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Alexander Popov, Sonia Zaharia **Credit market competition and the
gender gap:
evidence from local labor markets**

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and Ors, 2012), it has been studied alongside intra-state branching deregulation in the context of local economic outcomes, such as new business creation (Black and Strahan, 2002; Cetorelli and Strahan, 2006). Both policy reforms represent a shift in the level of local contestability of the market, by immediately increasing the threat of potential entry and reducing the market power of local incumbents. In columns (2) and (5) of Table VI, we replace the *Deregulation* dummy with a dummy equal to 1 in states that have already opened their local banking market to entry by out-of-state banks. We find a positive effect of this type of bank deregulation on both relative female labor force participation and relative female labor income. The magnitude of the measured effects are somewhat larger than in the case of intra-state banking deregulation (Table IV, column (4) and Table V, column (4)), possibly because inter-state deregulation usually follows intra-state deregulation, hence, its competitive effect is augmented immediately by an already existing pro-competitive force.

Finally, and similar to Morgan, Rine, and Strahan (2004), we replace the deregulation dummy with the ratio of in-state banking assets held by out-of-state banks. This is a *de facto* rather than a *de jure* variable, and it captures the degree of actual competition in local banking markets. Once again, we find that more intense competition in local banking markets led to an increase in the number of weeks per year that women work, relative to men (column (3)). We also find evidence that competition led to a narrowing in the gender wage gap (column (6)), although this effect is marginally insignificant (p -value of 0.12).

5.2.2 Contiguous counties

In our main tests so far, we have been comparing females' labor market outcomes—relative to males' labor market outcomes—in a deregulated state (the treatment group) relative to a regulated state (the control group). As we already argued, this empirical strategy can produce biased estimates in there are existing unobservable trends which differ across states. Economic conditions can be different in deregulated states at the time of deregulation, and labor markets in those can already be becoming friendlier to females for reasons unrelated to deregulation. Models (1) and (2) allow us to estimate the average effect of deregulation net of the impact of individual characteristics that can determine propensity to work and/or equilibrium wages. However, our results can still be contaminated by a host of unobservable factors that make the population of a regulated state a

poor control group.

To assuage such concerns, we proceed to adopt the approach in Huang (2008) and we compare individuals in adjacent MSAs across neighboring U.S. states, one of which is deregulated while the other is still regulated.⁴ The assumption is that two neighboring MSAs are really one economic area when it comes to observable factors such as growth and to unobservable factors such as growth opportunities or labor market conditions. Hence, any discernible differences in how fast the labor gender gap narrows can be attributed to changes in banking market conditions in one MSA but not in the other.⁵

We report the estimates from these modified versions of Model (1) and (2) in Table VII. As we are only using individuals from the 14 treatment MSAs and the 14 control MSAs listed in Table III, the number of observations is reduced to 35,749 in the regression where the dependent variable is the number of weeks worked last year, and to 26,493 in the regression where the dependent variable is labor compensation. Our main results obtain in this reduced sample, too. In particular, we find that removing intra-state branching restrictions increased female labor force participation by 1.1 weeks more than it did for men, in MSAs lying on the deregulated side of a state border relative to MSAs lying on the regulated side (column (1)). The effect is significant at the 1 percent statistical level, and its magnitude is numerically larger than in the full sample (Table IV, column (4)), suggesting that unobservable factors unrelated to deregulation that reduce the gender gap do not lead to an upward bias in our estimates. Numerically, the point estimate implies that bank branching deregulation narrows the gender gap in labor force participation by 29 percent.

We also continue to find that banking deregulation contributed to the reduction of gender inequality in wage income (column (2)). The effect is significant at the 5 percent statistical level, but this time the magnitude is smaller than in the full sample (Table V, column (4)), amounting to a 8 percent reduction in the gender gap. This suggests that there may be unobservable factors at play that reduce the gender gap independently of deregulation, but these are mostly subsumed in the deregulation effect at the state level.

⁴The approach in Huang (2008) relies on comparing contiguous counties. However, the MSA represents the lowest level of geographical disaggregation in the IPUMS-CPS samples.

⁵Arguably, this argument rests on the assumption that the cost of migration across geographic localities is non-negligible, preventing labor markets from clearing immediately. Empirical evidence suggests that cross-state labor migration in the United States is indeed limited, with around 1 percent of the population "moving for a job" from one state to another annually, even during an economic peak (Demyanyk, Hryshko, Luengo-Prado, and Sorensen, 2016).

5.2.3 Social norms

Another way in which our main results can be biased is if states which deregulated earlier also had market conditions and social norms more friendly to women. For example, it is possible that states with a larger share of educated women, a larger share of working females, and a culture that is more accepting of working women removed bank branching restrictions first. This would put into question the main identifying assumption in the paper, i.e., that the intensification of local competition among financial intermediaries following bank branching deregulation was unrelated to changes in local labor market that can affect women more than men. While Figures 1–3 suggest that labor market properties and social norms are not correlated with the timing of deregulation, these can nevertheless have an effect on the gender gap that can bias the empirical estimates. For example, states where social norms and labor markets are more friendly to working women may have experienced larger progress in labor markets independent of deregulation.

To account for this possibility, we now construct three additional variables. The first one is a proxy capturing attitudes towards working women. To construct it, we take survey answers from the GSS over the period 1977–1994.⁶ The data set contains a range of demographic and income characteristics. Importantly, it contains the variable "FEFAM" which is defined by the answer to following question: "*It is much better for everyone involved if the man is the achiever outside the home and the woman takes care of the home and family.*" The answers are given on a scale from 1 to 4. From these answers, we construct a variable which we denote as "Gender bias". The variable is equal to 1 if the respondent answered "Strongly agree" or "Agree", and equal to 0 if the respondent answered "Disagree" or "Strongly disagree". We next estimate the following regression model:

$$GenderBias_{i,r,t} = \beta_1 X_{i,r,t} + \beta_2 \Psi_{r,t} + \varepsilon_{i,r,t} \quad (3)$$

where $X_{i,r}$ is a vector of individual-specific characteristics for individual i living in region r at time t ,⁷ and it includes age, education, gender, religion, employment status, and income. $\Psi_{r,t}$ is a matrix of year dummies and of 8 region dummies equal to 1 if the individual lives in one of the

⁶See Ongena and Popov (2016) for a similar approach.

⁷Because respondents in GSS do not report their state of residence, but only 1 of 9 regions of residence, there is arguably limited geographic heterogeneity in this variable.

following 8 regions: Mid-Atlantic, East North Central, West North Central, South Atlantic, East South Central, West South Central, Mountain, and Pacific. Then we take the point estimates on each regional dummy from Model (3) to represent a region-specific time-varying estimate of local gender bias, controlling for income and demographics, and we call this variable *Social Norms*. We assign a value of 0 to all individuals living in states in New England (the reference region).

The second empirical proxy for social and market norms is the time-varying share of working-age females who have some college education (i.e., college drop-outs, college degree, or a graduate or professional degree), in each state-year. The third one is the time-varying share of females who are in the labor force (i.e., self-employed, privately employed, or employed by the government), in each state-year. We believe that all three empirical proxies signal social norms and labor market attitudes that are more accepting of career-oriented women. Finally, we interact all three proxies with the *Female* dummy, and include the three interaction variables in Models (1) and (2), one by one.⁸ We expect that these proxies for more inclusive social norms and labor markets will have a positive effect on female labor market participation, and a negative effect on the gender gap in wage income.

Table VIII presents the results from regressions that include these additional controls. We find that in states with a lower gender bias, women work more weeks per year (column (1)). We also find that in states with a higher share of working women, relative to men, women work more weeks per year (column (2)) and receive higher wage income (column (5)). Finally, we find that in states with a higher share of women with at least some college education, women on average work more weeks per year (column (3)) and have higher wage income (column (6)). Crucially, we still find that banking deregulation is associated with both higher labor force participation (columns (1)–(3)) and with higher weekly wage income (columns (4)–(6)), for women relative to men. In all cases, the effect is significant at least at the 5 percent statistical level, and is of similar magnitude to previous estimates. Our results thus confirm that the improvement in access to finance brought about by bank branching deregulation has an impact on the labor gender gap that is independent of social norms and labor market properties that affect women and men differently.

⁸The results of these tests are robust to fixing the values of all three proxies as of 1977, preceding the main wave of deregulation events.

5.3 Economic mechanisms

5.3.1 Extensive margin of labor supply

We now turn to the economic mechanisms that underline the effect of higher contestability in credit markets on the labor gender gap. We start by noting that the positive effect of bank branching deregulation on labor force participation is not unexpected, given what we already know from the literature. In particular, two ingredients are necessary and sufficient to explain this result. The first is a general increase in labor demand driven by expanding real activity. Jayaratne and Strahan (1996) argue that banking deregulation increased efficiency in the US banking sector, leading to reduced corporate lending rates and a general increase in bank lending.⁹ Black and Strahan (2002), Cetorelli and Strahan (2006), and Kerr and Nanda (2009) show that as a result, banking deregulation intensified new business creation in the non-financial sector, resulting in an increase in the total number of business firms—and in particular, of micro, small, and medium-sized firms—in the economy. As the number of enterprises in the economy increases, the demand for labor increases, too, driving equilibrium wages up.¹⁰ The second necessary ingredient is that women’s labor supply is more wage-elastic than men’s. There is direct or indirect evidence to that in the literature, too. For example, Goldin (2006) and Bredemeier and Juessen (2013) claim that as a result of technological advancements and of decreasing fertility, female labor supply at the time when banking deregulation took place was more elastic with respect to wages than male labor supply. Hence, an increase in the demand for labor following banking deregulation, and in the presence of a relatively more elastic female labor supply, is sufficient to explain the relatively higher increase in female labor force participation.¹¹

We would like to understand, though, to what extent the increase in female labor force participation is due to action on the extensive margin (i.e., non-working women joining the labor market).¹² In Table IX, we test for the differential effect of banking deregulation on labor market

⁹Black and Strahan (2001) show that as a result of reduced monopoly rents, profits and wages in the banking industry declined in the wake of banking deregulation.

¹⁰Goldin (1990) and Smith and Ward (1985) attribute approximately half of the rise in labor force participation of married women to increases in women’s market wages.

¹¹An alternative mechanism which we do not explore, but which is plausibly at work, too, operates through an increase in the female labor supply as cheaper consumer credit facilitates the adoption of home appliances, such as washing machines, laundry machines, freezers, etc. For a conceptual argument, see Becker (1981).

¹²Because IPUMS does not report the individual’s past activity in labor markets, we cannot test for the intensive margin (i.e., women already in the labor force now working more weeks per year).

status, across genders. Column (1) reports that in deregulated states, and relative to men, women are substantially less likely to be classified as "Not in labor force". The effect is significant at the 1 percent statistical level, and the magnitude is substantial, suggesting that *ceteris paribus*, deregulation reduces the probability that a female's work status will be classified as "Not in labor force, house work" by 4.5 percentage points. Our results thus confirm that to some extent, the change in female identity over the past decades, from housewives to career-oriented professionals (Goldin, 2006; Juhn and Potter, 2006) has—in the United States at least—been aided by dramatic changes in the demand for labor brought about by increased competition in credit markets in the wake of banking deregulation.

5.3.2 Type of labor market activity

We next turn to investigating the mechanisms underpinning the narrowing of the gender pay gap. Recall that our main tests of the effect of banking deregulation on wage income are performed on the sub-sample of working individuals only, so the narrowing of the gender pay gap we uncover cannot be attributed to the transition from unpaid non-marketplace activity to paid marketplace activity. The rest of Table IX tests for the type of labor market activity that women choose in the wake of deregulation. We focus on three types of broadly defined labor market activities: working in the private sector (column (2)), working as a federal, state, or local government employee (column (3)), and being self-employed (column (4)). We find that in the wake of banking deregulation, women are substantially more likely—relative to men—to join the private sector. This effect is significant at the 1 percent statistical level, and economically important, too: deregulation increases the probability that a woman will be employed in the private sector by 5.3 percentage points, relative to an otherwise identical man. Given that women are about 19 percentage points less likely to work in the private sector, this represents a 28 percent reduction in the gender gap in private sector employment. The rest of the table demonstrates that following deregulation, women are not more likely than men to work for the government or to become self-employed. The increased propensity to join the labor market found in column (1) is thus confined to private sector activity.

Recall that the evidence in Table V suggests that those employed in the private sector have a substantially higher wage income than self-employed individuals. This is partly because the main source of income for the self-employed is "business income" and not "wage income", but also because

income from entrepreneurship is on average lower than income from wage employment, suggesting that self-employment has mostly non-pecuniary benefits (see, e.g., Hamilton, 2000; Moskowitz and Vissing-Jorgensen, 2002; Hurst and Lusardi, 2004).¹³ Our evidence suggests that the higher proclivity of women to work in the private sector—possibly driven by an increase in the supply of private sector jobs—and not to start their own business, is one mechanism that explains the narrowing of the gender pay gap.

5.3.3 Choice of employment

We next analyze the choice of employment in a more narrow sense. The narrowing of the gender pay gap can come not only from a higher proclivity to work in the private sector, where jobs are on average better paid, but also from a higher propensity to enter better-paid jobs within the private sector. With a less dynamic private sector, characterized by few large firms and little job creation and destruction, the availability of highly-paid jobs may be limited to entrenched males. Because banking deregulation increased the rates of new business creation (Black and Strahan, 2002) and the business churn in the private sector (Kerr and Nanda, 2009), the supply of highly-paid jobs previously off-limits for most females possibly increased. Orazem and Mattila (1998) show that much of the gender gap in pay is related to different rates of employment in male-dominated versus female-dominated jobs.

In Table X, we put this hypothesis to the test. For a wide range of industrial occupations reported in the IPUMS, we calculate the share of males and the average labor income in a particular occupation in 1977. Then we create a dummy variable "Male job" equal to 1 if a particular occupation falls in the top half of occupations in terms of share of males employed. We also create a dummy variable "Well-paid job" equal to 1 if a particular occupation falls in the top half of occupations in terms of average wage income. Finally, we create a dummy variable "Well-paid male job" equal to 1 if a particular occupation falls in the top half of occupations both in terms of share of males employed and in terms of average wage income.

The evidence suggests that on average during the period 1977–1994, women across the United States were on average less likely than men to work in jobs which in 1977 were predominantly male

¹³In unreported regressions, we show that *total* income is also significantly lower for the self-employed than for those employed in the private sector (results available upon request).

(column (1)), better-paid (column (2)), and predominantly male and better-paid (column (3)). At the same time, women become substantially more likely than men to enter such occupations in states that deregulated their banking markets. We also notice that traditionally-male jobs are more likely to be populated by high-school dropouts (column (1)), suggesting that such jobs are not education-intensive and therefore, probably not that well-paid. However, well-paid jobs are considerably more likely to be populated by individuals with some college education (column (2)), and so are well-paid male jobs (column (3)). The magnitude of the latter result is particularly striking: in deregulated states, and relative to men, women are 6.8 percentage points more likely to enter well-paid, traditionally male occupations. We conclude that a substantial portion of the narrowing of the gender pay gap in the wake of banking deregulation derives from the propensity of women to enter better-paid jobs that were in the past occupied mostly by men.

5.3.4 Educational attainment

Goldin (2006) notes that one of the main channels through which the gender pay gap has narrowed in the United States in recent decades is the increasing number of women who choose to acquire higher education,¹⁴ ultimately restoring the situation from before the Great Depression when most college graduates were women. Obviously, higher education is a powerful factor in explaining changes in individual-level productivity and employability.¹⁵ This is particularly true in modern industrialized countries such as the United States, characterized by a gradual shift from low-skilled manufacturing-dominated to high-skilled service-oriented economies, as well as by skill-biased technical change (Acemoglu, 1998).

There is already evidence in the literature that the demand for higher education increased during the post-banking-deregulation period. Recently, Sun and Yannelis (2016) have shown that household credit in general and student loans in particular increased after states deregulated their banking industry. They also find that lifting banking restrictions raises college enrollment by about 2.6 percentage points. Levine and Rubinstein (2013) show that banking deregulation boosted college enrollment rates among able students from middle class families, and they argue that the functioning

¹⁴The substantial increase in the share of female university students in the US sharply contrasts with the trend in France—a country where tertiary education is generally free—where the share of female university students has increased by only four percentage points, from around 50 to around 54 percent, between 1980 and 2010 (see Eurostat).

¹⁵Laeven and Popov (2016) provide empirical evidence that young individuals with college degree or more were on average less likely to be unemployed during the U.S. housing bust of the late 2000s.

of the financial system plays a powerful role in shaping the degree to which a child's educational choices—and hence economic opportunities—are defined by parental income. However, both papers are silent about whether women's demand for higher education increased relatively more. This is necessary if one is to conclude that higher education is one of the channels via which credit market competition narrowed the gender pay gap.

In Table XI, we present the estimates from a series of tests that allow us to address this question. We start by constructing three dummy variables equal to 1 if an individual has at most a high-school diploma, if an individual has some college education, and if an individual has at least a college degree. We then regress these variables one by one on the full set of individual co-variates—excluding the education dummies—as well as on the interaction between the *Female* dummy and the *Deregulation* dummy. We find that, all else equal, individuals who are relatively young or relatively old, black, divorced, or unemployed are more likely to have at most high school education (column (1)). At the same time, individuals who are middle-aged, married or single, non-Black, privately or publicly employed, or self-employed are more likely to have at least a college degree (column (3)). We also find that females are on average more likely to have at most a high school degree (column (1)) and less likely to have started but not finished college (column (2)) and especially to have at least a college degree (column (3)).

Crucially, we find that in deregulated states and relative to men, women are less likely on average to have stopped pursuing their education beyond the high-school level (column (1)). The effect is significant at the 1 percent statistical level and it amounts to a 2.6 percentage points decline in the proportion of females with at most high-school education. At the same time, we find that the rates of college enrollment increased substantially among females, and relative to males, in deregulated states (columns (2) and (3)). Importantly, women in such states became about 1.9 percentage points more likely to obtain a college degree (column (3)). The latter effect is particularly important in light of the theoretical arguments discussed above. It is also numerically large, given a 10 percent average college graduation rate in the sample.

We conclude that higher college enrollment rates, and the subsequent increase in productivity and employability, are among the root causes for the narrowing of the gender pay gap in the wake of banking deregulation. This result is also consistent with the evidence in Franz (1985) who shows that German women during the period in question were acquiring more higher education

and supplying more labor at later stages of their lives, even though the author does not relate this effect to changes in credit market conditions.

6 Conclusion

The relatively equal opportunities that women nowadays enjoy in labor markets across Europe and North America—compared with most of the rest of the world and with most of history—is one of the principal achievements of modern western civilization. While a gender gap still persists in labor force participation and in wage income in the United States, this gap closed rapidly over the course of the 1970s, 1980s, and 1990s. In this paper, we show that the banking deregulations of that period, which opened local credit markets to competition from other in-state and out-of-state banks, has played a substantial and previously undocumented role in narrowing the gender gap in labor markets. Our results suggest that banking deregulation reduced the gender gap in labor force participation by up to 29 percent, and gender inequality in wages by up to 18 percent. This result is robust to employing alternative proxies for local credit market competition, and it is robust to controlling for a wide range of observable individual-specific factors that can affect labor market outcomes, for state-specific trends that affect all agents equally, and for shocks to labor markets and to social norms that disproportionately benefit females. Importantly, it also obtains when we compare individuals across contiguous MSAs sharing a state border where unobservable confounding factors tend to be similar. We argue that taken together, our tests corroborate a genuine deregulation effect on the gender gap in labor markets.

We next turn to investigating the mechanisms at play. Banking deregulation increased the efficiency of credit markets and made credit more widely available and more affordable, both to consumers and to corporates. We argue that the increase in business activity and in the demand for labor, with female labor supply at the time being more wage-elastic than male labor supply (Goldin, 1990), explains the rise in female employment. In particular, we find that after deregulation, women are substantially less likely to be classified as "Not in the labor force", suggesting that banking deregulation affected female labor force participation on the extensive margin. Regarding the gender pay gap, we identify three forces that have contributed to its reduction. Namely, we find that women in deregulated states are substantially more likely to work in the private sector, to

enter well-paid traditionally male jobs, and to acquire more formal education.

We stop short of a number of important questions. For example, did a decline in taste-based discrimination play a role in the narrowing of the gender gap? Levine, Levkov, and Rubinstein (2014) have recently argued that banking deregulation boosted black workers' relative wages by facilitating the entry of new firms (labor demand effect) and by reducing the manifestation of racial prejudices (discrimination effect). While we focus on mechanisms related to labor demand and to the demand for schooling, it is possible that taste-based discrimination against women declined with banking-sector reforms. We leave this and other important questions for future research.

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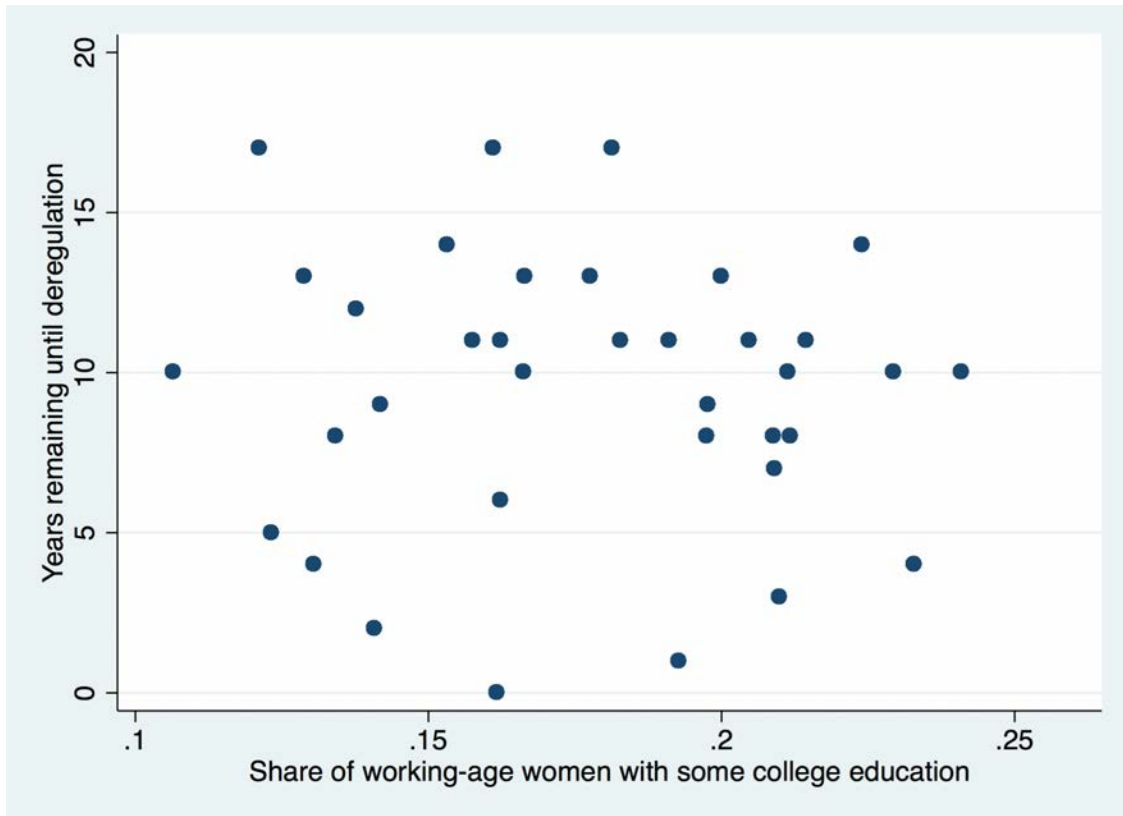
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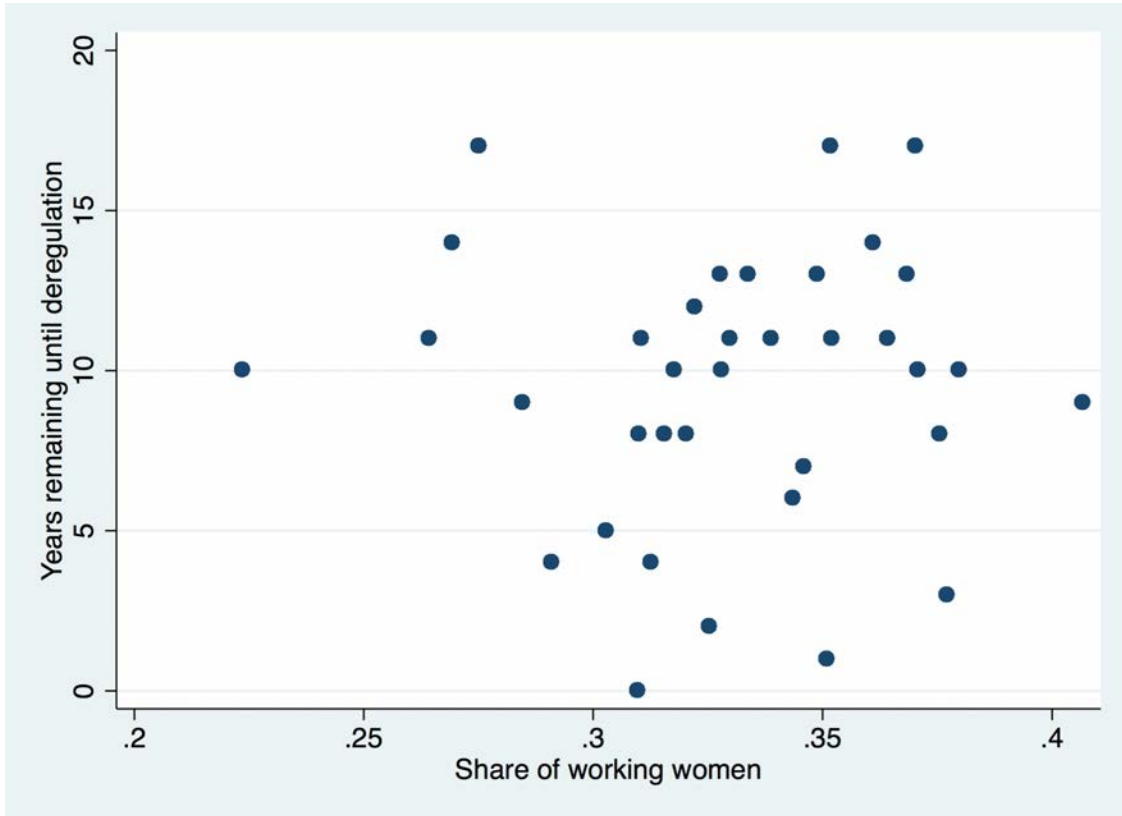
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Figure 1: Share of educated women and years to deregulation in 1977



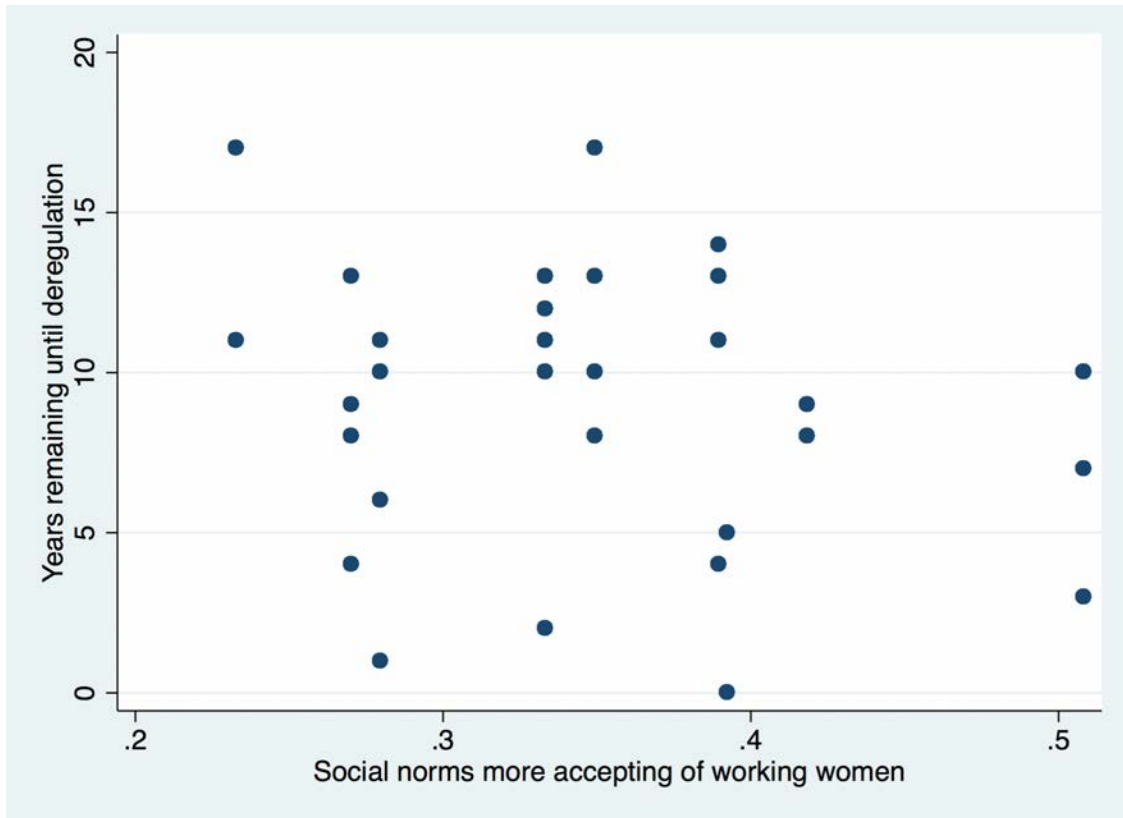
Note: This figure shows the years remaining until intra-state banking deregulation and the share of working-age women who have some college education (i.e. at least one year of college), calculated from averages at the state level in 1977.

Figure 2: Share of working women and years to deregulation in 1977



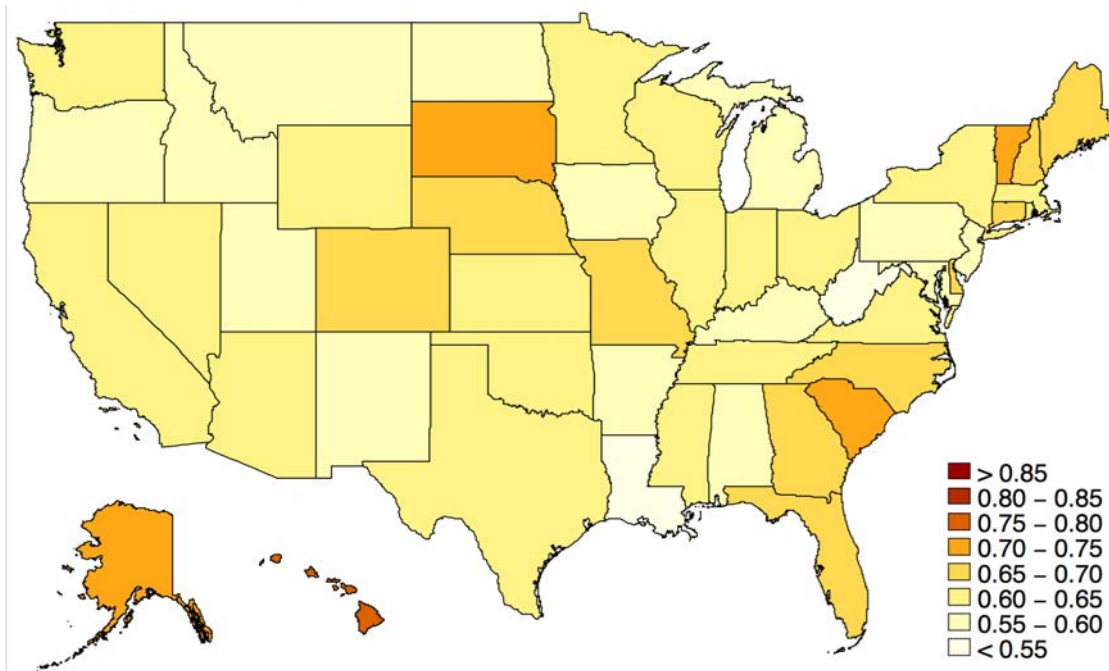
Note: This figure shows the years remaining until intra-state banking deregulation and the share of women who are in the labor force (i.e. self-employed, employed in the private sector, or employed by the government), calculated from averages at the state level in 1977.

Figure 3: Social norms and years to deregulation in 1977



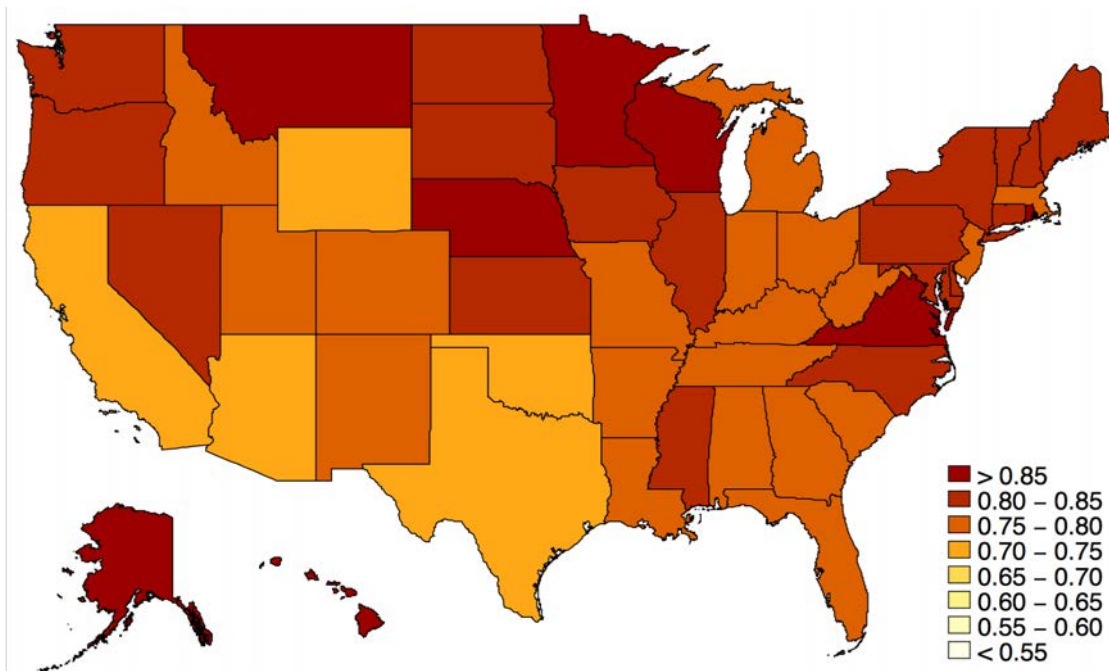
Note: This figure shows the years remaining until intra-state banking deregulation and the share of respondents in the General Social Survey who answer "Strongly disagree" or "Disagree" when confronted with the following statement: "It is much better for everyone involved if the man is the achiever outside the home and the woman takes care of the home and family." The share is calculated in 1977 at the regional level.

Figure 4: Weeks worked, women as share of men, in 1977



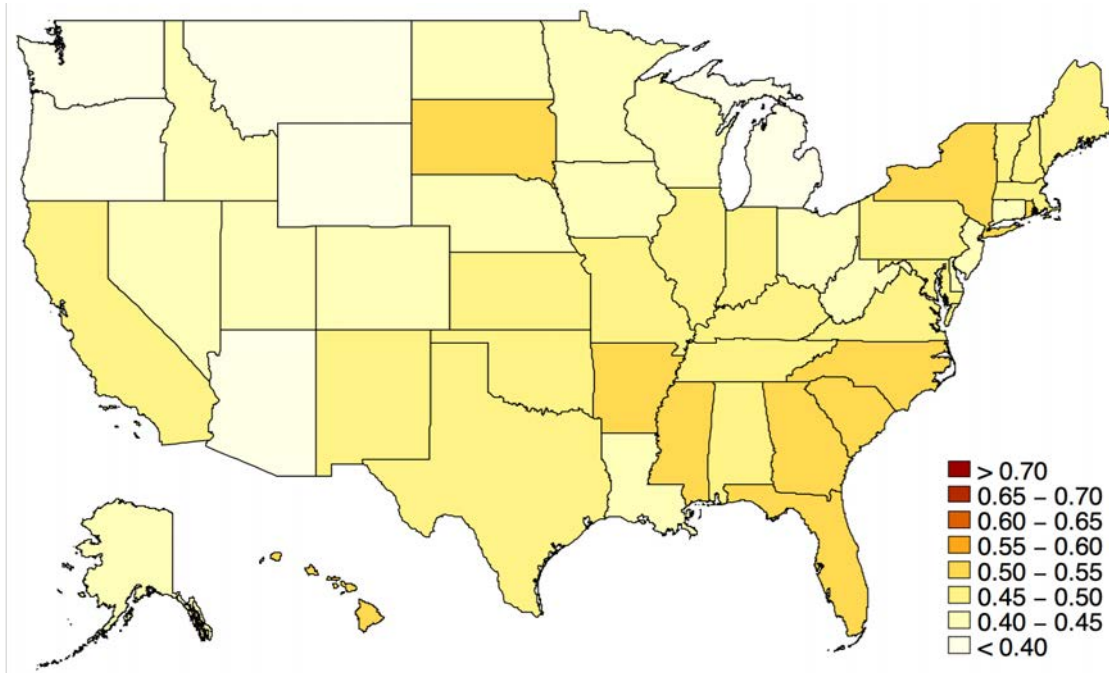
Note: This figure shows the state by state ratio of the average number of weeks worked by women to the average number of weeks worked by men in 1977. The number of weeks worked is the total number of weeks worked by the respondent in the year preceding the survey year.

Figure 5: Weeks worked, women as share of men, in 1994



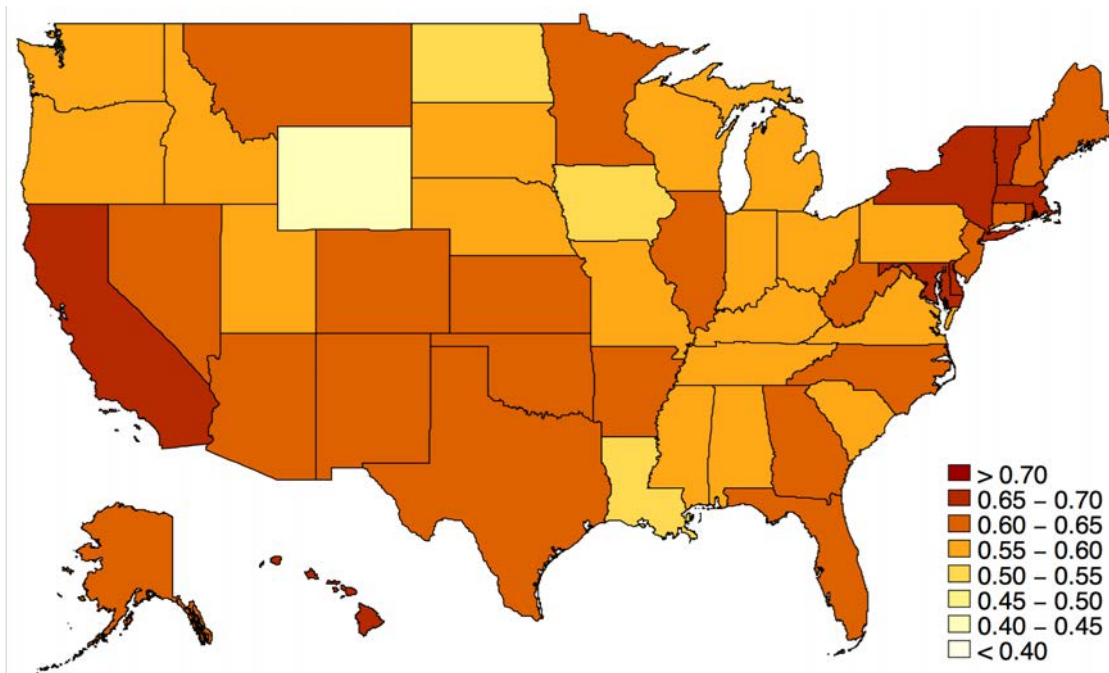
Note: This figure shows the state by state ratio of the average number of weeks worked by women to the average number of weeks worked by men in 1994. The number of weeks worked is the total number of weeks worked by the respondent in the year preceding the survey year.

Figure 6: Wage income, women as share of men, in 1977



Note: This figure shows the state by state ratio of womens' average wage income to mens' average wage income in 1977. Wage income is respondent's total pre-tax wage and salary income in the calendar year preceding the survey.

Figure 7: Wage income, women as share of men, in 1994



Note: This figure shows the state by state ratio of womens' average wage income to mens' average wage income in 1994. Wage income is respondent's total pre-tax wage and salary income in the calendar year preceding the survey.

Table I: Deregulation years by state

States that deregulated by 1972	
Alaska	
Arizona	
California	
Delaware	
District of Columbia	
Idaho	
Maryland	
Nevada	
North Carolina	
Rhode Island	
South Carolina	
South Dakota	
Vermont	
States deregulated after 1972	Year of deregulation
Alabama	1981
Arkansas	1994
Colorado	1991
Connecticut	1980
Florida	1988
Georgia	1983
Hawaii	1986
Illinois	1988
Indiana	1989
Iowa	1994
Kansas	1987
Kentucky	1990
Louisiana	1988
Maine	1975
Massachusetts	1984
Michigan	1987
Minnesota	1994
Mississippi	1986
Missouri	1990
Montana	1990
Nebraska	1985
New Hampshire	1987
New Jersey	1977
New Mexico	1991
New York	1976
North Dakota	1987
Ohio	1979
Oklahoma	1988
Oregon	1985
Pennsylvania	1982
Tennessee	1985
Texas	1988
Utah	1981
Virginia	1978
Washington	1985
West Virginia	1987
Wisconsin	1990
Wyoming	1988

Table II: Summary statistics

	Observations	Mean	Median	St. dev.	Min	Max
Weeks worked last year	1,614,187	35.76	52.00	21.71	0	52
Weekly wage income	1,172,870	367.33	288.46	346.03	0	54,000
Self employed	1,614,187	0.08	0.00	0.27	0	1
Employed (private sector)	1,614,187	0.50	1.00	0.50	0	1
Employed (public sector)	1,614,187	0.13	0.00	0.33	0	1
Unemployed	1,614,187	0.05	0.00	0.21	0	1
Not in the labor force	1,614,187	0.24	0.00	0.43	0	1
High-school or less	1,614,187	0.60	1.00	0.49	0	1
College drop-out	1,614,187	0.30	0.00	0.46	0	1
College or more	1,614,187	0.10	0.00	0.30	0	1
Female	1,614,187	0.52	1.00	0.50	0	1
Age	1,614,187	39.87	38.00	12.65	21	65
White	1,614,187	0.87	1.00	0.33	0	1
Black	1,614,187	0.09	0.00	0.29	0	1
Other race	1,614,187	0.04	0.00	0.18	0	1
Single	1,614,187	0.18	0.00	0.38	0	1
Married	1,614,187	0.68	1.00	0.47	0	1
Divorced or widowed	1,614,187	0.14	0.00	0.35	0	1
Male job (1977)	1,198,463	0.63	1.00	0.48	0	1
Well-paid job (1977)	1,198,463	0.46	0.00	0.50	0	1
Well-paid male job (1977)	1,198,463	0.37	0.00	0.48	0	1
Social norms	1,614,187	0.08	0.07	0.07	-0.05	0.25
Share of working women	1,614,187	0.39	0.39	0.04	0.24	0.50
Share of educated women	1,614,187	0.24	0.25	0.05	0.11	0.39

Note: This table presents summary statistics for the main variables used in the empirical tests. 'Weeks worked last year' is the total number of weeks worked by the respondent in the year preceding the survey year. 'Weekly wage income' is the respondent's total pre-tax wage and salary income in the preceding calendar year divided by 'weeks worked last year'. Only respondents with strictly positive wage income are considered. The employment variables 'Self employed', 'Employed (private sector)', 'Employed (public sector)', 'Unemployed' and 'Not in the labor force' classify the respondents according to their employment status and, if they are in the labor force, the occupation in which they worked the most hours. 'Self employed' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent is self-employed. 'Employed (private sector)' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent is an employee in private industry. 'Employed (public sector)' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent is an employee in public sector. 'Unemployed' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent declared himself as 'unemployed'. 'Not in the labor force' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent is not in the labor force (e.g doing housework, or being unable to work, or going to school, etc.). The education categories reveal the respondent's highest grade of school or year of college completed. 'High-school or less' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent has between 0 and 12 years of school and obtained at most a high-school diploma. 'College drop-out' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent has between 1 and 4 years of college but no degree. 'College or more' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent has at least a Bachelor's degree. 'Female' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent is a female. 'White', 'Black', and 'Other race' are dummies equal to 1 if the respondent is white, black, or other race, respectively. 'Single' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent is single. 'Married' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent is married. 'Divorced or widowed' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent is divorced or widowed. 'Male job (1977)' is a dummy equal to 1 if a particular occupation falls in the top half of occupations in terms of share of males employed. 'Well-paid job (1977)' is a dummy equal to 1 if a particular occupation falls in the top half of occupations in terms of average wage income. 'Well-paid male job (1977)' is a dummy equal to 1 if a particular occupation falls in the top half of occupations both in terms of share of males employed and in terms of average wage income. 'Male job (1977)', 'Well-paid job (1977)', and 'Well-paid male job (1977)' are based on job classifications from 1977. 'Social norms' is constructed as described in Model (3). 'Share of working women' is the share of women who are in the labor force (i.e. self-employed, employed in the private sector, or employed by the government). 'Share of educated women' is the share of working-age women who have some college education (i.e. at least one year of college). Both shares of working and educated women are calculated from averages at the state level for 4 periods (1977-1981, 1982-1985, 1986-1990, 1991-1994). We use yearly individual-level data from IPUMS-CPS for the period 1977-1994.

Table III: MSA pairs

Treatment MSA	Treatment state	Control MSA	Control state	Deregulation year of control state
Boston	Massachusetts	Manchester	New Hampshire	1987
Boston	Massachusetts	Portsmouth-Dover-Rochester	New Hampshire	1987
Cincinnati-Hamilton	Ohio	Cincinnati-Hamilton	Kentucky	1990
Davenport-Rock Island-Moline	Illinois	Davenport-Rock Island-Moline	Iowa	1994
Kansas City	Kansas	St. Louis	Missouri	1990
Kansas City	Kansas	Kansas City	Missouri	1990
Lima	Ohio	Fort Wayne	Indiana	1989
Mobile	Alabama	Pensacola	Florida	1988
Mobile	Alabama	Biloxi-Gulfport	Mississippi	1986
Nashville	Tennessee	Cincinnati-Hamilton	Kentucky	1990
Philadelphia	New Jersey	Philadelphia	Pennsylvania	1982
Pittsburg	Pennsylvania	Wheeling	West Virginia	1987
Portland	Maine	Portsmouth-Dover-Rochester	New Hampshire	1987
Toledo	Ohio	Detroit	Michigan	1987
Toledo	Ohio	Ann Arbor	Michigan	1987

Note: The control MSAs St. Louis (Missouri), Biloxi-Gulfport (Mississippi), Cincinnati-Hamilton (Kentucky), Detroit (Michigan), and Ann Arbor (Michigan) are not direct neighbors of their treatment MSA, but directly adjacent to the MSA contiguous to the treated MSA (they correspond to the "hinterland counties" in Huang (2008)).

Table IV: The effect of intra-state banking deregulation on weeks worked

	Weeks worked last year			
	1	2	3	4
Deregulation \times female	2.6193*** (0.2522)	0.6267*** (0.0937)	0.6205*** (0.0938)	0.6228*** (0.0939)
Deregulation	-0.1933 (0.1500)	-0.0212 (0.0927)	-0.3640*** (0.0806)	
Female	-13.1687*** (0.2010)	-2.9745*** (0.0780)	-2.9961*** (0.0783)	-2.9996*** (0.0784)
Age		0.5049*** (0.0103)	0.4948*** (0.0099)	0.4955*** (0.0099)
Age squared		-0.0056*** (0.0001)	-0.0055*** (0.0001)	-0.0055*** (0.0001)
Married		0.1778*** (0.0376)	0.1653*** (0.0379)	0.1652*** (0.0379)
Single		-0.2749*** (0.0560)	-0.3497*** (0.0543)	-0.3521*** (0.0544)
Black		-1.3033*** (0.0592)	-1.3368*** (0.0577)	-1.3400*** (0.0579)
High-school or less		-1.4930*** (0.0315)	-1.4931*** (0.0327)	-1.4899*** (0.0328)
College or more		0.6913*** (0.0508)	0.6330*** (0.0478)	0.6392*** (0.0478)
Self employed		38.8246*** (0.0809)	38.7053*** (0.0817)	38.6974*** (0.0819)
Employed (private sector)		39.9962*** (0.0643)	39.9109*** (0.0659)	39.9022*** (0.0660)
Employed (public sector)		38.6762*** (0.1331)	38.6318*** (0.1323)	38.6290*** (0.1324)
Unemployed		19.5864*** (0.1482)	19.5745*** (0.1460)	19.5917*** (0.1457)
State FE	No	No	Yes	Yes
Year FE	No	No	Yes	Yes
State \times year FE	No	No	No	Yes
N	1,554,571	1,554,571	1,554,571	1,554,571
Adj. R^2	0.071	0.661	0.662	0.662

The dependent variable is the total number of weeks worked by the respondent in the year preceding the survey year. 'Deregulation' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent is located in a state where within-state bank branching restrictions have been lifted. 'Female' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent is a female. 'Married' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent is married. 'Single' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent is single. The omitted category in marital status is 'Divorced or widowed'. 'Black' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent is black. 'High-school or less' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent has between 0 and 12 years of school and obtained at most a high-school diploma. 'College or more' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent has at least a Bachelor's degree. The omitted category in education is 'College drop-out'. The variables 'Self employed', 'Employed (private sector)', 'Employed (public sector)', and 'Unemployed' classify the respondents according to their occupational status and, if they are in the labor force, the occupation in which they worked the most hours. 'Self employed' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent is self-employed. 'Employed (private sector)' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent is an employee in private industry. 'Employed (public sector)' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent is an employee in public sector. 'Unemployed' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent declared himself as 'unemployed'. The omitted variable in occupational status is 'Not in the labor force'. We use yearly household data from IPUMS-CPS for the period 1977-1994. Banking deregulation dates follow Amel (1993). The year in which each state deregulated is dropped. All estimates are weighted by sampling weights provided by the Current Population Survey. Standard errors clustered by state-year are reported in parentheses, where *** indicates significance at the 1% level, ** at the 5% level, and * at the 10% level.

Table V: The effect of intra-state banking deregulation on log weekly wage income

	Log weekly wage income			
	1	2	3	4
Deregulation × female	0.1368*** (0.0094)	0.1068*** (0.0081)	0.1112*** (0.0083)	0.1096*** (0.0083)
Deregulation	0.2814*** (0.0198)	0.2487*** (0.0186)	-0.0775*** (0.0071)	
Female	-0.6684*** (0.0069)	-0.6137*** (0.0062)	-0.6282*** (0.0062)	-0.6271*** (0.0062)
Age		0.0732*** (0.0010)	0.0641*** (0.0008)	0.0643*** (0.0008)
Age squared		-0.0008*** (0.0000)	-0.0007*** (0.0000)	-0.0007*** (0.0000)
Married		0.0127*** (0.0031)	0.0269*** (0.0026)	0.0268*** (0.0026)
Single		-0.1345*** (0.0048)	-0.1620*** (0.0037)	-0.1619*** (0.0037)
Black		-0.1302*** (0.0079)	-0.1256*** (0.0054)	-0.1262*** (0.0054)
High-school or less		-0.2773*** (0.0048)	-0.2576*** (0.0039)	-0.2575*** (0.0039)
College or more		0.3513*** (0.0074)	0.3025*** (0.0045)	0.3014*** (0.0045)
Self employed		-0.0964*** (0.0291)	-0.1607*** (0.0300)	-0.1623*** (0.0300)
Employed (private sector)		0.5051*** (0.0059)	0.4908*** (0.0057)	0.4909*** (0.0057)
Employed (public sector)		0.4865*** (0.0063)	0.4948*** (0.0059)	0.4953*** (0.0059)
Unemployed		0.2867*** (0.0078)	0.2646*** (0.0071)	0.2644*** (0.0071)
State FE	No	No	Yes	Yes
Year FE	No	No	Yes	Yes
State × year FE	No	No	No	Yes
<i>N</i>	1,129,348	1,129,348	1,129,348	1,129,348
Adj. <i>R</i> ²	0.128	0.261	0.314	0.315

The dependent variable is the natural logarithm of the weekly wage income of the respondent. The regression sample includes only respondents with non-zero wage income and non-zero weeks worked. 'Deregulation' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent is located in a state where within-state bank branching restrictions have been lifted. 'Female' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent is a female. 'Married' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent is married. 'Single' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent is single. The omitted category in marital status is 'Divorced or widowed'. 'Black' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent is black. 'High-school or less' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent has between 0 and 12 years of school and obtained at most a high-school diploma. 'College or more' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent has at least a Bachelor's degree. The omitted category in education is 'College drop-out'. The variables 'Self employed', 'Employed (private sector)', 'Employed (public sector)', and 'Unemployed' classify the respondents according to their occupational status and, if they are in the labor force, the occupation in which they worked the most hours. 'Self employed' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent is self-employed. 'Employed (private sector)' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent is an employee in private industry. 'Employed (public sector)' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent is an employee in public sector. 'Unemployed' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent declared himself as 'unemployed'. The omitted variable in occupational status is 'Not in the labor force'. We use yearly household data from IPUMS-CPS for the period 1977-1994. Banking deregulation dates follow Amel (1993). The year in which each state deregulated is dropped. All estimates are weighted by sampling weights provided by the Current Population Survey. Standard errors clustered by state-year are reported in parentheses, where *** indicates significance at the 1% level, ** at the 5% level, and * at the 10% level.

Table VI: Alternative measures of financial deregulation

	Weeks worked last year			Log weekly wage income		
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Years since deregulation \times female	0.0418*** (0.0056)			0.0072*** (0.0005)		
Inter-state deregulation \times female		0.4518*** (0.0901)			0.1033*** (0.0086)	
Other state asset ratio \times female			0.0576*** (0.0102)			0.0048*** (0.0010)
Female	-2.7712*** (0.0494)	-2.8043*** (0.0750)	-2.6912*** (0.0573)	-0.5831*** (0.0045)	-0.6046*** (0.0057)	-0.5622*** (0.0059)
Age	0.4683*** (0.0109)	0.4956*** (0.0099)	0.4946*** (0.0099)	0.0636*** (0.0009)	0.0642*** (0.0008)	0.0643*** (0.0008)
Age squared	-0.0052*** (0.0001)	-0.0055*** (0.0001)	-0.0055*** (0.0001)	-0.0007*** (0.0000)	-0.0007*** (0.0000)	-0.0007*** (0.0000)
Married	0.2002*** (0.0397)	0.1639*** (0.0379)	0.1646*** (0.0381)	0.0268*** (0.0030)	0.0264*** (0.0026)	0.0272*** (0.0026)
Single	-0.4399*** (0.0605)	-0.3532*** (0.0543)	-0.3588*** (0.0546)	-0.1636*** (0.0045)	-0.1620*** (0.0037)	-0.1616*** (0.0038)
Black	-1.4518*** (0.0647)	-1.3394*** (0.0579)	-1.3374*** (0.0581)	-0.1269*** (0.0059)	-0.1261*** (0.0054)	-0.1258*** (0.0054)
High-school or less	-1.4626*** (0.0366)	-1.4887*** (0.0330)	-1.4936*** (0.0329)	-0.2532*** (0.0041)	-0.2570*** (0.0039)	-0.2583*** (0.0039)
College or more	0.5958*** (0.0510)	0.6392*** (0.0477)	0.6366*** (0.0480)	0.3042*** (0.0048)	0.3014*** (0.0045)	0.3014*** (0.0045)
Self employed	38.7769*** (0.0904)	38.6986*** (0.0817)	38.7002*** (0.0823)	-0.1751*** (0.0334)	-0.1605*** (0.0300)	-0.1604*** (0.0301)
Employed (private sector)	40.0070*** (0.0717)	39.8997*** (0.0658)	39.9158*** (0.0660)	0.5003*** (0.0063)	0.4903*** (0.0057)	0.4928*** (0.0057)
Employed (public sector)	38.9700*** (0.1284)	38.6238*** (0.1318)	38.6535*** (0.1329)	0.4976*** (0.0065)	0.4948*** (0.0059)	0.4962*** (0.0059)
Unemployed	19.5346*** (0.1612)	19.5894*** (0.1456)	19.5947*** (0.1462)	0.2772*** (0.0077)	0.2642*** (0.0070)	0.2665*** (0.0071)
State \times year FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
N	1,156,517	1,554,571	1,518,233	837,542	1,129,348	1,103,077
Adj. R^2	0.669	0.662	0.662	0.316	0.315	0.314

The dependent variables 'Weeks worked last year' and 'Log weekly wage income' are the total number of weeks worked by the respondent in the year preceding the survey year, and the natural logarithm of weekly wage income of the respondent, respectively. The 'Log weekly wage income' regression samples include only respondents with non-zero wage income and non-zero weeks worked. 'Years since deregulation' equals the number of years since intra-state bank branching restrictions have been lifted. The regressions using 'Years since deregulation' only include the sample of respondents from states that deregulated in or after 1977 since the dates of deregulations that took place before 1977 are not available. 'Inter-state deregulation' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent is located in a state where bank branching restrictions between states have been lifted. 'Other state asset ratio' equals total out-of-state assets held by holding companies operating in each state in each year, divided by total banking sector assets in each state-year. 'Female' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent is a female. 'Married' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent is married. 'Single' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent is single. The omitted category in marital status is 'Divorced or widowed'. 'Black' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent is black. 'High-school or less' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent has between 0 and 12 years of school and obtained at most a high-school diploma. 'College or more' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent has at least a Bachelor's degree. The omitted category in education is 'College drop-out'. The variables 'Self employed', 'Employed (private sector)', 'Employed (public sector)', and 'Unemployed' classify the respondents according to their occupational status and, if they are in the labor force, the occupation in which they worked the most hours. 'Self employed' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent is self-employed. 'Employed (private sector)' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent is an employee in private industry. 'Employed (public sector)' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent is an employee in public sector. 'Unemployed' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent declared himself as 'unemployed'. The omitted variable in occupational status is 'Not in the labor force'. We use yearly household data from IPUMS-CPS for the period 1977-1994. Banking deregulation dates follow Amel (1993) and the 'Other state asset ratio' has been provided to us by Philip Strahan. The year in which each state deregulated is dropped. All estimates are weighted by sampling weights provided by the Current Population Survey. Standard errors clustered by state-year are reported in parentheses, where *** indicates significance at the 1% level, ** at the 5% level, and * at the 10% level.

Table VII: The effect of financial deregulation on weeks worked and weekly wage income using contiguous MSAs

	Weeks worked last year 1	Log weekly wage income 2
Deregulation \times female	1.0880*** (0.2767)	0.0482** (0.0231)
Female	-3.6839*** (0.2310)	-0.6044*** (0.0136)
Age	0.4215*** (0.0517)	0.0639*** (0.0039)
Age squared	-0.0046*** (0.0006)	-0.0007*** (0.0000)
Married	0.0524 (0.2098)	0.0579*** (0.0160)
Single	-0.3710 (0.2670)	-0.1552*** (0.0228)
Black	-2.3058*** (0.3047)	-0.1143*** (0.0188)
High-school or less	-1.6744*** (0.1871)	-0.2497*** (0.0133)
College or more	0.4547* (0.2686)	0.2676*** (0.0140)
Self employed	37.1018*** (0.3414)	-0.4523*** (0.1234)
Employed (private sector)	39.7609*** (0.2059)	0.4657*** (0.0331)
Employed (public sector)	39.2728*** (0.3281)	0.4502*** (0.0366)
Unemployed	18.9573*** (0.8599)	0.2267*** (0.0436)
MSA \times year FE	Yes	Yes
Pair FE	Yes	Yes
<i>N</i>	35,749	26,493
Adj. <i>R</i> ²	0.670	0.306

The table reports the results from OLS regressions using a selected sample of 15 pairs of contiguous MSAs derived from data offered by Huang (2008). The dependent variables 'Weeks worked last year' and 'Log weekly wage income' are the total number of weeks worked by the respondent in the year preceding the survey year, and the natural logarithm of weekly wage income of the respondent, respectively. The 'Log weekly wage income' regression samples include only respondents with non-zero wage income and non-zero weeks worked. 'Deregulation' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent is located in a state where within-state bank branching restrictions have been lifted. 'Female' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent is a female. 'Married' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent is married. 'Single' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent is single. The omitted category in marital status is 'Divorced or widowed'. 'Black' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent is black. 'High-school or less' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent has between 0 and 12 years of school and obtained at most a high-school diploma. 'College or more' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent has at least a Bachelor's degree. The omitted category in education is 'College drop-out'. The variables 'Self employed', 'Employed (private sector)', 'Employed (public sector)', and 'Unemployed' classify the respondents according to their occupational status and, if they are in the labor force, the occupation in which they worked the most hours. 'Self employed' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent is self-employed. 'Employed (private sector)' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent is an employee in private industry. 'Employed (public sector)' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent is an employee in public sector. 'Unemployed' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent declared himself as 'unemployed'. The omitted variable in occupational status is 'Not in the labor force'. We use yearly household data from IPUMS-CPS for the period 1977-1994. Banking deregulation dates follow Amel (1993). The year in which each state deregulated is dropped. All estimates are weighted by sampling weights provided by the Current Population Survey. Standard errors clustered by state-year are reported in parentheses, where *** indicates significance at the 1% level, ** at the 5% level, and * at the 10% level.

Table VIII: Robustness check: controlling for social norms

	Weeks worked last year			Log weekly wage income		
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Deregulation × female	0.5250*** (0.1035)	0.4609*** (0.0928)	0.2517** (0.0992)	0.1061*** (0.0093)	0.1007*** (0.0090)	0.0705*** (0.0083)
Social norms × female	-1.4805** (0.6712)			-0.0532 (0.0592)		
Share of working women × female		6.8878*** (0.9755)			0.3855*** (0.0903)	
Share of educated women × female			6.6195*** (0.8183)			0.7016*** (0.0772)
Female	-2.8130*** (0.1102)	-5.5537*** (0.3761)	-4.3670*** (0.1872)	-0.6204*** (0.0100)	-0.7705*** (0.0337)	-0.7728*** (0.0166)
Age	0.4957*** (0.0099)	0.4964*** (0.0099)	0.4964*** (0.0099)	0.0643*** (0.0008)	0.0643*** (0.0008)	0.0643*** (0.0008)
Age squared	-0.0055*** (0.0001)	-0.0055*** (0.0001)	-0.0055*** (0.0001)	-0.0007*** (0.0000)	-0.0007*** (0.0000)	-0.0007*** (0.0000)
Married	0.1647*** (0.0379)	0.1602*** (0.0379)	0.1596*** (0.0379)	0.0268*** (0.0026)	0.0264*** (0.0026)	0.0260*** (0.0026)
Single	-0.3519*** (0.0544)	-0.3539*** (0.0544)	-0.3524*** (0.0544)	-0.1620*** (0.0037)	-0.1620*** (0.0037)	-0.1620*** (0.0037)
Black	-1.3400*** (0.0579)	-1.3395*** (0.0579)	-1.3386*** (0.0579)	-0.1262*** (0.0054)	-0.1261*** (0.0054)	-0.1259*** (0.0054)
High-school or less	-1.4893*** (0.0328)	-1.4861*** (0.0329)	-1.4851*** (0.0330)	-0.2575*** (0.0039)	-0.2573*** (0.0039)	-0.2569*** (0.0039)
College or more	0.6400*** (0.0478)	0.6442*** (0.0477)	0.6456*** (0.0478)	0.3015*** (0.0045)	0.3017*** (0.0045)	0.3019*** (0.0045)
Self employed	38.6946*** (0.0819)	38.6874*** (0.0818)	38.6888*** (0.0820)	-0.1624*** (0.0300)	-0.1622*** (0.0300)	-0.1614*** (0.0300)
Employed (private sector)	39.8987*** (0.0662)	39.8844*** (0.0657)	39.8831*** (0.0658)	0.4907*** (0.0057)	0.4902*** (0.0056)	0.4895*** (0.0057)
Employed (public sector)	38.6257*** (0.1324)	38.6135*** (0.1321)	38.6126*** (0.1322)	0.4952*** (0.0059)	0.4948*** (0.0059)	0.4943*** (0.0059)
Unemployed	19.5912*** (0.1456)	19.5753*** (0.1455)	19.5783*** (0.1457)	0.2644*** (0.0071)	0.2638*** (0.0070)	0.2635*** (0.0070)
State × year FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
<i>N</i>	1,554,571	1,554,571	1,554,571	1,129,348	1,129,348	1,129,348
Adj. <i>R</i> ²	0.662	0.662	0.662	0.315	0.315	0.315

The dependent variables 'Weeks worked last year' and 'Log weekly wage income' are the total number of weeks worked by the respondent in the year preceding the survey year, and the natural logarithm of the weekly wage income of the respondent, respectively. The 'Log weekly wage income' regression samples include only respondents with non-zero wage income and non-zero weeks worked. 'Deregulation' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent is located in a state where within-state bank branching restrictions have been lifted. 'Female' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent is a female. 'Social norms' is constructed as described in Model (3). 'Share of working women' is the share of women who are in the labor force (i.e. self-employed, employed in the private sector, or employed by the government). 'Share of educated women' is the share of working-age women who have some college education (i.e. at least one year of college). Both shares of working and educated women are calculated from averages at the state level for 4 periods (1977-1981, 1982-1985, 1986-1990, 1991-1994). 'Married' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent is married. 'Single' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent is single. The omitted category in marital status is 'Divorced or widowed'. 'Black' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent is black. 'High-school or less' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent has between 0 and 12 years of school and obtained at most a high-school diploma. 'College or more' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent has at least a Bachelor's degree. The omitted category in education is 'College drop-out'. The variables 'Self employed', 'Employed (private sector)', 'Employed (public sector)', and 'Unemployed' classify the respondents according to their occupational status and, if they are in the labor force, the occupation in which they worked the most hours. 'Self employed' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent is self-employed. 'Employed (private sector)' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent is an employee in private industry. 'Employed (public sector)' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent is an employee in public sector. 'Unemployed' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent declared himself as 'unemployed'. The omitted variable in occupational status is 'Not in the labor force'. We use yearly household data from IPUMS-CPS for the period 1977-1994. Banking deregulation dates follow Amel (1993). The year in which each state deregulated is dropped. All estimates are weighted by sampling weights provided by the Current Population Survey. Standard errors clustered by state-year are reported in parentheses, where *** indicates significance at the 1% level, ** at the 5% level, and * at the 10% level.

Table IX: The effect of intra-state banking deregulation on employment

	Not in the labor force		Employed (private sector)		Employed (public sector)		Self-employed	
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Deregulation \times female	-0.0453*** (0.0151)	0.0528*** (0.0129)	-0.0019 (0.0092)	-0.0007 (0.0091)				
Female	0.2666*** (0.0111)	-0.1908*** (0.0105)	0.0026** (0.0070)	-0.0487*** (0.0071)				
Age	-0.0359*** (0.0011)	0.0186*** (0.0008)	0.0140*** (0.0013)	0.0107*** (0.0015)				
Age squared	0.0005*** (0.0000)	-0.0003*** (0.0000)	-0.0002*** (0.0000)	-0.0001*** (0.0000)				
Married	0.0489*** (0.0066)	-0.0492*** (0.0048)	0.0051*** (0.0053)	0.0178*** (0.0067)				
Single	0.0574*** (0.0077)	-0.0310*** (0.0065)	-0.0056*** (0.0075)	-0.0040*** (0.0083)				
Black	0.0358*** (0.0081)	-0.0928*** (0.0069)	0.0647*** (0.0070)	-0.0422*** (0.0105)				
High-school or less	0.0692*** (0.0053)	-0.0154*** (0.0044)	-0.0744*** (0.0049)	-0.0086*** (0.0066)				
College or more	-0.0684*** (0.0065)	-0.1088*** (0.0104)	0.1195*** (0.0104)	0.0132*** (0.0072)				
State \times year FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes				
N	1,554,571	1,554,571	1,554,571	1,554,571				
Pseudo R ²	0.155	0.053	0.066	0.070				

The table reports estimation results of marginal effects from probit regressions. The dependent variables 'Not in the labor force', 'Employed (private sector)', 'Employed (public sector)', and 'Self employed' classify the respondents according to their employment status and, if they are in the labor force, the occupation in which they worked the most hours. 'Deregulation' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent is located in a state where within-state bank branching restrictions have been lifted. 'Female' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent is a female. 'Married' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent is married. 'Single' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent is single. The omitted category in marital status is 'Divorced or widowed'. 'Black' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent is black. 'High-school or less' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent has between 0 and 12 years of school and obtained at most a high-school diploma. 'College or more' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent has at least a Bachelor's degree. The omitted category in education is 'College drop-out'. We use yearly household data from IPUMS-CPS for the period 1977-1994. Banking deregulation dates follow Amel (1993). The year in which each state deregulated is dropped. All estimates are weighted by sampling weights provided by the Current Population Survey. Standard errors clustered by state-year are reported in parentheses, where *** indicates significance at the 1% level, ** at the 5% level, and * at the 10% level.

Table X: The effect of intra-state banking deregulation on women's participation in male dominated jobs

	Male job	Well-paid job	Well-paid male job
	1	2	3
Deregulation \times female	0.0706*** (0.0130)	0.0475*** (0.0112)	0.0679*** (0.0146)
Female	-0.5504*** (0.0094)	-0.3200*** (0.0075)	-0.4120*** (0.0105)
Age	0.0078*** (0.0011)	0.0289*** (0.0010)	0.0206*** (0.0011)
Age squared	-0.0001*** (0.0000)	-0.0003*** (0.0000)	-0.0002*** (0.0000)
Married	-0.0004 (0.0049)	0.0591*** (0.0051)	0.0319*** (0.0050)
Single	-0.0378*** (0.0067)	-0.0320*** (0.0062)	-0.0443*** (0.0064)
Black	-0.0819*** (0.0071)	-0.1344*** (0.0073)	-0.1407*** (0.0082)
High-school or less	0.0954*** (0.0068)	-0.2362*** (0.0056)	-0.1086*** (0.0054)
College or more	-0.0582*** (0.0109)	0.2711*** (0.0078)	0.0478*** (0.0083)
State \times year FE	Yes	Yes	Yes
N	1,017,235	1,017,235	1,017,235
Pseudo R^2	0.225	0.155	0.145

The table reports estimation results of marginal effects from probit regressions. The dependent variables 'Male job', 'Well-paid job', and 'Well-paid male job' are based on job classifications from 1977. 'Male job' is a dummy equal to 1 if a particular occupation falls in the top half of occupations in terms of share of males employed. 'Well-paid job' is a dummy equal to 1 if a particular occupation falls in the top half of occupations in terms of average wage income. 'Well-paid male job' is a dummy equal to 1 if a particular occupation falls in the top half of occupations both in terms of share of males employed and in terms of average wage income. 'Deregulation' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent is located in a state where within-state bank branching restrictions have been lifted. 'Female' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent is a female. 'Married' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent is married. 'Single' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent is single. The omitted category in marital status is 'Divorced or widowed'. 'Black' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent is black. 'High-school or less' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent has between 0 and 12 years of school and obtained at most a high-school diploma. 'College or more' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent has at least a Bachelor's degree. The omitted category in education is 'College drop-out'. We use yearly household data from IPUMS-CPS for the period 1977-1994. Banking deregulation dates follow Amel (1993). The year in which each state deregulated is dropped. All estimates are weighted by sampling weights provided by the Current Population Survey. Standard errors clustered by state-year are reported in parentheses, where *** indicates significance at the 1% level, ** at the 5% level, and * at the 10% level.

Table XI: The effect of intra-state banking deregulation on education

	High-school or less 1	College drop-out 2	College or more 3
Deregulation × female	-0.0262*** (0.0104)	0.0196*** (0.0098)	0.0188*** (0.0110)
Female	0.0415*** (0.0074)	-0.0080*** (0.0069)	-0.0404*** (0.0084)
Age	-0.0117*** (0.0016)	-0.0039*** (0.0014)	0.0157*** (0.0018)
Age squared	0.0002*** (0.0000)	-0.0000* (0.0000)	-0.0002*** (0.0000)
Married	-0.0494*** (0.0052)	0.0209*** (0.0056)	0.0252*** (0.0075)
Single	-0.1431*** (0.0064)	0.0779*** (0.0088)	0.0639*** (0.0082)
Black	0.1338*** (0.0102)	-0.0643*** (0.0108)	-0.0545*** (0.0107)
Self employed	-0.1558*** (0.0119)	0.0746*** (0.0091)	0.0899*** (0.0105)
Employed (private sector)	-0.0934*** (0.0062)	0.0653*** (0.0051)	0.0309*** (0.0080)
Employed (public sector)	-0.3048*** (0.0062)	0.1185*** (0.0066)	0.2065*** (0.0071)
Unemployed	0.0657*** (0.0088)	-0.0440*** (0.0087)	-0.0208*** (0.0123)
State × year FE	Yes	Yes	Yes
<i>N</i>	1,554,571	1,554,571	1,554,571
Pseudo <i>R</i> ²	0.071	0.039	0.130

The table reports estimation results of marginal effects from probit regressions. The dependent variables are education categories that reveal the respondent's highest grade of school or year of college completed. 'High-school or less' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent has between 0 and 12 years of school and obtained at most a high-school diploma. 'College drop-out' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent has between 1 and 4 years of college but no degree. 'College or more' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent has at least a Bachelor's degree. 'Deregulation' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent is located in a state where within-state bank branching restrictions have been lifted. 'Female' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent is a female. 'Married' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent is married. 'Single' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent is single. The omitted category in marital status is 'Divorced or widowed'. 'Black' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent is black. The variables 'Self employed', 'Employed (private sector)', 'Employed (public sector)', and 'Unemployed' classify the respondents according to their occupational status and, if they are in the labor force, the occupation in which they worked the most hours. 'Self employed' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent is self-employed. 'Employed (private sector)' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent is an employee in private industry. 'Employed (public sector)' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent is an employee in public sector. 'Unemployed' is a dummy equal to 1 if the respondent declared himself as 'unemployed'. The omitted variable in occupational status is 'Not in the labor force'. We use yearly household data from IPUMS-CPS for the period 1977-1994. Banking deregulation dates follow Amel (1993). The year in which each state deregulated is dropped. All estimates are weighted by sampling weights provided by the Current Population Survey. Standard errors clustered by state-year are reported in parentheses, where *** indicates significance at the 1% level, ** at the 5% level, and * at the 10% level.

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