Job Market Candidate Spotlight

Ofronama Biu | Job Market Candidate | The New School Milano’s School of Policy
Black Women, Black Men, and Occupational Crowding: Non-Standard Jobs and Benefits

Alternative and contingent employment arrangements offer fewer protections, lower pay, and are less likely to provide benefits. Workers in the U.S. rely on employment for social protections yet not every occupation offers benefits.

Occupational crowding measures the degree to which a group is over-, under-, or proportionally represented in an occupation given their educational attainment and the educational requirement for the role. Black workers have been systematically crowded into low wage occupations, even when they are qualified (Hamilton 2013). This work examines whether Black workers are also overrepresented in various forms of vulnerable employment. I then regress occupational health insurance and retirement rates on crowding.

Research on Black workers and these arrangements—and how crowding impacts benefits—is limited, particularly from an intersectional perspective. This dissertation expands on the literature by comparing Black women, Black men, and White women to White men, the group with the most labor market advantage (King 1993). I also compare Black women to White men, Black men, and White women.

My analysis finds evidence of crowding into some of the worst vulnerable arrangements for Black women and Black men as compared to White men (e.g. temporary, part-time, and contingent work) while White men are crowded into the more desirable forms of work (e.g. independent contractors and contract workers). There is also a negative relationship between occupation health and retirement rates and crowding for Black women, Black men, and White women as compared to White men.
Segregated public schools have been outlawed for decades now, however, there are still a multitude of schools that are largely dominated by one racial group. School integration in the 1960s and 1970s has been shown to improve educational attainment of African Americans among other positive outcomes (Guryan, 2004). This paper estimates the effect of desegregation on mortality rates among African Americans and Whites from 1999-2016. The analysis uses county-level mortality data from the Centers for Disease Control and exogenous variation in court-mandated desegregation from 100 large US counties from Guryan (2004). The variation in timing of desegregation from 1961 to 1982 sets up a difference-in-difference model, which we estimate with county-level fixed effects. We find higher mortality for African Americans. Integration narrows this mortality gap between African Americans and Whites by nearly 40% in certain age groups. This result emphasizes the importance of integration on the long term well being of African Americans, which may apply to current policies aimed at redistricting within counties.

While the Patient Protection and Affordable Care Act (ACA) ’s central objectives were to improve health care affordability and accessibility, the Medicaid expansions yielded non-health spillover effects, namely providing a means to address financial instability. We add to a growing body of literature on the economic impacts of health care reforms in our analysis of 2009, 2012, 2015, and 2018 waves of the National Financial Capability Study (NFCS)—a nationally representative survey of about 89,000 non-elderly respondents aged 18-64. Using difference-in-difference regressions, we measure the impact of the ACA’s private (i.e., marketplace) and public health insurance (i.e., Medicaid) expansions on household financial indicators. We compare states that expanded Medicaid via the ACA against states that did not expand Medicaid along several household financial outcomes, including 1) propensity to have rainy-day funds, 2) overdrawn a bank account, 3) self-assessed credit rating, and 5) unmet medical needs due to cost. We find Medicaid expansion was associated with an increase (p<0.01) in health insurance coverage, reduction (p<0.05) in unpaid medical bills among low-income adults, and an increase (p<0.10) in the propensity to have rainy-day funds. We also explore instrumental variable (IV) regressions using the state’s Medicaid expansions as an IV to examine the effects of health coverage on rainy-day funds and delayed or forgone medical needs. The results agree with prior studies. Given the ongoing dynamic nature of ACA policy reform and implementation, our paper provides important evidence of ACA’s direct and indirect effects that can prove useful to the policy debate.
Since the 1980s, inflows of investment and affluent residents into historically disinvested neighborhoods across major U.S. cities, known as gentrification, have raised local housing costs and increasingly pushed families from these neighborhoods into homelessness. Yet, quantitative research reveals little about the relationship between gentrification and homelessness because studies of gentrification's residential impact do not account for homelessness and analyses of intra-city homelessness do not account for gentrification.

My research fills this gap by estimating the association between neighborhood gentrification and shelter entry rates, a proxy for homelessness, for families with children across New York City from 2005 to 2015. I analyze data on families’ neighborhoods of residence prior to entering shelters and apply log-linear regression to measure the associations between neighborhoods’ shelter entry rates and their gentrification status, stage, and proximity. Using a novel gentrification measure, I classify the subset of low-income neighborhoods which exhibited a 25-percentile gap between house prices and median incomes during the period as gentrified. This indicator allows me to estimate differences between pre- and post-gentrification shelter entry rates across neighborhoods, thereby improving upon traditional time-invariant indicators which only compare post-gentrification differences.

My results show that gentrification and shelter entry are positively and statistically significant linked. However, my inconclusive analyses of the associations between neighborhoods’ shelter entry rates, gentrification stage and proximity indicate areas for future research. Ultimately, these findings call for reevaluating market-dependent housing policies, which have failed to produce the scale of affordable housing required to stably house low-income families and curb rising homelessness.

While rapid technological innovation can boost economic growth, it can also further economic inequality—creating a system of haves and have-nots (Korinek and Stiglitz 2017; Fernandez 2015). Prior work has found evidence of skill-biased technological change—over the past 20 years, the introduction of technology has increased the demand for more-skilled labor relative to less-skilled labor at fixed relative wages (Bresnahan, Brynjolfsson, and Hitt n.d.; Autor, Katz, and Kearney 2008; Acemoglu and Autor 2011). I use a county-level panel dataset from 2013 to 2019 to assess the impacts of a federal program that provided massive subsidies to facilitate the expansion of broadband infrastructure: The Connect America Fund Phase II Program. This program incentivized telecommunications carriers to provide broadband access to high-cost areas in the United States (typically rural and other underserved communities). I study the impact of this ‘last mile’ of broadband and assessing broadband access on local economic outcomes, including employment outcomes by occupation and economic inequality indicators. I utilize an instrumental variables approach to study the impact of being eligible for the program on local economic outcomes. I find that while areas that received broadband via the subsidy program increased jobs, wages, and reduced the unemployment rate. However, I also find that these counties had a significant increase in income inequality, except in those counties where there was an increase in business establishment creation. These results show that broadband investment indeed drives economic growth. Still, it must be paired with incentives to create new firms and firm growth to not drive further economic inequality.