

Climate Change and Labor Market Dropouts: Evidence from the Half Century

Masahiro Yoshida

Empirical Micro Workshop at Kyoto University

July 7, 2023

1 Introduction

2 Theory

3 Data

4 Empirical analysis

5 Mechanism

6 Why Blacks?

7 Summary

Background: Global rise in males' labor market dropouts

Since the late 1960s, **labor market participation rate (LFPR)** of prime-aged men across **almost all rich countries** have started decreasing.

→ It peaked in 1968 at OECD countries. Ths U.S. is a leading alarming case.
(96.5% (1950) → 89.1%(2019))

Figure: LFPR (males aged 25-54; U.S.)

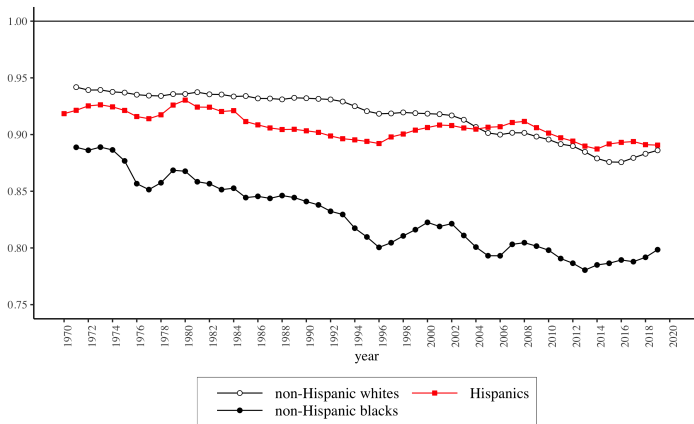


Note: OECD employment database and BLS.

Trend by race and ethnicity (U.S.)

Blacks exhibit a lowest level and experienced **the sharpest drop in LFPR**.
(1970: 88% → 2019: 80%) Attachment of Hispanics is relatively stable.

Figure: LFPRs by race and ethnicity (males aged 25-54; 1970-2019)



Why care for declining males' labor supply?

The impact is massive because prime-aged males have traditionally been main income-earners.

- First-order source of **rising income inequality**
- Dropouts may lead to *lower* **happiness** ([Krueger \[2017\]](#)), even **morbidity and mortality**. ([Sullivan and Von Wachter \[2009\]](#))
- **Higher dependency ratio** threatens the social security system under population aging.
- Fewer working males plausibly lead to *lower* **partnership and fertility rate**. ([Autor et al. \[2019\]](#))
 - ✓ In the U.S., a marriage rate and the fertility rate has been consistently declining after the peak of 1972 and 1957, respectively.

Why is males' labor supply declining?

Unsurprisingly, the literature admits that a single driver cannot explain all.

- **Labor demand drivers:** computerization (1990-); robots (2004-); ([Acemoglu and Restrepo \[2020\]](#)); China shock (2001-) ([Autor et al. \[2014\]](#)) and offshoring (1990-)
- **Labor supply drivers:** disability insurance ([Parsons \[1980\]](#)); health ([Krueger \[2017\]](#)); computer game technology ([Aguilar et al. \[2021\]](#))

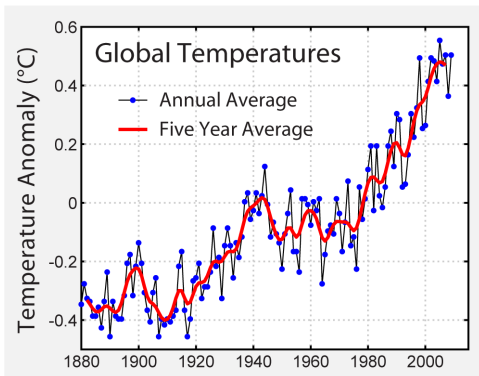
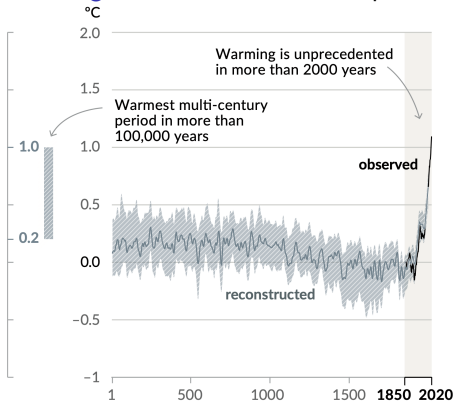
None spans **long enough** to reconcile the half-century worldwide phenomenon.

(→ Another **global** and **secular** trend should be a fundamental culprit.)

Global warming

Since the late 1960s, the world has experienced an unprecedented rise in temperature for the 2 millennia. (preceding the decline of males' LFPR)

Figure: Global trend of temperature (left: 2 millennia; right: 1880-2020)



Source: IPCC, 2021: Summary for Policymakers. In: Climate Change 2021.

Question 1: Does climate change induce dropouts?

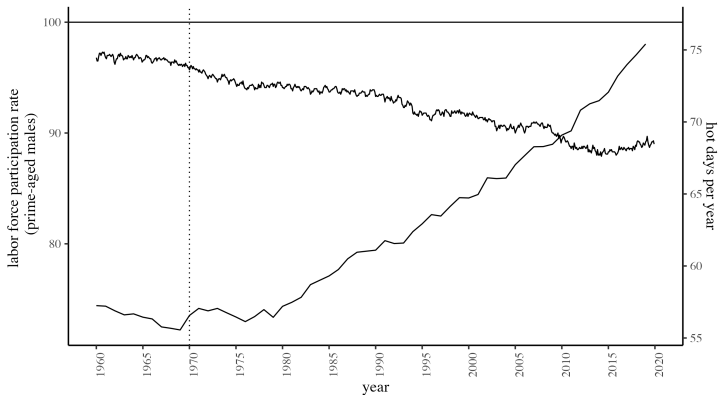
Did climate change induce the labor market dropouts of prime-aged males?

- A far larger proportion of males work *outdoor* than females.
(e.g. agriculture, forestry, construction, mining, Uber Eats driver)
- Outdoor workers have larger exposure to climate change.
(→ cost of work steadily increases)
- Outdoor workers are **essential workers**; measurable outcomes
(e.g. harvesting; lumbering) are monitored and little room for moral hazard once hired.(→ higher incentives to drop out)
- Less educated males have **fewer outside options in indoor jobs**.
Low-skilled indoor jobs are more intensive in ICT and communication.
(e.g. office clerk; call center operator; waiter)

See the USA: Climate change and Male dropouts

The onset of warming and rising male dropouts **roughly coincided** around 1970. Average hot days per year for an average American increased by 25.4 days in 5 decades.

Figure: Hot days (mean >70F) and prime-aged male LFPRs (1960-2019, USA)



Source: LFPR from BLS. The hot days are 20 year moving-average.

Spread of air conditioners

In parallel to global warming, residential air conditioners (AC) rapidly spread since the 1960s. The relative cost of working outside vs. dropouts surged in this period.

- AC cools down the temperature by lowering the humidity.
(→ bring comfortability)
- AC adoption in hot areas is faster than a cold area. ([Biddle \[2008\]](#))
(→ the relative cost expanded even more quickly in hot areas.)
- Intriguingly, initially hot areas (e.g. Southeast, West, Southwest) received the largest effect of climate change. (shown below)

Question 2

How much did climate change explain the racial (and ethnic) gap of male LFPR trend?

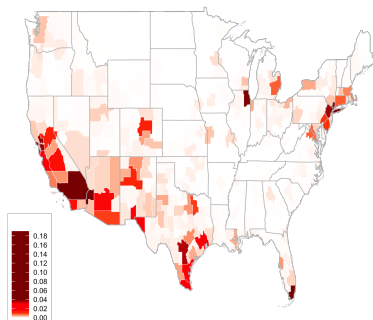
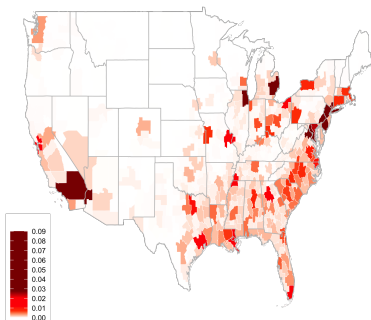
- Blacks agglomerate in the **hottest and most humid** area (South and Southeast; Alabama, Georgia, Mississippi).
- Hispanics agglomerate in the **hottest and least humid** area (West and Southwest; California, Nevada, Arizona).

→ The difference of discomfort, especially in the summer, may account for the racial (and ethnic) gap of LFPR trend relative to whites.

Map: Geographic distribution of minorities

Historically, blacks agglomerate near the Mexican gulf and Atlantic ocean from the Colonial age. Hispanics agglomerate near the Mexican border from immigration since 1970s.

Figure: Minorities share across CZs (prime-aged males, 1970)
Blacks (African Americans) Hispanics



Source: *Population Census, 1970.*

Empirical Strategy

Use a differential change in hot days across regional labor markets as a “**natural**” **experiment**, controlling for humidity.

- From meteorological daily big data, I document a dramatically rich variation of climate change across regions and years; in fact, some regions experienced cooling.
- Long-run variation of climate change is driven by topography, not significantly shaped by regional economic activities.
- At least, an individual chooses labor supply, taking the climate **as given**.
- Compliers of the treatment (i.e.; less-educated) plausibly have less mobility. ([Kennan and Walker \[2011\]](#))

Data

I assemble a panel of climates (long-run trend of daily weathers) and male LFPRs across Commuting Zones (CZs) during the post-war decades in the U.S. mainland.

- **Variation of analysis** 722 CZs \times years (1970, 80, 90, 2000, 2010, 2019)
- **Climate change**
 - ✓ **daily** temperature and precipitation data from 2,000-3,000 stations from GHCN-daily from National Climatic Data Center (NCDC).
 - ✓ compute # of “hot days” under daily mean temperature over 70F (21.1C); “cold days” under 35F (1.7C). Using a decadal average as a climate.
- **LFPR of males** CZ-level: Census (1970-2000, by decades), and ACS (2010-2012, 2017-2019)

Literature

The paper builds on the literature on the impact of extreme weather (or climate change) and the cause of declining male LFPR.

① Weather shocks

- ① **Mortality** [Barreca et al. \[2016\]](#); [Deschenes and Moretti \[2009\]](#)
- ② **Production** [Deschênes and Greenstone \[2007\]](#)(agriculture); [Somanathan et al. \[2021\]](#) (manufacturing); [Dell et al. \[2012\]](#) (GDP)
- ③ **Time allocation** [Graff Zivin and Neidell \[2014\]](#)

② Declining LFPR of males

- ① [Krueger \[2017\]](#) (morbidity); [Autor and Duggan \[2003\]](#); [Parsons \[1980\]](#) (disability); [Aguiar et al. \[2021\]](#) (gaming technology)
- ② [Autor et al. \[2014\]](#) (trade); [Acemoglu and Restrepo \[2020\]](#) (robots); [Autor and Dorn \[2013\]](#) (computerization)

1 Introduction

2 Theory

3 Data

4 Empirical analysis

5 Mechanism

6 Why Blacks?

7 Summary

Model: Working outdoors or Exit

- Consider a basic labor supply model where a market wage ($w(s)$) for skill s and non-labor income NLI is given.
- A person with a skill $s \in [0, 1]$ under hot days hd and cold days cd keeps working outdoors if $U^{work} > U^{drop}$ s.t.

$$U^{work} = w(s) - c(hd, cd) - \underbrace{\epsilon}_{\text{unobservable cost}}; \quad U^{drop} = NLI.$$

- Then, the LFPR is computed by summing up ϵ s.t.

$$LFPR = \int_0^{\Delta} f(\epsilon) d\epsilon$$

- Note that LFPR is strictly increasing in $\Delta \equiv U^{work} - U^{drop}$

Propositions

- Recall the net benefit of working outdoors is

$$\Delta \equiv U^{work} - U^{drop} = w(s) - (NLI + c_{out}(hd, cd) + \epsilon)$$

- A person is more likely to drop out if one of the 3 effects is salient.
 - ✓ **Climate effect:** hd or cd is larger
 - ✓ **Income effect:** NLI is high. (family income or public welfare)
 - ✓ **Substitution effect:** $w'(s)$ is low (adverse labor demand shock)

Why NOT go to indoor jobs?

- Now, add indoor jobs:

$$\begin{cases} U_{in}^{work}(s) = w_{in}(s) - c_{in} - \epsilon & (\text{indoor}) \\ U_{out}^{work}(s) = w_{out}(s) - c_{out}(hd, cd) - \epsilon & (\text{outdoor}) \end{cases}$$

- Assume inside jobs are skill intensive ($w'_{in}(s) > w'_{out}(s)$).
- When $hd \uparrow$, outdoor workers will switch to indoor jobs if

$$w_{in}(s) - w_{out}(s) > c_{out}(hd, cd) - c_{in}$$

holds; ¹ Under some regularity, only skilled workers (large s) switch.

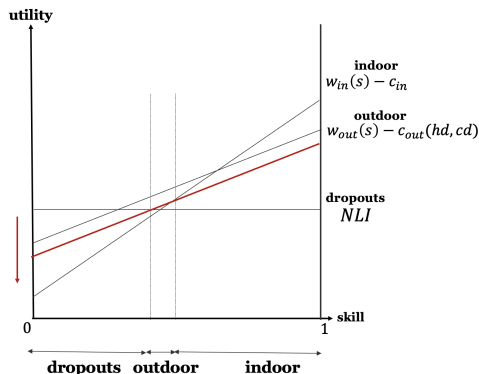
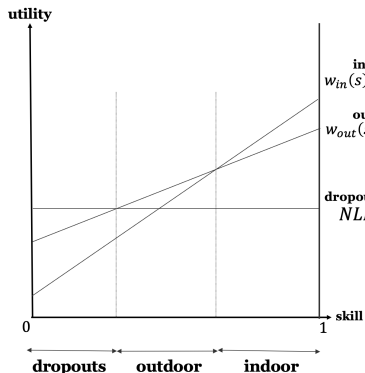
- When $hd \uparrow$, cost-benefit analysis of less-educated men (low s) is:

$$U^{drop} > U_{out}^{work}(s) > U_{in}^{work}(s).$$

Propositions: Occupation sorting

As climate gets severer, a **dropout rate** and a share of working indoors *increases* while a **share of working outdoors** *decreases*.

Figure: Dropout or working indoors ($\epsilon = 0$)



Why is dropping out feasible?

$U^{drop} = NLI$ has to be higher than the subsistence level.

- Intrafamily transfer from parents ([Binder and Bound \[2019\]](#)) or spouses
- Welfare benefit as a “subsidy for dropping out”
 - ✓ Rise of disability insurance benefit ([Parsons \[1980\]](#))
 - ✓ Poverty measures (e.g. social security income; medicaid; food stamp)
- Cohabiting with parents saves housing rent; houses typically has a spare room in the U.S. (e.g. empty kids room)

(→ These fall-back options appear to be only substantial for **developed economies in the post war period.**)

1 Introduction

2 Theory

3 Data

4 Empirical analysis

5 Mechanism

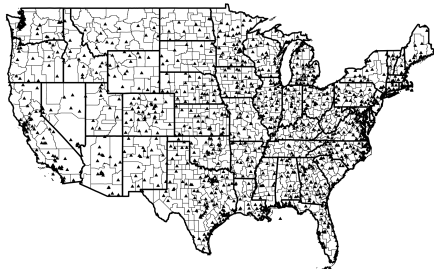
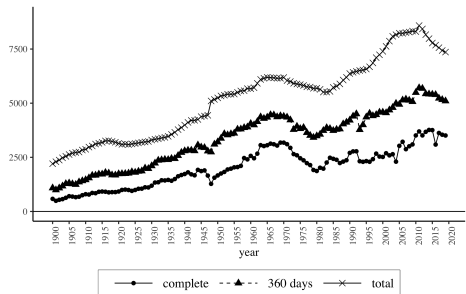
6 Why Blacks?

7 Summary

Daily weather big data

The daily weather (max/min temperature and precipitation) comes from stations, recorded by GHCN-Daily. I take an inverse-distance weighted average of records of **3 closest stations from CZ population centroids**.

Figure: stations recording temperature (1900-2019); distribution (2019)



Source: GHCN-Daily from NOAA (National Oceanic and Atmospheric Administration).

Construct a temperature

I compute a daily temperature T_d as

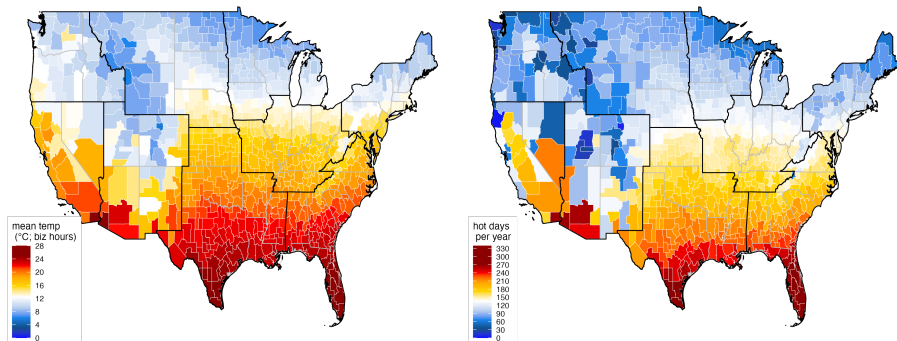
$$T_d = \omega T_{max} + (1 - \omega) T_{min}.$$

- ① Mean temperature: $\omega = 0.5$ (convention of literature)
- ② **Business hour temperature:** $\omega = 0.75$ (business hours (8AM-6PM; including commuting).
 - ✓ Assuming linear temperature cycle between T_{max} and T_{min} .

Annual temperature (level)

Significant heterogeneity of baseline temperature across regional labor markets. **South, Southeast, West area is hotter.**

Figure: Baseline temperature across CZs (2010-19; level (left); hot days (right))



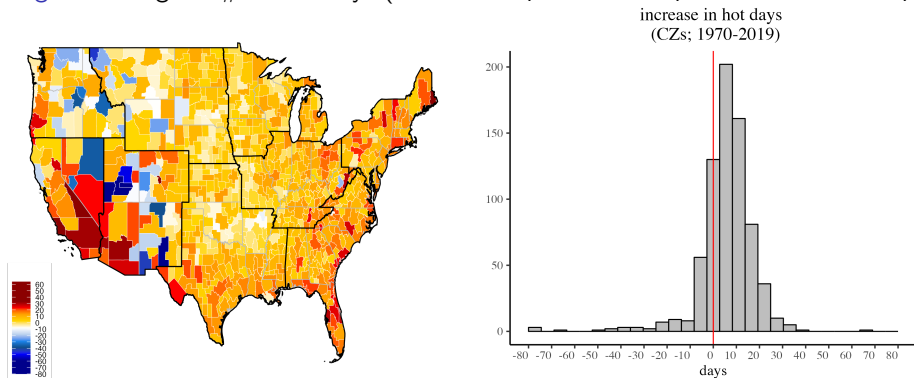
Source: Computed from GHCN-daily.

Annual temperature (change)

Initially hot Southeast, West, Southwest areas have been increasingly getting hotter. Some regions experienced cooling.

(→ Different shocks from automation, ICT or China shocks!)

Figure: Change of # of hot days (mean >70F) across CZs (1960-70 to 2010-19)



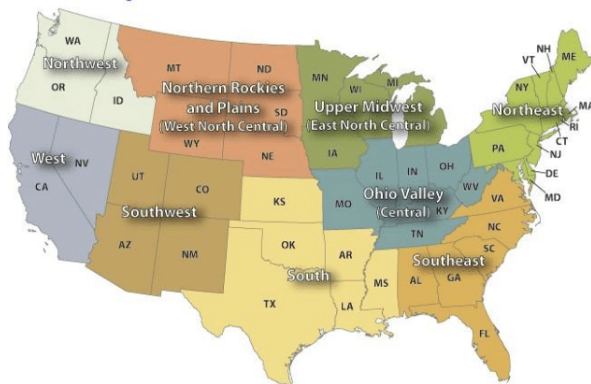
Source: Computed from GHCN-daily.

Definition: Climate region

The U.S. includes 9 climate regions from tropical one to deserts.

Table: Annual hot days by climate regions (1970-2019)

U.S. Climate Regions

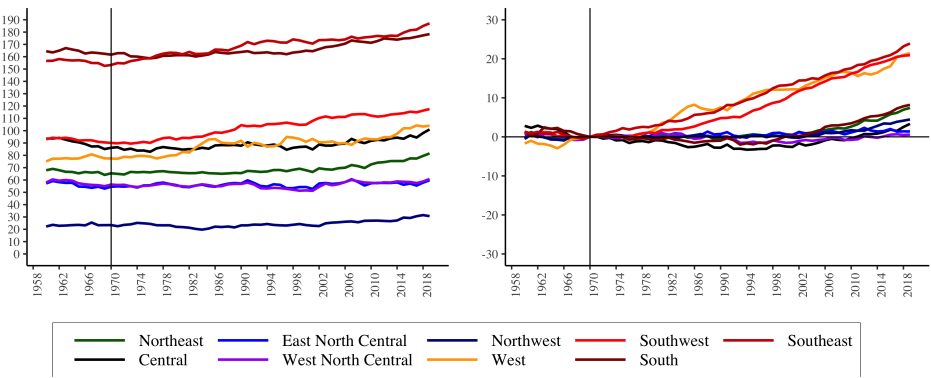


Source: National Centers for Environmental Information (NCEI); NOAA

Climate change by climate region

When climate is measured by hot days, hot regions are increasingly getting hotter.

Table: Annual hot days across climate regions (1970-2019)



Source: Computed from GHCN-daily.

Humidity

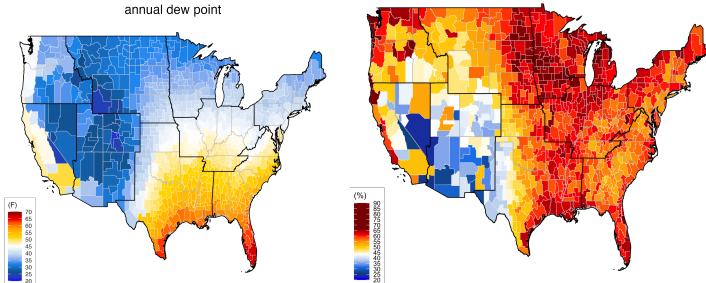
Humidity is *lower* in the **west area** close to mountains and *higher* in the **east area** near the Mexican gulf.

- **Daily relative humidity** is computed from a dew point and mean temperature through a standard meteorological formula.

Figure: Humidity across CZs (2019)

annual relative humidity

annual dew point

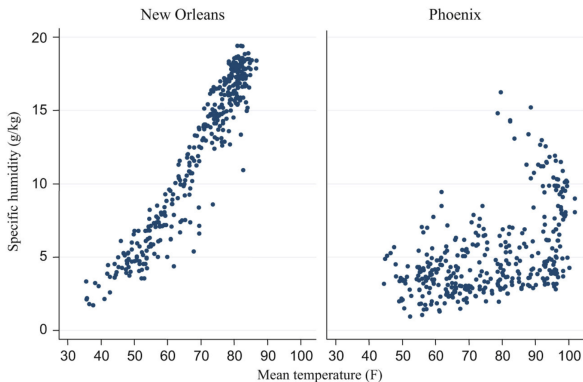


Source: Computed from Global Summary of the Day (GSoD).

Examples: Outlier cities

New Orleans in Louisiana is *much more humid* than Phenix in Arizona with comparable temperature. (→ **discomfort in summer** is much different.)

Figure: Distribution of mean daily temperature and humidity (2002 only)



Source: Barreca (2012); Humidity is a specific humidity (g/kg).

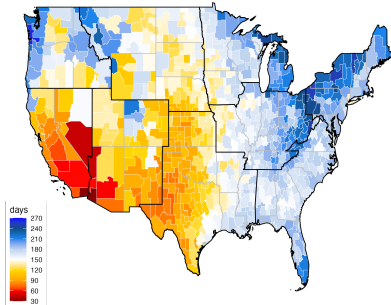
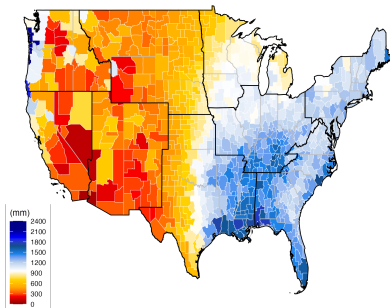
Precipitation

Humidity is heavily shaped by precipitation. **East region** has larger annual precipitation and rainy days due to the U.S. geography. **West region** near desserts (especially, California) suffers from droughts and even forest fires.

Figure: Precipitation across CZs (average in 2000-2019)

annual precipitation

rainy days



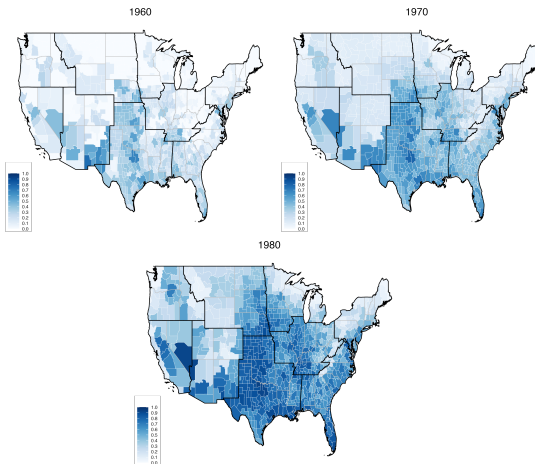
Source: Computed from GHCN-daily.

Spread of Air conditioner

Hotter regions experience faster adoption rates of ACs. ([Biddle \[2008\]](#))

(→ a gap of relative cost increasingly expands in hotter areas.)

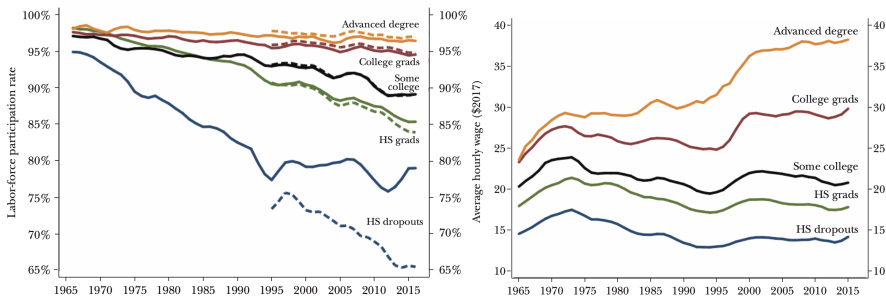
Figure: Fraction of households with residential ACs (1960-1980)



Stylized fact: LFPR trend by education (US)

The dropout is stark for **the less-educated**. (→Many literature studies the substitution effect from adverse labor demand shocks)

Figure: LFPR by education attainment (males aged 25-54)

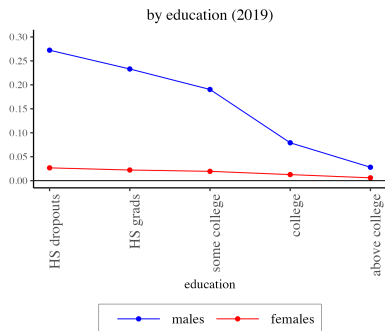
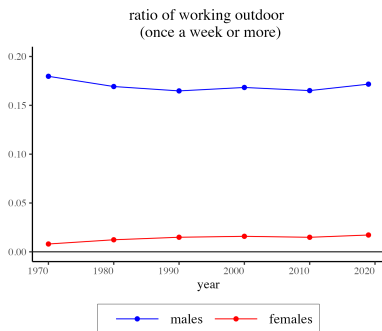


Note: BLS, NBER. (Source: [Binder and Bound \[2019\]](#))

The proxy of working outdoors

Using Work Context survey from ONET, I construct an indicator where a **person regularly works outdoor (cf. at least once a week)** for 873 occupations. 95% of outdoor workers are males (mostly less-educated).

Figure: The ratio of outdoor workers (left: 1970-2019; right: by education (2019)))

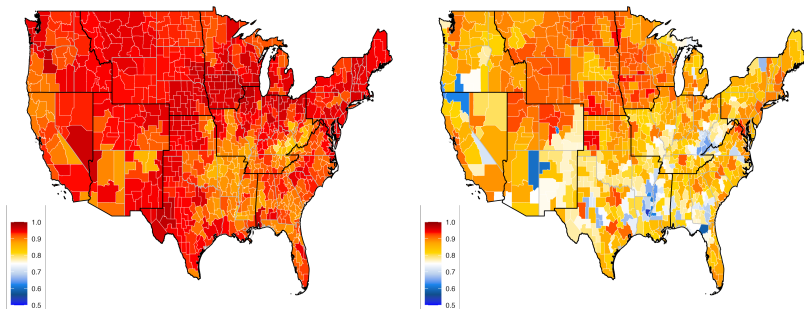


Note: ACS 2017-2019, and *ONET*.

LFPR of prime-aged males

Male LFPR significantly dropped, especially in the South and Southeast region.

Figure: LFPR of males across Commuting Zones (1970 vs. 2019)

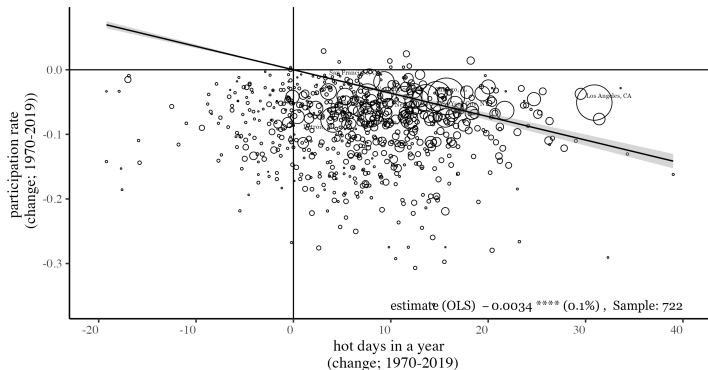


Note: Bold line is a climate zone from NOAA.

Bubble plots: CZ-level

A naive first-difference model shows that 10 more hot days reduces LFPR by 0.3%. ($p < 0.1\%$).

Figure: Exposure to hot days and male LFPRs during 1970-2019 (across CZs)



Note: Weighted by a prime-aged population in 1970, captured by the size of each bubble.

1 Introduction

2 Theory

3 Data

4 Empirical analysis

5 Mechanism

6 Why Blacks?

7 Summary

Empirical model Regional covariates

I estimate the model by the panel data regression at CZ l and year t :

$$LFPR_{l,t} = \underbrace{\beta^h hd + \beta^c cd}_{\text{effect of climate change}} + \underbrace{\mathbf{X}_{l,t}}_{\text{covariates}} + \underbrace{\delta_l + \delta_t}_{\text{location and year FE}} + \epsilon_{l,t}$$

30 regional covariates along the 5 categories:

- **Climate:** precipitation, days with no rains, air conditioner adoption
- **Demography:** age, race, immigrants and veterans; education
- **Family structure:** share of never-married; divorced (separated); children
- **Health:** ratio of disability (only 1970-)
- **NLI:** personal or family NLI; ratio of farm; rented house
- **Welfare income:** recipient ratio and mean level of welfare income (only 1970-)

Labor demand shocks

To incorporate labor demand shocks to induce substitution effects, I construct a shift-share Bartik shocks for employments and wages of prime-aged workers. (See [Goldsmith-Pinkham et al. \[2020\]](#) for a background)

$$B_{l,d} = \sum_k \underbrace{s_{l,k,d_0}}_{\text{locational } l \text{ industry } k \text{ emp. share national}} \underbrace{g_{k,d}}_{\text{industry } k \text{ growth rate}}$$

Construct a list of alternatives, but the estimates are largely unchanged.

- prime-aged males employment
- Exclude self-employment
- Non-college educated workers
- Separately include outside and inside workers

Baseline result (males; 1970-2019)

After controlling for all covariates, **10 more hot days reduces LFPR by 0.2%** ($p < 1\%$) during 1970-2019.

Table: *Climate impact on male LFPRs (across CZs)*

treatment period	LFPR (prime-aged males)			
	1960-2019			
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
10 hot days	-0.003 ***	-0.003 ***	-0.002 ***	-0.002 ***
10 cold days	-0.003	-0.003	-0.002	-0.002
precipitation	○	○	○	○
air conditioner	○	○	○	○
demographics	○	○	○	○
health	×	○	○	○
family	×	×	○	○
NLI	×	×	○	○
welfare	×	×	×	○
czone and year fixed effects	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Observations	4,332	4,332	4,332	4,332

Note: *** : $p < 1\%$; ** : $p < 5\%$; * : $p < 10\%$. *Weighted by a prime-aged male population each year.*

SE is clustered by states.

Baseline result (females; 1970-2019)

Under the SAME specifications for females, the effects are **close to zero and mostly insignificant**. (→ Outdoor workers are predominantly males.)

Table: Climate impact on **female** LFPRs (across CZs)

	LFPR (prime-aged females)			
treatment period	1960-2019			
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
10 hot days	-0.001	-0.002	-0.00	-0.00
10 cold days	-0.001	-0.001	-0.002	-0.002
precipitation	○	○	○	○
air conditioner	○	○	○	○
demographics	○	○	○	○
health	×	○	○	○
family	×	×	○	○
NLI	×	×	○	○
welfare	×	×	×	○
zone and year fixed effects	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Observations	4,332	4,332	4,332	4,332

*Note: *** : $p < 1\%$; ** : $p < 5\%$; * : $p < 10\%$. Weighted by a prime-aged female population each year. SE is clustered by states.*

By education: Less-educated reacted more?

Consistently with the model, the effect is **larger** for less-educated. The relationship is unobserved in females.

Table: Effects by education

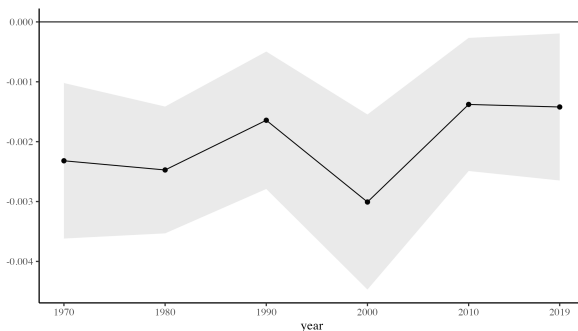
		dependent variable: participation ratio	
		(1)	(2)
		males	females
10 hot days ×	HS dropouts	-0.005 ***	0.005
	HS graduates	-0.006 ****	-0.002
	some college	-0.003 **	-0.005 **
college graduates		0.004	0.006
above college		0.0003	0.003
full controls		Yes	Yes
czone * year fixed effects		Yes	Yes
Observations		4,332	4,332

Note: Full-controlled and FEs in year×CZs. Weighted by a 1970 prime-aged male population.

Effects by periods or areas

The climate effect is fairly stable across years. Perhaps, surprisingly, the effect of hot days is **almost uniform** across the areas of different levels of hot days.

Table: Dynamic effects



Note: *Full-controlled and FEs in $\text{year} \times \text{CZs}$. Weighted by a prime-aged male population each year. SEs are clustered by states.*

Alternative stories

① Composition effect by mobility of workers

- outside workers left warming areas to avoid labor discomfort.
 - ✓ Compliers of the treatment have plausibly less mobility. ([Kennan and Walker \[2011\]](#)) Even if it's high, my estimates are lower bound.
- early-retirees before 54 moved to high-warming areas to prefer heat as residential amenity.
 - ✓ Excluding the movers in recent 5 years strengthens the estimates.

① Product market channel

- Climate change hurt agriculture thus, suppress incomes at farms.
 - ✓ agriculture employment accounts for less than 5% of U.S. prime-aged population.
 - Controlling for a ratio of farm employment does not affect the estimate.
 - The estimate is flexible to spread of residential air conditioner. (below)

How large is the effect?

Interacting the estimate with prime-aged population during 1970-2019, 10 more hot days (at biz hours) **generate 200,000 male dropouts.** (caveat: including in-and-outs)

- During 1970-2019, climate change (23.5 hot days (at biz hours) have produced 480,000 male dropouts.
- Climate change alone explains **approximately 10%** of prime-aged male dropouts during 1970-2019.
- Linearly extrapolating the climate trend to 2030, at least 280,000 males will drop out.

In-and-out?: flexible work style

Climate change *reduces* **weeks during a year**, choosing a seasonal part-year job. (c.f. the rise of in-and-out work style; [Coglianese \[2018\]](#))

Table: Climate impact on work style (limited to employees)

	dep. variable		
	weeks in a year	usual hours in a week	total hours in a year
	(1)	(2)	(3)
10 hot days	-0.038 **	0.094 *	0.002
Observations	4,332	4,332	4,332

Note: *** : $p < 1\%$; ** : $p < 5\%$; * : $p < 10\%$. Full-controlled and FEs in year \times CZs.

Weighted by a 1970 prime-aged male population. SEs are clustered by states.

In-and-out?: being your boss

Climate change *reduces* **males' normal employment rate** and *raises* **self-employment rate (e.g. gig workers; working at home)**, plausibly due to flexible work schedules in response to climate shocks.

Table: Climate impact on labor force attachment

	dep. variable (denominator: prime-aged males)		
	not self- employment rate	self- employment rate	self- employment rate (at home)
	(1)	(2)	(2')
10 hot days	-0.003 **	0.002 ***	0.001 **
Observations	4,332	4,332	4,332

Note: *** : $p < 1\%$; ** : $p < 5\%$; * : $p < 10\%$. Full-controlled and FEs in $\text{year} \times \text{CZs}$. Weighted by a 1970 prime-aged population each year. SEs are clustered by states.

1 Introduction

2 Theory

3 Data

4 Empirical analysis

5 Mechanism

6 Why Blacks?

7 Summary

(1) Do outdoor workplace receives more effect?

Expectedly, exposure to outdoors *accelerates* the response. (especially, with a roof) Within indoor workplaces, air conditioners *flip* the impact.

Table: Climate effects by outdoor environments

		dependent variable: participation ratio				
		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
hot days ×	pre-period share of outdoor	-0.002 ***				
	outdoor with cover		-0.003 ****			
	open vehicle			-0.002 **		
	indoor (non-controlled)				-0.003 **	
	indoor (controlled)					0.002 ***
hot days		-0.002 **	-0.001	-0.002 ***	-0.004 ****	-0.002 **
Observations		4,332	4,332	4,332	4,332	4,332

Note: Full-controlled and FEs in year×CZs. Weighted by a 1970 prime-aged male population. SEs are clustered by states.

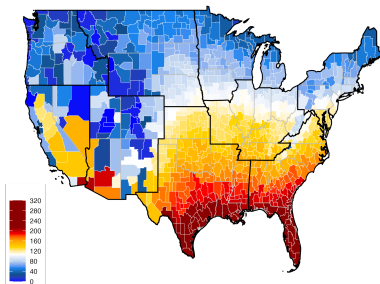
(2) Do workers avoid discomfort?

DI is a function of temperature and relative humidity. Uncomfortable days have $DI > 75$. (A majority of people feels uncomfortable)

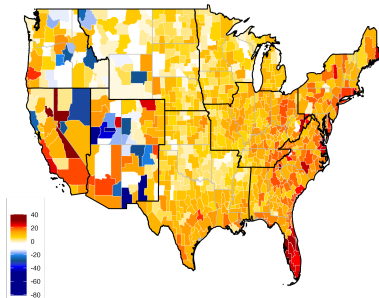
- The West or Southwest regions are comparably hot, but less uncomfortable compared to the Southeast or South.

Figure: Discomfort index across CZs

uncomfortable days
(2010-2019 average)



change in 1970-2019



Source: Computed from GHCN-daily.

Discomfortable vs. hot days

Discomfort index, narrowing to business hours or non-rainy days gives larger and more robust estimates.

Table: Estimates from other climate proxies

scope of climates	dep. variable: participation ratio (prime-aged males)			
	business hours	all hours	business hours on no rainy days	
	1960-2019	1960-2019	1960-2019	1946-2019
treatment period				
Panel A: temperature only				
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(5)
10 hot days	-0.002 ***	-0.002 *	-0.004 ****	-0.003 ***
10 cold days	-0.002	-0.002	-0.005 *	-0.003
Panel B: uncomfortable index				
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(5)
10 discomfort days	-0.003 ***	-0.002 *	-0.005 ****	-0.004 ****
10 cold days	-0.002	-0.002	-0.006 **	-0.003
Observations	4,332	4,332	4,332	5,054

Note: **** : $p < 0.1\%$; *** : $p < 1\%$; ** : $p < 5\%$; * : $p < 10\%$. Full-controlled and FEs in year \times CZs.

Weighted by a 1970 prime-aged male population. SEs are clustered by states.

(3) Role of *residential* air conditioner?

By contrast to business air conditioner, **spread of residential air conditioner** (1970-2000) augments the dropouts in response to climate change as well as family income, welfare income, marital status, a ratio of farm.

Table: Results from other climate proxies

		dep. variable				
		LFPR				
		(denominator: prime-aged males)				
		(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
	10 hot days	-0.002 ***	0.008 **	-0.001	-0.002 ***	-0.01 *
interacted with	air conditioner	-0.001 *				
	log(family income)		-0.001 ***			
	marriage			-0.002 **		
	farm				-0.005 *	
	welfare income					-0.039 ***
		only 1970-2000				
	Observations	2,888	4,332	4,332	4,332	4,332

Note: *** : $p < 0.1\%$; ** : $p < 1\%$; * : $p < 5\%$; : $p < 10\%$. Full-controlled and FEs in year×CZs. Weighted by a 1970 prime-aged male population. SEs are clustered by states.

(4) Outside to inside?

Climate change *decreases* the share of **outdoor salaried worker** and **unemployment**. Excluding the shift to self-employments, this accounts for the rise of dropouts.

Table: Outdoor vs. indoor vs. dropouts

dep. variable: Ratio of (denominator: prime-aged males)					
	working outdoors			not working	
	working for salary	self-employer	total	unemployment	dropouts
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(7)	(8)
10 hot days	-0.002 ***	0.001 ***	-0.001	-0.001 *	0.002 ***
Observations	4,332	4,332	4,332	4,332	4,332
	working indoors				
	working for salary	self-employer	total		
	(4)	(5)	(6)		
10 hot days	-0.001	0.001 **	-0.000		
Observations	4,332	4,332	4,332		

Note: *** : $p < 1\%$; ** : $p < 5\%$; * : $p < 10\%$. Full-controlled and FEs in $\text{year} \times \text{CZs}$.
Weighted by a 1970 prime-aged male population. SEs are clustered by states.

(5) How to exit: go to prisons, not schools?

Non-employment rate in the institution (e.g. chiefly prison) significantly *increases* in contrast to academic enrollment. (e.g. go to community college)

Table:

	dep. variable (denominator: prime-aged males)		
	non- working (institution)	non- working (disability)	student
	(1)	(2)	(3)
10 hot days	0.001 *	0.001	-0.001 ***
Observations	4,332	4,332	4,332

Note: *** : $p < 1\%$; ** : $p < 5\%$; * : $p < 10\%$. *Full-controlled and FEs in year \times CZs. Weighted by a 1970 prime-aged male population. SEs are clustered by states.*

1 Introduction

2 Theory

3 Data

4 Empirical analysis

5 Mechanism

6 Why Blacks?

7 Summary

Why are dropouts among blacks severest?

Decompose the climate response into elasticity vs. climate exposure.

① Is labor supply elasticity of climate change larger for blacks?

- ✓ Given the outdoor working, the response to heat is higher for blacks? (e.g. Obesity?)

② Is climate exposure larger for blacks?

- ① The share of working outdoor is larger for blacks?
- ② The number of hot days is larger for blacks?

1. LS elasticity larger for blacks?

So far, no evidence is confirmed for 1. (\rightarrow I suspect that the climate exposure is dominant.)

- Regress DIDID: β^B is close to 0 and insignificant.

$$LFPR_{l,d} = \beta^h hd_{l,d} + \beta^h hd_{l,d} \times Outdoor_{l,d-10} \\ + \beta^B hd_{l,d} \times Outdoor_{l,d-10} \times ratio_{l,d}^{Black} + \dots$$

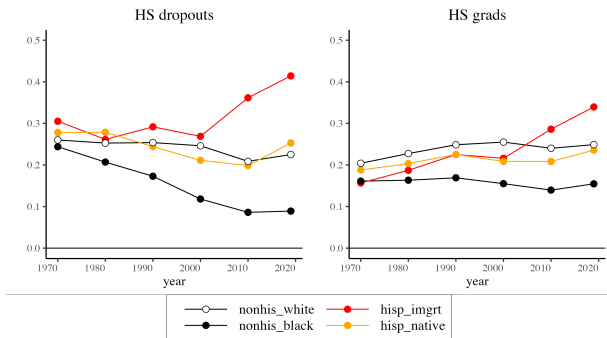
- Replacing to hispanics, the coefficient shows significantly positive.
(\rightarrow Hispanics appears to be resilient to heat shocks.)

2-(a) The share of working outdoor is larger for blacks?

Opposite. **Blacks are less likely to work outdoors** than whites or hispanics even after education is controlled.

(→ The remaining is the difference of hot days.)

Figure: The share of prime-aged outdoor workers by race (prime-aged males; 1970-2019)



Source: Census, ACS and ONET.

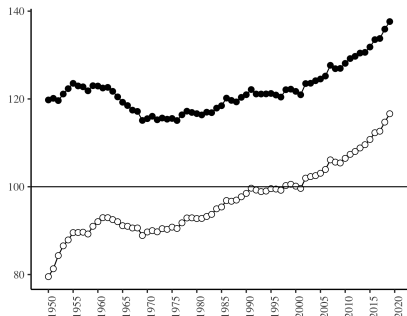
2-(b) Is climate exposure larger for blacks?

Yes, a gap of 18 hot days for 5 decades. A simple envelope calculation:

-0.2% for 10 days in a decade $\times \Delta 18$ days exposure $\times 5$ decades $= -1.8\%$.

→ This accounts for **30% of black-white gap of LFPR trends during 1970-2019**. (LFPR gap widened from 5% to 11%)

Figure: Hot days experienced by average blacks and whites (1950-2019)



1 Introduction

2 Theory

3 Data

4 Empirical analysis

5 Mechanism

6 Why Blacks?

7 Summary

Summary

Throughout the human history, males have enjoyed comparative advantage in working outdoors. The paper suggests that **modern climate change hurt their advantage**.

- Climate change drives the decline of male LFPRs.
- Geographic variation of climate change may be responsible for dispersion of racial (black vs. white) LFPR trends.
- **Policy implication:** subsidy or OSHA regulation for **deployment of air conditioners** at indoor workplaces. This would prevent further dropouts.

For comments

Thank you for listening. Please feel free to send me a feedback to my email:

m.yoshida@waseda.jp

Daron Acemoglu and Pascual Restrepo. Robots and jobs: Evidence from us labor markets. *Journal of Political Economy*, 128(6):2188–2244, 2020.

Mark Aguiar, Mark Bils, Kerwin Kofi Charles, and Erik Hurst. Leisure luxuries and the labor supply of young men. *Journal of Political Economy*, 129(2): 337–382, 2021.

David Autor, David Dorn, Gordon Hanson, et al. When work disappears: Manufacturing decline and the falling marriage market value of young men. *American Economic Review: Insights*, 1(2):161–78, 2019.

David H Autor and David Dorn. The growth of low-skill service jobs and the polarization of the us labor market. *American Economic Review*, 103(5): 1553–1597, 2013.

David H Autor and Mark G Duggan. The rise in the disability rolls and the

decline in unemployment. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 118(1): 157–206, 2003.

David H Autor, David Dorn, Gordon H Hanson, and Jae Song. Trade adjustment: Worker-level evidence. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 129(4):1799–1860, 2014.

Alan Barreca, Karen Clay, Olivier Deschenes, Michael Greenstone, and Joseph S Shapiro. Adapting to climate change: The remarkable decline in the us temperature-mortality relationship over the twentieth century. *Journal of Political Economy*, 124(1):105–159, 2016.

Jeff Biddle. Explaining the spread of residential air conditioning, 1955–1980. *Explorations in Economic History*, 45(4):402–423, 2008.

Ariel J Binder and John Bound. The declining labor market prospects of less-educated men. *Journal of Economic Perspectives*, 33(2):163–190, 2019.

John Coglianesse. The rise of in-and-outs: Declining labor force participation of prime age men. *Harvard University*. https://scholar.harvard.edu/files/coglianesse/files/coglianesse_2017_in-and-outs.pdf, 2018.

Melissa Dell, Benjamin F Jones, and Benjamin A Olken. Temperature shocks and economic growth: Evidence from the last half century. *American Economic Journal: Macroeconomics*, 4(3):66–95, 2012.

Olivier Deschênes and Michael Greenstone. The economic impacts of climate change: Evidence from agricultural output and random fluctuations in weather. *American economic review*, 97(1):354–385, 2007.

Olivier Deschenes and Enrico Moretti. Extreme weather events, mortality, and migration. *The Review of Economics and Statistics*, 91(4):659–681, 2009.

Paul Goldsmith-Pinkham, Isaac Sorkin, and Henry Swift. Bartik instruments: What, when, why, and how. *American Economic Review*, 110(8): 2586–2624, 2020.

Joshua Graff Zivin and Matthew Neidell. Temperature and the allocation of time: Implications for climate change. *Journal of Labor Economics*, 32(1): 1–26, 2014.

John Kennan and James R Walker. The effect of expected income on individual migration decisions. *Econometrica*, 79(1):211–251, 2011.

Alan B Krueger. Where have all the workers gone? an inquiry into the decline

of the us labor force participation rate. *Brookings Papers on Economic Activity*, 2017(2):1, 2017.

Donald O. Parsons. The decline in male labor force participation. *Journal of Political Economy*, 88(1):117–134, 1980.

Eswaran Somanathan, Rohini Somanathan, Anant Sudarshan, and Meenu Tewari. The impact of temperature on productivity and labor supply: Evidence from indian manufacturing. *Journal of Political Economy*, 129(6): 1797–1827, 2021.

Daniel Sullivan and Till Von Wachter. Job displacement and mortality: An analysis using administrative data. *The Quarterly Journal of Economics*, 124(3):1265–1306, 2009.