registered elsewhere and new information.

⁵ See Eriksson and Lagerström (2007) for the details about the questionnaire.

⁶ The results are similar if we use the probit model in the estimation in column (1) and the Poisson model in the estimation in column 2.

work in all of Sweden. In addition, we see that searchers who are young or have a post-secondary education tend to choose a bigger search area. We have also run separate regressions for different subgroups. An interesting finding here is that the negative gender effect is only significant for women over 25 years old. This may be interpreted as an indication that women with families and/or children are more restrictive in their job search.⁷

Table 4 presents descriptive statistics on the number of contacts the searchers have received during their time in the database.

In Table 4 we see that, on average, men receive more contacts than women. However, this result may be explained by gender differences in observable characteristics, and thus should be interpreted with caution until we control for all differences simultaneously in a regression analysis.

An important issue is how representative the sample is for the whole Swedish labor market. Essentially, there are two selection issues we need to consider: First, do the searchers who agreed to participate in our study differ from those who did not? Second, do the searchers and firms who use ‘My CV’ differ from those who use other search channels? These issues are analyzed in depth in Eriksson and Lagerström (2007). There it is shown that our searchers are quite similar to other job seekers. This is hardly surprising since the Employment Office strongly encourages job seekers to register in ‘My CV’. We know less about the firms that use the database, but according to the Employment Office, ‘My CV’ is one of their most important search tools and they claim that it is widely used by firms in most sectors of the economy. Still these selection issues should be kept in mind when interpreting the results.

3 Estimation and Results

Our focus is on understanding the labor market consequences of gender differences in job search. However, as we have seen in Table 1 there are gender differences in many other characteristics as well. Thus, in order to estimate the effects of various factors on the number of firm contacts the searchers get, we need to introduce control variables for all such differences. The approach we will use here is to successively introduce more and more control variables to see which factors are important for understanding the gender difference in the number of contacts received. In particular, we want to see if we can eliminate the

⁷ Our data does not include information on marital status and children.

gender effect by taking into account observable gender differences or if there remains an unexplained part.

Concerning identification it is important to note that we have access to *essentially the same information* about the searchers as the firms which use the database (we have all information except for the content of the short personal presentations), so there are no major unobservable factors which may affect the number of firm contacts received. Thus unobserved heterogeneity should not be a major problem (see the discussion on robustness below).

Our data is count data and we use the Poisson model in the estimation.⁸ In all regressions, we include a time vector to control for the fact that searchers who have been in the database long have received more contacts (see the discussion on robustness below). Table 5 presents some of the results.

In column 1 in Table 5 we include only the gender variable (the time vector is always included), and see that being a woman has a strong negative effect: The relative effect is around 15 percent. In column 2 we add the skill variables and see that they have the expected positive effects. The gender effect declines in size, but is still clearly negative: The relative effect is now around 9 percent. Thus the fact that women have somewhat less education, experience and other skills, partially explain the gender effect. In column 3 we add dummy variables for occupation, and see that the negative gender effect increases somewhat: The relative effect is now around 10 percent. We get similar results if we add a variable measuring the number of occupations the searchers have stated that they are considering. Thus gender differences in occupation do not explain why women receive fewer contacts.

In column 4 we add dummy variables for the searchers' county of residence and find that, although most of these dummy variables are significant, the gender effect is not reduced at all. Instead, it becomes slightly bigger; the relative effect is now close to 11 percent. Thus the fact that women get fewer contacts than men is not explained by where the searchers currently live.

In column 5 we add dummy variables for the counties where the searchers are looking for work.⁹ We find that three county dummies have significant positive effects; Stockholm,

⁸ As a robustness check, we have also estimated the model using the negative binomial model.

⁹ We assume that searchers who have stated that they are looking for work in all of Sweden and searchers who have stated that they are looking for work in all counties are similar. This should be the correct way to handle this issue, since an employer who searches for a worker willing to work in a specific city/county will be presented with *all* otherwise relevant searchers that have stated that they are looking for work in that city/county. Thus, from an employer's perspective, a searcher who searches in all of Sweden and a searcher who search in the specific city/county are similar (all else equal).

Västra Götaland and Halland. The first two are the biggest counties in Sweden and they include the two biggest cities Stockholm and Göteborg. *Thus it seems to be highly beneficial to search in the metropolitan counties.* Moreover, when we include these variables *the negative gender effect disappears.* Thus, the fact that women are less willing than men to search in these counties seems to be an important explanation for why they get fewer contacts. Moreover, we get similar results if we, instead of the search county variables, use ‘search in a metropolitan area’, ‘average acceptable distance’ or ‘number of counties’ as the explanatory variable.

It should be noted that, while the negative gender effect disappears when we introduce the search variables, the negative effects from having a non-Nordic name or being unemployed remain stable across all columns in Table 5. Thus, unlike the gender effect, these estimates are not affected by including measures of the search area.

Another interesting issue is whether the effects differ across different subgroups. To investigate whether this is the case we have run separate regressions for different subgroups. Table 6 presents some of these results.

The effects from the search variables are similar for most subgroups. Also, the negative gender effect is eliminated for most groups. However, for women with post-secondary education and women searching for white-collar jobs the negative gender effect remains even when we control for search area. The first difference is statistically significant. This is an indication that highly skilled women face discrimination.

All the results presented above appear stable across different specifications and estimation methods; e.g. the negative binomial model. In addition, we have experimented with a number of extensions to the baseline specification to see if our results are robust. First, we may worry that there exist important observable variables, affecting the number of contacts the searchers get, which we have not managed to properly control for. To test whether this is the case, we have experimented with adding additional variables from official registers not observable to the firms. For example, for a sub-sample of the searchers we have data on previous wages. It is reasonable to expect these wages to be highly correlated with the searchers’ abilities, and thus, if we include it in the regressions and find that it is not significant, this is a strong indication that we have managed to control for most of the important differences. Including this variable, we find that it is insignificant. Thus, it seems that we have managed to control for most differences across searchers. Second, we may worry that the way we control for time affects the results. Essentially, there is a stock-flow

sample issue that we need to consider as searchers enter and leave the database continuously. In our regressions, we have controlled for differences in the time searchers have been registered in the database by including a time vector consisting of time and time squared. However, other alternatives are possible such as dividing the searchers into discrete groups based on their time in the database or to analyze sub-samples of searchers where restrictions are imposed on the time searchers are allowed to have been in the database. We have experimented with these alternatives, and find that our results seem robust to the way we control for time (c.f. Eriksson and Lagerström (2007)). Still, this issue is important and should be kept in mind when interpreting the results. Third, we may be worried about reversed causality; i.e. that searchers who receive few contacts over time increase the size of their search area. However, since we only observe the current search area, this should bias our results downwards and thus decrease the effect of search area on the number of contacts received.

To summarize the results, we find that women get fewer firm contacts than men, that some of this difference is explained by differences in skills, that none of the difference is explained by differences in occupation and place of residence, and that the remaining difference is explained by women's choice of search area. Thus, when we control for all these differences simultaneously no negative gender effect remains. Also, we find that the results differ somewhat across subgroups: For highly skilled women the choice of search area matters but a negative gender effect remains even when we control for it.

4 Conclusions

There is ample evidence that there are gender differences in labor market outcomes: On average, women have lower labor force participation and employment rates and lower wages. Obviously there are many possible explanations for these facts, but one partial explanation may be that women, for some reason, are more restrictive in their choice of search area, and that this may reduce their labor market opportunities.

In this paper, we use data from an Internet-based CV database to analyze whether gender differences in the searchers' choice of search area explain gender differences in the number of firm contacts they get. We find that the job seekers' choice of search area is important, even when we control for a large number of other differences across searchers. Also, we find that when we take into account differences in the job seekers' choice of search area, the negative gender effect on the number of contacts received disappears. For highly

skilled women the choice of search area matters, but a negative gender effect still remains indicating that gender discrimination is important as well.

There are many possible explanations for why women are more restrictive than men in their choice of search area. For example it is widely documented that women, on average, spend more time doing household work and caring for children, and this may make them less willing to accept jobs located far away from their home. Also, the fact that women, on average, earn less than men may give them less incentives to search for jobs located far away. Thus the opportunity costs of looking for work far away may very well differ between men and women.

Our results demonstrate the importance of taking into account differences in job search behavior across groups in discrimination studies. If such differences are ignored, there is a high risk that the results get biased.

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Table 1. Descriptive statistics about the characteristics of the searchers (in fractions)

	All	Men	Women
<i>Gender:</i>			
Female	0.51	-	-
<i>Ethnicity:</i>			
Non-Nordic name	0.12	0.14	0.11
<i>Age:</i>			
Mean (years)	34.5	36.1	33.0
Age 20-25	0.27	0.22	0.34
Age 26-35	0.33	0.33	0.27
Age 36-50	0.28	0.30	0.27
Age 51-	0.12	0.15	0.09
<i>Employment status:</i>			
Employed	0.28	0.28	0.28
Unemployed	0.53	0.57	0.50
Participate in a labor market program	0.05	0.05	0.04
University student	0.05	0.04	0.05
Participate in other adult education	0.02	0.02	0.04
High school student	0.01	0.00	0.01
On parental leave	0.01	0.00	0.02
Other	0.06	0.04	0.07
<i>Highest level of completed education:</i>			
Primary	0.12	0.12	0.11
Secondary	0.32	0.29	0.34
Post-secondary	0.56	0.57	0.55
<i>Work experience:</i>			
Less than 1 year	0.14	0.14	0.15
1-2 years	0.11	0.10	0.13
2-5 years	0.19	0.17	0.21
5-10 years	0.14	0.15	0.14
10-15 years	0.10	0.10	0.11
15-20 years	0.09	0.09	0.10
More than 20 years	0.21	0.26	0.17
Almost no experience in desired occupation	0.28	0.26	0.30
Some experience in desired occupation	0.39	0.39	0.40
Almost all experience in desired occupation	0.33	0.35	0.30
<i>Other skills:</i>			
Managerial experience	0.34	0.41	0.26
Foreign experience	0.10	0.13	0.07
Telecommuting experience	0.11	0.15	0.08
Research experience	0.05	0.07	0.04
Driving license	0.79	0.83	0.75
Good language skills - Swedish	1.00	1.00	1.00
Good language skills - English	0.62	0.63	0.60
Good language skills - French	0.04	0.03	0.06
Good language skills - German	0.14	0.14	0.14
Good language skills - Spanish	0.04	0.03	0.05
Number of languages	3.56	3.55	3.58
Number of computer programs	2.37	2.73	2.02
Number of other skills	5.02	6.71	3.41
<i>Occupation:</i>			
Number of occupations	2.44	2.45	2.43
Legislators, senior officials and managers (Amsyk1)	0.04	0.07	0.02
Professionals (Amsyk2)	0.34	0.37	0.32
Technicians and associate professionals (Amsyk3)	0.32	0.38	0.27
Clerks (Amsyk4)	0.31	0.17	0.44
Service workers and shop sales workers (Amsyk5)	0.27	0.19	0.35
Skilled agricultural and fishery workers (Amsyk6)	0.04	0.03	0.05
Craft and related trades workers (Amsyk7)	0.13	0.22	0.04
Plant and machine operators and assemblers (Amsyk8)	0.13	0.22	0.05
Elementary occupations (Amsyk9)	0.30	0.30	0.31
<i>Place of residence:</i>			
Metropolitan municipalities	0.21	0.21	0.20
Suburban municipalities	0.15	0.15	0.15
Large city municipalities	0.29	0.30	0.29
Commuter municipalities	0.06	0.06	0.06

Sparsely populated municipalities	0.03	0.03	0.02
Manufacturing municipalities	0.05	0.04	0.05
Other municipalities >25,000	0.13	0.13	0.14
Other municipalities 12,500-25,000	0.06	0.06	0.06
Other municipalities <12,500	0.02	0.02	0.03
Mean number of weeks in 'My CV'	51.9	55.8	48.2
Median number of weeks in 'My CV'	37.9	40.4	35.9

Notes: The ethnicity variable is based on a question in the questionnaire. All other variables are taken directly from 'My CV', except for employment status and experience which are from the questionnaire (this data is compared with the information registered in 'My CV' to make sure it is similar). Experience in desired occupation refers to experience only in occupations where the searcher is looking for work, and a searcher may look for work in several occupations. The municipality categories are defined by Statistics Sweden.

Table 2. Descriptive statistics about the location of the jobs (in fractions)

	All	Men	Women
Number of cities	51.0 (15.7)	68.5 (20.1)	34.3 (12.1)
Number of counties	4.24 (1.76)	5.39 (1.96)	3.14 (1.59)
Number of local labor market areas	12.5 (4.03)	16.6 (4.90)	8.66 (3.32)
Metropolitan counties	0.72 (0.68)	0.76 (0.71)	0.68 (0.65)
Metropolitan municipalities	0.63 (0.58)	0.69 (0.63)	0.57 (0.54)
Suburban municipalities	0.61 (0.55)	0.67 (0.60)	0.55 (0.51)
Large city municipalities	0.81 (0.78)	0.85 (0.82)	0.77 (0.75)
Commuter municipalities	0.62 (0.57)	0.70 (0.63)	0.55 (0.51)
Sparsely populated municipalities	0.26 (0.15)	0.33 (0.18)	0.20 (0.13)
Manufacturing municipalities	0.42 (0.33)	0.48 (0.37)	0.35 (0.29)
Other municipalities >25,000	0.70 (0.65)	0.76 (0.70)	0.64 (0.61)
Other municipalities 12,500-25,000	0.46 (0.38)	0.52 (0.42)	0.40 (0.35)
Other municipalities <12,500	0.32 (0.22)	0.39 (0.25)	0.25 (0.19)
All of Sweden	0.13 (0)	0.18 (0)	0.08 (0)
Abroad	0.12 (0.09)	0.16 (0.11)	0.09 (0.07)
Average distance from home city (km)	111.2 (69.5)	134.7 (76.9)	88.9 (63.2)
Maximum distance from home city (km)	248.9 (121.2)	315.6 (140.2)	185.8 (105.1)

Notes: Local labor market areas are based on commuting patterns and defined by Statistics Sweden. Metropolitan counties are the counties around the three biggest cities in Sweden (Stockholm, Göteborg and Malmö). The municipality categories are defined by Statistics Sweden. 'Average distance from home city' is calculated as the average of the distances between the searcher's home city and the cities where he or she is searching for work. 'Maximum distance from home city' is the maximum of the distances between the searcher's home city and the cities where he or she is looking for work. When calculating the distances we assume that searching in 'all of Sweden' is similar to searching in all counties. In parentheses we report the corresponding numbers excluding searchers who look for work in 'all of Sweden'.

Table 3. OLS estimates of some measures of the searchers' geographical search requirements

	(1)	(2)	(3)
Female	-0.082*** (0.007)	-1.732*** (0.131)	-0.352*** (0.027)
Non-Nordic name	0.018** (0.008)	-0.195 (0.159)	-0.028 (0.034)
Age 26-35	0.030*** (0.001)	0.814*** (0.182)	0.115*** (0.035)
Age 36-50	0.002 (0.013)	0.329 (0.238)	-0.027 (0.049)
Age 51-	0.015 (0.016)	0.781*** (0.294)	0.033 (0.064)
Unemployed	-0.006 (0.007)	-0.157 (0.118)	-0.104*** (0.025)
Secondary education	-0.015* (0.009)	-0.087 (0.153)	-0.031 (0.036)
Post-secondary education	0.026*** (0.009)	0.615*** (0.155)	0.106*** (0.035)
Number of observations	15 523	15 523	15 523
R ²	0.513	0.154	0.288

Notes: Estimated using ordinary least squares. The dependent variables are 'searching in a metropolitan county' (column 1), 'number of counties' (column 2), and 'average distance (100 km) from home city' (column 3). Also included is a constant, a time vector, all other skill variables listed in Table 1 and dummy variables for place of residence. Robust standard errors are in parentheses. ***, ** and * denote significance at the 1, 5 and 10 percent level.

Table 4. Descriptive statistics about the contacts received

	Number of contacts received
All	0.76
Men	0.89
Women	0.65

Notes: 'Number of contacts received' is the total number of contacts received during the time the searchers have been registered in 'My CV'.

Table 5. Poisson estimates of the number of firm contacts received

	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
Female	-0.154*** (0.036)	-0.086** (0.036)	-0.103** (0.043)	-0.108*** (0.041)	0.003 (0.039)
Non-Nordic name	-	-0.221*** (0.062)	-0.196*** (0.054)	-0.202*** (0.054)	-0.209*** (0.052)
Age 51-	-	-0.574*** (0.113)	-0.162 (0.102)	-0.143 (0.101)	-0.157 (0.097)
Unemployed	-	-0.137*** (0.042)	-0.125*** (0.039)	-0.108*** (0.038)	-0.113*** (0.036)
Secondary education	-	0.131** (0.060)	0.097* (0.057)	0.098* (0.056)	0.074 (0.051)
Post-secondary education	-	0.163*** (0.053)	0.141*** (0.052)	0.139*** (0.050)	0.097** (0.047)
Dummies for occupation	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
Dummies for county of residence	No	No	No	Yes	Yes
Dummies for county of job search	No	No	No	No	Yes
Number of observations	15 523	15 523	15 523	15 523	15 523
R ²	0.255	0.313	0.391	0.405	0.422

Note: Estimated using the Poisson model. The regressions also include a constant, the time vector and all other variables listed in Table 1. Robust standard errors are in parentheses. ***, ** and * denote significance at the 1, 5 and 10 percent level.

Table 6. Poisson estimates of the number of firm contacts received for different subgroups

	All	High education	Low education	White collar	Blue collar	Less than 40 years old	At least 40 years old	Nordic name	Non-employed
Female	0.003 (0.039)	-0.106** (0.048)	0.135** (0.062)	-0.094** (0.047)	-0.005 (0.048)	0.009 (0.050)	-0.079 (0.060)	-0.035 (0.041)	-0.055 (0.054)
Non-Nordic name	-0.209*** (0.052)	-0.259*** (0.064)	-0.100 (0.077)	-0.269*** (0.062)	-0.105* (0.057)	-0.113* (0.060)	-0.338*** (0.082)	- (0.055)	-0.207*** (0.073)
Age 51-	-0.157 (0.097)	-0.009 (0.129)	-0.391*** (0.140)	-0.143 (0.123)	-0.137 (0.117)	- (0.055)	-0.057 (0.106)	-0.125 (0.106)	0.079 (0.134)
Unemployed	-0.113*** (0.036)	-0.086* (0.049)	-0.135** (0.053)	-0.098** (0.045)	-0.165*** (0.042)	-0.149*** (0.046)	-0.072 (0.055)	-0.101*** (0.039)	- (0.068)
Secondary education	0.074 (0.051)	- (0.051)	- (0.051)	0.129* (0.075)	0.032 (0.055)	0.075 (0.068)	0.062 (0.077)	0.058 (0.054)	0.141** (0.072)
Post-secondary education	0.097** (0.047)	- (0.047)	- (0.047)	0.182*** (0.061)	0.108** (0.054)	0.162** (0.065)	0.101 (0.063)	0.130*** (0.049)	0.215*** (0.068)
Occupation	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
County of residence	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
County of job search	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Number of observations	15 523	8 689	6 834	8 366	11 307	10 708	4 815	13 601	8 987
R ²	0.422	0.397	0.440	0.411	0.412	0.391	0.454	0.407	0.402

Note: Estimated using the Poisson model. The regressions also include a constant, the time vector and all other variables listed in Table 1. 'High education' is postsecondary education. 'White collar' is Amsyk 1-3 and 'blue-collar' is Amsyk 4-9. Robust standard errors are in parentheses. ***, ** and * denote significance at the 1, 5 and 10 percent level.

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