# Job Search Behavior and Labor Market Outcomes of Urban Youth 

## Summary of Baseline Survey

Digital Platforms and
Women's Economic Empowerment (DP-WEE)

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## 1 Executive Summary

- In-person survey of over 3400 individuals in the 18-40 age group, across 6 districts of Delhi between May and August 2023.
- More men in the 18-24 age group report continuing education than women in the same age group.
- $32 \%$ have some skill or vocational education, higher for men ( $69 \%$ ) than women (66\%).
- $25 \%$ are unemployed and $38 \%$ are not in the workforce (i.e. not looking for work). Majority of unemployed ( $97 \%$ ) are actively looking for work.
- Larger proportion of women ( $45 \%$ ) not in the workforce than men (30\%). $45 \%$ of those pursuing education are also looking for work.
- Job loss is the primary reason for current unemployment for men while it is family care duties for women.
- Traditional methods of job search dominate amongst the youth - referrals and offline job search modes, although $58 \%$ report having used an online or app-based job search platform.
- Of the total time spent on job search, $40 \%$ is on online sources.
- Younger individuals, irrespective of gender, are more likely to use online job platforms for job search.
- Of those who discontinue usage of digital job search platforms, $48 \%$ is due to lack of suitable job offers and $36 \%$ due to fake job postings. This holds across genders.
- Usage of digital job search platforms can be increased significantly. Initiatives need to be taken by the job aggregators to get more employers onboard, as well as measures to inculcate trust amongst registered users searching for jobs.


## 2 Background

India, with its vast and diverse population, has consistently faced challenges related to unemployment. As the world's second-most populous country, it is pivotal for India to have a thriving job market to ensure the socio-economic stability of its burgeoning youth population.

The Periodic Labour Force Survey (PLFS) for the year 2019-20 unveiled alarming statistics pertaining to unemployment in India, highlighting a particularly concerning scenario for urban areas. The challenges multiply for women, with their labour force participation rate standing at a mere $25 \%$. These figures underscore not only the barriers women face in accessing job opportunities but also the societal norms and expectations that push them towards a more domestic role.

The recent global pandemic has further complicated the situation. COVID-19 wreaked havoc on the global economy, and India was no exception. Many lost their jobs, and the availability of positions in the formal sector dwindled. Even as the world leans into a digital era, women in India still grapple with entrenched societal norms. Despite their employment status, the lion's share of domestic responsibilities often falls upon them. This not only impacts their job prospects but frequently forces them into roles that are underpaid and undervalued.

Digital job platforms present a unique solution to this pressing issue. With the advent of technology and a rapidly growing smartphone user base, these platforms have the potential to revolutionize the way India's youth, especially women, search for jobs.

The core intent of this research is to delve deep into the psyche of India's youth, dissecting their job search behavior. It aims to bring to the forefront any gender disparities in these behaviors and to identify the obstacles women face in joining the labor force. By understanding the influencing factors behind their decision to (or not to) seek employment, one can begin to address the root causes of such disparities. It is essential to analyze these concerns to recommend and evaluate policy measures effectively. India stands at the crossroads of modernity and tradition, and harnessing the economic potential of its young population, both men and women, is paramount.

A key aspect of this research will be to ascertain if providing information on job opportunities through digital mediums, such as apps and online portals, can indeed enhance employment prospects for the youth. This could potentially be a game-changer, especially for urban women, bridging the gap between opportunity and access in India's employment landscape.

## 3 Sample and Study Design

We utilized a cluster random sampling technique to sample households in Delhi for the study. First, we stratified all the districts in Delhi based on income levels. Six middleincome districts, where the probability of school completion and smartphone usage were likely to be significant, were selected for the study. Thereafter, drawing on data from the Delhi Election Commission website, we sampled 15 assembly constituencies across the selected districts. 131 randomly selected polling stations within the sampled ACs formed our primary sampling units or clusters. From each of these polling stations, 2528 households were selected randomly for the survey. Households with a member aged between 18-40 years, willing to participate in the labor market, with an education level above grade 12, and with access to a smartphone were considered eligible for the survey characteristics that are likely to increase probability of usage of job matching platforms.
Survey of sample characteristics (May-August 2023): A foundational survey was conducted to discern the respondents' education, skill sets, past employment history, jobseeking behaviors, preferences, and risk predispositions. Our study encompassed 3,418 individuals - with a gender distribution of $48 \%$ males and $52 \%$ females, all falling within the age bracket of 18-45 years. These individuals are our main respondents. Each chosen household underwent a systematic survey, with the selected individual from the household further delved into via individualized questionnaires. All data gathering was executed through enumerator interviews. This survey was held confidentially, assuring respondents' privacy, and with their consent.

A visual representation of our sampling locations is exhibited in Figure 3.1.

Figure 3.1: Sampled districts, and polling stations of Delhi


- Polling Stations

District


## 4 Summary Statistics

### 4.1 Demographics

### 4.1.1 Individual characteristics

In this section we discuss the characteristics of individual survey respondents - for the full sample and by gender. Our sample exhibits a relatively balanced gender distribution, with slightly higher female respondents. Specifically, females constitute $52 \%$ of our sample, while males represent the remaining $48 \%$ (Figure 4.1). This nearly equal distribution enables a comprehensive understanding of both genders' responses and behaviors.

Figure 4.1: Distribution by gender


Note: Author's own calculation using 3418 baseline surveys across 131 clusters (polling stations).

When examining the age distribution segmented by gender, the mean age for males is approximately 23.59 years, and for females, it is 24.52 years (Figure 4.2). The overall average age of the entire sample stands at 24.068 years, with a standard deviation of 5.361. This suggests that the majority of our respondents are young adults, potentially in the early stages of their careers. This demographic is crucial for understanding jobseeking behaviors and preferences in the contemporary urban job market, particularly the usage of digital technology.

The majority of the sample ( $72 \%$ ) is unmarried, which is higher for males ( $82 \%$ ) than female respondents (63\%), as shown in Figure 4.3. Further, most of the respondents are native of Delhi ( $70 \%$ ) (Figure 4.4). On average, males use smartphones for almost 4 hours per day while women spend about 30 minutes less time on smartphones in our sample.

Figure 4.2: Distribution of age by gender


Note: Author's own calculation using 3418 baseline surveys across 131 clusters. The average age of the entire sample is 24.068 , with a standard deviation of 5.361 .

Figure 4.3: Distribution by marital status


Note: Author's own calculation using 3418 baseline surveys across 131 clusters. Married ${ }^{*}$ : Widowed, Divorced or Married but not living in the same city. Panel A comprises the complete sample, while Panel $B$ demonstrates the distribution over gender.

Figure 4.4: Distribution of nativity status


Note: Author's own calculation using 3418 baseline surveys across 131 clusters. Two of the respondents refused to answer the question. Panel A comprises the complete sample, while Panel B demonstrates the distribution over gender. Native: Respondent's native home is Delhi.

Figure 4.5: Smartphone usage per day by gender


Note: Author's own calculation using 3418 baseline surveys across 131 clusters. The average hours of smartphone usage per day for the entire sample is 3.713 , with a standard deviation of 2.064 .

### 4.1.2 Household characteristics

In this section we summarize the characteristics of the households that our individual respondents come from. The majority belong to Hindu (Figure 4.6 and unreserved caste category (Figure 4.7) of households. Annual household income is less than INR 25000 for $50 \%$ of the households, as shown in Figure 4.8.

Figure 4.6: Distribution by religious identity
Panel A


Panel B


[^0]Figure 4.7: Distribution by category (caste)
Panel A


Note: Author's own calculation using 3418 baseline surveys across 131 clusters. Panel A comprises the complete sample, while Panel B demonstrates the data over gender. NA: If the response is Other, Refuse to say, or Don't know.

Figure 4.8: Distribution by household total income


Note: Author's own calculation using 3418 baseline surveys across 131 clusters. Household's monthly total income includes income from salary, wage, self-employment, rent of property, interest, dividends, pension, and government schemes. $k$ : 1000 Rupees.

### 4.2 Skills \& Education

Recall that completion of grade 12 or schooling was a prerequisite for participation in our study. Not surprisingly, therefore, $61 \%$ of respondents have completed schooling, while the proportion of women respondents who have graduation or higher degree is greater at $41 \%$ vis-a-vis $34 \%$ of male respondents (Figure 4.9). In addition, we find that $46 \%$ of our respondents are continuing their education - more men (50\%) than women (43\%) (Figure 4.10). Only $32 \%$ of the sample has obtained some skill or vocational training, hence the majority have no vocational education (Figure 4.11).

Figure 4.9: Distribution by attained educational qualification


Note: Author's own calculation using 3418 baseline surveys across 131 clusters. Panel A comprises the complete sample, while Panel B demonstrates the distribution over gender. Other: Includes professional degrees such as B.Ed., LLB etc.

Figure 4.10: Distribution by current educational status


Note: Author's own calculation using 3418 baseline surveys across 131 clusters. Panel A comprises the complete sample, while Panel B demonstrates the distribution over gender. Pursuing: Respondent is currently enrolled in an educational institution.

Figure 4.11: Distribution by skill or technical training


Note: Author's own calculation using 3418 baseline surveys across 131 clusters. Panel A comprises the complete sample, while Panel B demonstrates the distribution over gender. Skill Training: Respondent has undertaken any other degree for example diploma, skill or technical training other than regular education.

### 4.3 Employment History

In this section we summarise the labor market experience of our respondents. While there is an almost equal proportion of those with prior work experience (with our without pay), more men (57\%) report having ever worked compared to women (40\%) as shown in Figure 4.12.

Figure 4.12: Distribution of respondent's work experience (ever worked)


Note: Author's own calculation using 3418 baseline surveys across 131 clusters. Panel A comprises the complete sample, while Panel B demonstrates the distribution over gender. Question: Have you ever worked for pay or profit or helped without pay in a household business? (Yes/No)

Compared to 'ever worked' status, fewer respondents report working in the 3 months prior to the survey $-37 \%$ overall (Figure 4.13). However, $49 \%$ of men report working compared to only $26 \%$ of women. Unemployment rates are highest amongst those who have only completed schooling, while the main reason for not being in the workforce (currently looking for work) is enrollment in educational institution (Figure 4.13).
$97 \%$ of those who are currently unemployed report looking for work, while $38 \%$ of those who are currently working are looking for better job opportunities (Figure 4.15). Interestingly, job loss is the primary reason for current unemployment for men while it is family care duties for women (Figure 4.16).

Figure 4.13: Distribution of employment status (in past three months)


Note: Author's own calculation using 3418 baseline surveys across 131 clusters. Panel A comprises the complete sample, while Panel B demonstrates the distribution over gender. Employed: If the respondent had at least one job, Unemployed: With no job and searching for one, and Not in workforce: Not searching for a job.

Figure 4.14: Distribution of employment status (in past three months) by education


Note: Author's own calculation using 3418 baseline surveys across 131 clusters. Employed: If the respondent has at least one job , Unemployed: With no job and searching for one, and Not in workforce: Not searching for a job.

Figure 4.15: Distribution of employment status (in past three months) by current job search status


Note: Author's own calculation using 3418 baseline surveys across 131 clusters. Employed: If the respondent has at least one job, Unemployed: With no job and searching for one, and Not in workforce: Not searching for a job.

Figure 4.16: Reason behind discontinuation from most recent job


Note: Panel A includes 389 individuals who lost their job in past three months, while Panel B demonstrates the distribution over gender. Family care: it includes Pregnancy, Child care and other family responsibilities, Lost Job: Lost job due to lay off, contract ended or business closed down, and Location: Location of the job is far from residence.

### 4.4 Job Search Activity

### 4.4.1 Ever searched for job

Female participants show are less likely to have ever searched for a job (see Appendix Table A.1). Among females, higher household income relates to reduced job search, while non-monetary compensation preference shows a similar trend. In contrast, males valuing non-monetary compensation tend to search for jobs less, while those prioritizing work environment and supervisor gender engage more in job search.

### 4.4.2 Currently looking for job

The investigation into the current job search dynamics reveals compeling insights (see Appendix Table A.2). Among female participants, a remarkable and statistically significant positive correlation emerges with the variable indicating active job search currently. Conversely, being married exhibits a negative association with the variable of interest, indicating that married individuals are less likely to be actively seeking employment opportunities. Notably, this negative marital status association with job search is significant only for female participants.

Furthermore, the number of children a female participant has displays a negative correlation with the variable of interest, suggesting that an increasing number of children may hinder a woman's propensity to search for jobs.

Intriguingly, the broader preferences expressed by female participants regarding various job aspects seem to bear little correlation with their current job search status. This suggests that, at least within the confines of this study, female participants' preferences do not significantly influence their likelihood of actively seeking employment.

### 4.4.3 Current job search

$41 \%$ of the sample is currently looking for work, while a larger proportion of women (44\%) are searching for jobs relative to men (37\%), as shown in Figure 4.17 below.

Traditional methods of job search dominate amongst the youth - referrals and offline job search modes, both as a source of information about job openings (shown in Figure 4.18 (conditional on having worked in the past 3 months), as well as in terms of proportion of time spent on modes of job search (shown in Figure 4.19). This holds for both genders.

Figure 4.17: Distribution of respondents in job search


Note: Author's own calculation using 3418 baseline surveys across 131 clusters. Panel A comprises the complete sample, while Panel B demonstrates the distribution over gender.

Figure 4.18: Source of information of current job


Note: Author's own calculation using 3418 baseline surveys across 131 clusters. Respondents were asked about how they obtained their current job. Panel A includes includes 1266 individuals who had at least one job in past three months of the survey, while Panel B demonstrates the distribution over gender for these 1266 individuals. Institutional: If the respondent has received information about the job from a job fair, skill training program, NGO, or Self-help group.

Figure 4.19: Share of time spent per day on job search by offline or online mode



Note: Author's own calculation using 3418 baseline surveys across 131 clusters. Panel A includes 1998 individuals who are either searching for job or have searched in past, while Panel B demonstrates the distribution over gender.

### 4.4.4 Preferences for digital platform use in future

The respondents (around 1,998) who are either searching for a job or have previously searched were specifically asked about their use of online or app-based job platforms. A significant portion, $58.11 \%$ ( 1,161 ), utilized these digital resources, while $41.89 \%$ (837) did not employ them in their job search (see Figure 4.20). Among those who did use
online or app-based job platforms, $39.53 \%$ (459 out of 1,161 respondents) initially tried but eventually ceased using these services (Figure 4.21).

Figure 4.20: Use of online or app-based job platforms for job search


Note: See footnote of Figure 4.19.

Figure 4.21: Continuation of online or app-based job platforms for job search


Note: Author's own calculation using 3418 baseline surveys across 131 clusters. Panel A includes 1161 individuals who used online or app-based job platforms in Panel A of Figure 4.20, while Panel B demonstrates the distribution over gender.

The latter group, which abstained from using online or app platforms, predominantly did so because they perceived these tools as not useful, with $64.04 \%$ expressing this
sentiment (see Figure 4.22). A closer look reveals a marginal difference in this perception between genders; $62.95 \%$ of females and $65.09 \%$ of males held this view. Moreover, $23.30 \%$ expressed no knowledge about online platforms or apps as a reason for not using them.

Figure 4.22: Reasons for not using any online or app-based job platform(s) in job search
Panel A


Panel B


Note: Author's own calculation using 3418 baseline surveys across 131 clusters. Panel A includes 837 individuals who have not used online or app-based job platforms for their job search (Refer Figure 4.20), while Panel B demonstrates the distribution over gender. Respondents can have multiple reasons.

Various reasons were cited for discontinuation (Figure 4.22). Notably, $94.12 \%$ indicated the discontinuation was NOT due to lack of internet access or a smartphone (Figure 4.23). $33.33 \%$ did not find suitable jobs on these platforms. Additionally, $27.45 \%$ reported
receiving no interview calls, and almost half, $48.15 \%$, did not get suitable job offers through these platforms. Misleading or fake job postings were a deterrent for $36.38 \%$ of the users. Interestingly, a small fraction, $12.85 \%$, discontinued the use of these job platforms because they had successfully secured employment.

Figure 4.23: Reasons for discontinuation of the use of online or app-based job platform(s) in job search

Panel A


Panel B


Note: Author's own calculation using 3418 baseline surveys across 131 clusters. Panel A includes 459 individuals who initially used online or app-based job platforms for their job search (Refer Figure 4.21), but eventually ceased using these services. Panel B demonstrates the distribution over gender. Respondents can have multiple reasons.

The data reflects a mixed reaction to the efficacy of online or app-based job platforms,
indicating while they are a prevalent tool for job seekers, a significant portion of users find them ineffective for various reasons ranging from unsuitable job listings to misleading information. The relatively high percentage of users who obtained a job through these platforms, however, points to their potential as a valuable resource in the job search process.

### 4.4.5 Usage of digital platforms

Gender, notably, doesn't exhibit a statistically significant association with participants' historical use of online job platforms. Age emerges as a factor with differential impacts on the variable of interest. For females, a subtle positive correlation is observed, suggesting that older women tend to engage more in using online platforms for job search. Conversely, for male participants, a modest negative association exists, indicating that younger men are slightly more inclined to utilize online platforms for this purpose.
Marital status and the number of children manifest as influential factors primarily among female participants. Being married or having a higher number of children corresponds to a negative correlation with the use of online job platforms among women. Interestingly, these factors hold no significant correlation for their male counterparts.
The dynamics of employment status and educational attainment stand as common denominators among participants using online platforms for job searches. Both employed and unemployed individuals, as well as participants possessing education beyond the standard 12 th grade, display a propensity to engage in online job searches. Importantly, no gender disparities are observed within these trends, highlighting a shared inclination regardless of gender.
For male participants, a noteworthy association surfaces based on specific job preferences. Those with a strong emphasis on salary and work location display a subtle negative correlation with the use of online job platforms. This implies that men who prioritize these aspects might be less reliant on online platforms for their job search endeavors.
On the other hand, the preferences of female participants for substantial monetary compensation exhibit a negative association with the use of online platforms. This suggests that women valuing monetary benefits might explore alternative avenues beyond online platforms in their quest for suitable employment opportunities. See Appendix Table A. 3 for details.

In contrast, marital status and the number of children wield no influence on participants' prospective use of online job platforms (Appendix Table A.4). Irrespective of gender, these factors display no meaningful association, suggesting that participants' family-related responsibilities have little bearing on their projected future engagement with online job searches.

Both employed and unemployed participants share a common trend exhibiting a negative correlation with the anticipated future use of online job platforms, with no gender heterogeneity. Among male participants, a compelling association emerges. Those whose present
work aligns with their future career aspirations display a robust positive correlation with the future use of online job platforms. This indicates that for men, congruence between current work and future goals stimulates an enthusiastic embrace of online platforms for job searches. Among females, a similar association exists, albeit with less intensity. Surprisingly, the majority of job preference aspects exhibit minimal to no association with the anticipated future use of online job platforms.

### 4.5 Job Preferences \& Beliefs

### 4.5.1 Job Preferences

We observe similar ranking or importance for job characteristics between men and women, with women putting marginally higher weightage on work environment and location (Figure 4.24).

Figure 4.24: Importance of different job characteristics


Note: Author's own calculation using 3418 baseline surveys across 131 clusters. Panel A comprises the complete sample, while Panel B demonstrates the distribution over gender. Benefits: Healthcare or insurance, meals, transportation, etc. Flexibility: Flexible work arrangements (location, schedule). Work Environment: Safety \& gender composition. Job location: Distance of work place from residence. Higher the value of importance, higher is the importance of the aspect for the respondent.

### 4.5.2 Job Market Beliefs

In this section we provide data on the respondents' perceptions of characteristics of various job types commonly found on digital job search platforms. The objective was to assess whether job aspirants are well-informed about the job market, and whether any disinformation differs by gender and occupations.

Figure 4.25 provides insights into the salary (in INR) perceptions. Panel A showcases a bar graph illustrating that all listed professions - Bookkeepers, Teachers, Workers, Data Entry Clerks, Nurses, and Electricians - have higher perceived salaries than their actual average salary, with Electricians and Bookkeepers showing the largest overestimation at INR 10,334 and 7,569 , respectively. Panel B provides a deeper insight by gender, revealing variations in the perceived salary differences. For instance, the perceived salary for Bookkeepers is overestimated by 8,674 , by male respondents whereas it's slightly less, at 6,555 by females. Similar patterns are seen across other professions, with the gendered disparity in perception being particularly pronounced in the case of Workers, where the perceived salary is overestimated by 9,845 by males compared to 8,914 by females. Electricians exhibit the highest gender gap in perception, with a 12,147 overestimation by males against 9,496 by females.

Figure 4.26 provides a comparative analysis of the deviation in perceived work hours against actual work hours for various job roles, also segmented by gender. In Panel A, the bar graph displays that for most professions, the perceived work hours exceed the actual average work hours, with Worker showing the greatest deviation at 2.61 hours. Electrician and Nurse also have noticeable deviations of 1.83 and 0.77 hours, respectively, while Book keeper, Teacher, and Data Entry roles show minimal discrepancy. In Panel B, this perceived deviation is further broken down by gender. The Worker role shows the highest perceived overestimation in work hours for both males (2.64 hours) and females (2.59 hours). Electrician and Nurse show notable gender differences in perception; for Electrician, males are perceived to work 1.87 hours more, while females are perceived to work 1.80 hours more than the actual figures. Nurse have a reversed gender gap, with females perceived to work 0.81 hours more, higher than their male counterparts at 0.72 hours. These gendered perceptions of work hours suggest underlying biases in how the work commitment of different genders is viewed in various occupations.

Figure 4.27 provides a comparative analysis of the deviation in perceived flexibility of work hours for various job roles, also segmented by gender, while Figure 4.28 shows the perceptions regarding work place location. We don't find significant differences in these perceptions by gender.
Compensating Wage In order to elicit the value individuals placed on various job characteristics, survey participants were presented with 2 hypothetical job scenarios, each with distinct job features (see Figure A. 9 for an illustration). These features encompassed monthly earnings, work Location (either Home-based or At-location 10 km away), work timing (standard 9 am to 5 am versus flexible hours), gender mix in the workplace (either
an equal male-to-female ratio or a dominant 80:20 male-to-female proportion), daily work hours ( 8 hours versus 4 hours or part-time), and pay frequency (Monthly versus Weekly). Respondent was provided with multiple scenarios in which each job scenario differed by only one of these features, while the other characteristics remained unchanged.

For instance, both jobs were first portrayed with a monthly salary of INR 30,000. However, for the job with a preferred characteristic (e.g. home-based job), the salary was progressively reduced by INR 1,500 in subsequent scenarios. Participants then had to choose between the INR 30,000 job and the job with the preferred feature but a reduced salary. If they opted for the latter, the next question presented an additional INR 1,500 deduction from that salary. This iterative process continued until the salary for the job with the desired trait reached INR 18,000 or until the participant chose the job without the preferred feature at the INR 30,000 pay scale.

Through this method, we determined the compensating wage - the amount a respondent was willing to sacrifice in salary to maintain a particular advantageous job characteristic. In essence, the compensating wage reflects the monetary value participants place on specific job characteristic. In Figure 4.29, the demand for compensating wages for the preferable aspects of various job characteristics is illustrated across two panels, Panel A and Panel B.

In Panel A, the compensating wages for preferable job characteristics across the entire sample are showcased. Work location emerges as the most significant factor, with respondents willing to forgo an average of INR 3106.06 for a favorable work location. This is followed by gender mix, where respondents are prepared to give up INR 1841.43 for an equal male-to-female ratio. The work timing, work hours per day, and pay frequency also show notable compensating wages of INR 850.20, INR 609.13, and INR 545.64, respectively.

Panel B, on the other hand, breaks down these preferences by gender. Observations indicate that both males and females hold the highest value for work location, but the exact compensating wage differs; men are willing to sacrifice INR 3822.21 while women are willing to give up INR 2325.08. For work timing, males seem ready to relinquish INR 764.22 and females INR 928.05. Interestingly, gender mix reveals a more pronounced difference with females valuing a balanced gender mix more (INR 2708.87) compared to males (INR 900.92). The differences continue with work hours and pay frequency, with both genders displaying distinct preferences. ${ }^{1}$

[^1]Figure 4.25: Salary perceptions across different job types


Note: Author's own calculation using 3418 baseline surveys across 131 clusters. Panel A comprises the complete sample, while Panel B demonstrates the distribution over gender. Book keeper: Book/accounts keeper in an establishment. Teacher: Teacher in primary school. Worker: Worker in garment factory. Data Entry: Data Entry Operator. Nurse: Hospital attendant or nurse.Electrician: Electrician or Fitter. The Y-axis indicates how much the perceived salary differs from the actual average salary, according to the Periodic Labour Force Survey 2020-21. The actual average salaries of jobs Book keeper, Teacher, Worker, Data Entry, Nurse, and Electrician stand at INR 22241.18, 20584.72, 6732.57, 19612.85, 20883.96, and 11598.30, respectively.

Figure 4.26: Work hours (per day) perceptions across different job types


Note: Author's own calculation using 3418 baseline surveys across 131 clusters. Panel A comprises the complete sample, while Panel B demonstrates the distribution over gender. Book keeper: Book/accounts keeper in an establishment. Teacher: Teacher in primary school. Worker: Worker in garment factory. Data Entry: Data Entry Operator. Nurse: Hospital attendant or nurse. Electrician: Electrician or Fitter. The Y-axis indicates how much the perceived work hours differ from the actual average work hours, according to the Periodic Labour Force Survey 2020-21. The actual average work hours in jobs Book keeper, Teacher, Worker, Data Entry, Nurse, and Electrician stand at 7.94, 6.48, 6.43, 7.91, 7.73, and 6.73, respectively.

Figure 4.27: Flexibility perceptions across different job types


Note: Author's own calculation using 3418 baseline surveys across 131 clusters. Panel A comprises the complete sample, while Panel B demonstrates the distribution over gender. Book keeper: Book/accounts keeper in an establishment. Teacher: Teacher in primary school. Worker: Worker in garment factory. Data Entry: Data Entry Operator. Nurse: Hospital attendant or nurse. Electrician: Electrician or Fitter. Higher the value of flexibility, higher is the perception of flexibility; with the value 1 being Not flexible, fixed 8 hours, 2, Somewhat flexible and 3 Completely flexible (can vary across days).

Figure 4.28: Work location perceptions across different job types


Note: Author's own calculation using 3418 baseline surveys across 131 clusters. Panel A comprises the complete sample, while Panel B demonstrates the distribution over gender. Book keeper: Book/accounts keeper in an establishment. Teacher: Teacher in primary school. Worker: Worker in garment factory. Data Entry: Data Entry Operator. Nurse: Hospital attendant or nurse. Electrician: Electrician or Fitter. Higher the value of flexibility, higher is the perception of flexibility; with the value 1 being Not flexible, 2, Somewhat flexible (can work remotely sometimes) and 3 Completely flexible (can work from any location always).

Figure 4.29: Demand of compensating wages for the preferable aspects of various job characteristics


Note: Author's own calculation using 3418 baseline surveys across 131 clusters. Panel A comprises the complete sample, while Panel B demonstrates the distribution over gender. Compensating wage: Amount of salary per month a respondent shows willingness to forgo to retain a specific desirable aspect of a job characteristics. The Y-axis shows the mean of compensating wage. The different characteristics of a job considered here are Work Location (Home based vs. Site based and 10 km away from home), Work Timing ( 9 am to 5 am job vs. Flexible hours), Gender Mix at workplace (Male:Female=50:50 vs. Male:Female=80:20), Work Hours per day ( 8 hours vs. 4 hours) and Pay Frequency (Monthly vs. Weekly) (Desirable aspects are in Bold font).

## 5 Conclusion

In this report we outline the findings from an in-person survey of over 3400 individuals in the 18-40 age group, across 6 districts of Delhi between May and August 2023. The objective of the survey was to understand the job search behavior of the urban youth, overall and by gender.

We find that traditional modes of job search predominate for both men and women. However, more than half of the sample has used online modes of job search at some point. Lack of good job vacancies and trust in jobs posted on digital platforms are the main factors which adversely impact the usage of these platforms.

Job search platforms need to engage more employers on their platform to increase job opportunities available through this mode. At the same time, verification and rating of employers may help in engendering trust in the platforms.

## 6 Acknowledgements

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## A Appendix - Additional Figures and Tables

Figure A.1: Information on salary perceptions across different job types by age group


Note: Refer to footnote of Figure 4.25.

Figure A.2: Information on salary perceptions across different job types by work experience


Note: Refer to footnote of Figure 4.25 .

Figure A.3: Information on salary perceptions across different job types by educational background


Note: Refer to footnote of Figure 4.25.

Figure A.4: Information on salary perceptions across different job types by current job search status


Figure A.5: Information on work hour (per day) perceptions across different job types by age group


Note: Refer to footnote of Figure 4.26.

Figure A.6: Information on work hour (per day) perceptions across different job types by work experience


Note: Refer to footnote of Figure 4.26.
Figure A.7: Information on work hour (per day) perceptions across different job types by educational background


Note: Refer to footnote of Figure 4.26.

Figure A.8: Information on work hour (per day) perceptions across different job types by current job search status


Figure A．9：Sample question on compensating wage

| Attributes | Job／नौकरी 1 | Job／नौकरी 2 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Monthly earnings／ मात्तिक आय |  | $30,000 \mathrm{Rs}$ |
| Work location／ कार्घस्थल | Home－based／घर से | Site－based， 10 km away／ साइट－से， 10 किमी द्रर |
| Work timing／काम का समप | 9am to 5 pm | 9am to 5 pm |
| Geader mixat workplace／कार्यस्थल पर त्तिंग मिश्रण | 安审审寉完 <br> $80 \%$ men／पुरुष， $20 \%$ women／महिता |  <br> $80 \%$ men／पुरुष， $20 \%$ women／महिला |
| Work hours per day／ प्रति दिन काम की अवधि | 8 hours／घंटे | (HRs) <br> 8 hours／घंटे |
| Pay frequency／भुगतान की आवृत्ति | 30 <br> Monthly／महीने के | $30$ <br> Monthly／महीने के |

Note：A respondent was offered pairs of hypothetical job openings to elicit their preference（in terms of how much earnings they are willing to give up）for a specific job characteristics，e．g．home－based vs location－based work，keeping all other job features（earnings，timing，gender mix，work hours，pay frequency）．The monthly earnings of the hypothetical job with a preferred characteristics is decreased in subsequent iterations to INR 18,000 （Rs 1，500 in each iteration）．In the above figure，Job $1 \&$ Job 2 differ in terms of Work Location but are similar on all other characteristics．Similarly，each job characteristic was varied，e．g．，Work Timing（ 9 am to 5 am job vs．Flexible hours），Gender Mix at workplace （Male：Female $=\mathbf{5 0 : 5 0}$ vs．Male：Female＝80：20），Work Hours per day（8 hours vs． $\mathbf{4}$ hours）and Pay Frequency（Monthly vs．Weekly）to elicit respondent preferences for job flexibility，gender mix and earning schedule．

Table A.1: Correlation of respondent characteristics with job search behavior (ever searched)

|  | Ever searched for job |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | (1) | (2) | Female |  | Male |  |
|  |  |  | (3) | (4) | (5) | (6) |
| Demography |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Female | -0.039** | -0.136* | - | - | - | - |
| Age (in years) | 0.005** | 0.004 | 0.004 | 0.001 | 0.007 | 0.006 |
| Married | 0.054 | 0.1 | 0.058 | -0.06 | 0.021 | 0.194 |
| No. of children | -0.023 | -0.011 | -0.021 | -0.008 | -0.006 | -0.004 |
| Employed | $0.293 * * *$ | $0.252^{* * *}$ | 0.252*** | $0.220 * * *$ | $0.325^{* * *}$ | 0.450 *** |
| Unemployed | -0.004 | -0.025 | -0.018 | -0.071 | 0.021 | 0.179 |
| 12th Pass | 0.02 | 0.04 | 0.028 | 0.024 | 0.017 | 0.036 |
| Aspirations |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Join Govt Jobs | -0.089* | -0.227* | -0.103* | -0.188 | -0.021 | -0.453 |
| Start own business | -0.032 | -0.155 | -0.073 | -0.171 | 0.044 | -0.367 |
| Join private job | -0.058 | -0.17 | -0.089 | -0.166 | 0.007 | -0.41 |
| Become a professional | -0.096 | 0.005 | -0.095 | 0.011 | -0.06 | 0.036 |
| Work matches career vision | 0.031 | 0.034 | 0.031 | 0.018 | 0.021 | 0.06 |
| Preference (1-3) |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Monetary compensation | -0.024 | -0.049 | -0.032 | -0.05 | -0.028 | -0.214 |
| Non-Monetary compensation | -0.058** | -0.063 | -0.059 | -0.065 | -0.063* | -0.07 |
| Flexible work arrangement | -0.017 | -0.025 | -0.016 | 0.026 | -0.013 | -0.041 |
| Nature of work environment | 0.019 | 0.051 | 0.001 | -0.031 | 0.032 | 0.213* |
| Job location | 0.015 | -0.025 | 0.015 | 0.037 | 0.024 | -0.14 |
| Preference (Indicator) |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Salary or Wage | -0.019 | -0.041 | -0.013 | -0.094 | -0.035 | 0.12 |
| In-kind compensation | -0.044 | -0.161 | -0.091* | -0.213* | 0.004 | 0.019 |
| Workplace location | -0.029 | -0.003 | -0.011 | -0.023 | -0.057* | -0.047 |
| Working Hours | -0.006 | 0.062 | 0.031 | 0.074 | -0.036 | 0.046 |
| Safety at workplace | 0.04 | 0.039 | 0.046 | 0.038 | 0.042 | 0.167 |
| Gender mix at workplace | 0.006 | -0.035 | -0.014 | -0.022 | 0.034 | 0.048 |
| Gender of immediate supervisor | 0.052 | 0.168 | 0.035 | 0.072 | 0.065 | 0.461* |
| Pay frequency | -0.034 | -0.063 | -0.033 | -0.078 | -0.033 | 0.051 |
| Pay structure | -0.061* | -0.128 | -0.073* | -0.155 | -0.047 | -0.036 |
| Spouse Employed | - | 0.093 | - | 0.074 | - | 0.01 |
| Cluster Fixed Effect | Yes | Yes | Yes | Yes | Yes | Yes |
| R-squared | 0.243 | 0.293 | 0.239 | 0.361 | 0.302 | 0.519 |
| Observations | 3418 | 952 | 1783 | 644 | 1635 | 308 |

Note: Coefficients are estimated using the linear probability model. The dependent variable in all regressions is Ever searched for job, an indicator variable that takes value one if the participant has ever looked for a job; 0 otherwise. Columns (2), (4) \& (6) include data from participants who are married. $* * * p<0.01, * * p<0.05, * p<0.1$

Table A.2: Correlation of respondent characteristics with job search behavior (currently searching)

|  | Currently searching for Job |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | (1) | (2) | Female |  | Male |  |
|  |  |  | (3) | (4) | (5) | (6) |
| Demography |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Female | 0.062*** | 0.107 | - | - | - | - |
| Age (in years) | 0.008** | 0.007 | $0.015^{* * *}$ | 0.012* | 0.001 | -0.007 |
| Married | -0.085* | -0.085 | -0.111* | -0.107 | -0.026 | 0.036 |
| No. of children | -0.025 | -0.038 | -0.045* | -0.052 | -0.008 | 0.021 |
| Employed | -0.01 | 0.03 | 0.036 | 0.099 | -0.041 | -0.212 |
| Unemployed | $0.434^{* * *}$ | $0.461^{* * *}$ | 0.398*** | 0.409*** | $0.475^{* * *}$ | 0.347 |
| 12th Pass | $0.066^{* * *}$ | 0.053 | 0.070* | 0.063 | 0.061* | 0.056 |
| Aspirations |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Join Govt Jobs | 0.189*** | $0.366^{* * *}$ | 0.237*** | 0.289** | 0.113 | 0.48 |
| Start own business | $0.138^{* *}$ | 0.309** | $0.265^{* * *}$ | $0.317^{* *}$ | 0.026 | 0.309 |
| Join private job | $0.231^{* * *}$ | $0.356^{* * *}$ | $0.270^{* * *}$ | $0.300^{* *}$ | 0.176* | 0.438 |
| Become a professional | 0.149 | 0.409* | 0.319** | 0.525* | -0.199 | 0.072 |
| Work matches career vision | $-0.069^{* *}$ | -0.077 | -0.059 | -0.056 | -0.061 | -0.033 |
| Preference (1-3) |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Monetary compensation | 0.02 | -0.02 | -0.027 | -0.02 | 0.092* | 0.093 |
| Non-Monetary compensation | 0.027 | 0.043 | 0.024 | 0.016 | 0.024 | 0.097 |
| Flexible work arrangement | -0.002 | -0.005 | 0.004 | 0.013 | 0.018 | 0.025 |
| Nature of work environment | -0.018 | -0.035 | 0.012 | 0.04 | -0.05 | -0.101 |
| Job location | -0.041 | -0.03 | -0.037 | -0.065 | -0.066 | -0.098 |
| Preference (Indicator) |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Salary or Wage | 0.031 | -0.056 | 0.046 | -0.036 | 0.024 | -0.117 |
| In-kind compensation | 0.082 | -0.051 | 0.120* | -0.005 | 0.05 | -0.14 |
| Workplace location | -0.002 | -0.001 | 0 | -0.032 | 0.009 | 0.109 |
| Working Hours | -0.004 | -0.059 | -0.053 | -0.111 | 0.083 | -0.06 |
| Safety at workplace | 0.056* | 0.067 | 0.042 | 0.06 | 0.057 | 0.021 |
| Gender mix at workplace | 0.101* | 0.054 | 0.059 | 0.033 | 0.144 | -0.019 |
| Gender of immediate supervisor | 0.085 | -0.028 | 0.136 | 0.141 | 0.048 | -0.072 |
| Pay frequency | -0.006 | -0.022 | 0.019 | -0.064 | -0.077 | -0.02 |
| Pay structure | 0.021 | -0.052 | 0.051 | -0.102 | -0.058 | 0.064 |
| Spouse Employed | - | -0.002 | - | 0.089 | - | 0.06 |
| Cluster Fixed Effect |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| R-squared | 0.195 | 0.347 | 0.261 | 0.458 | 0.238 | 0.569 |
| Observations | 3418 | 952 | 1783 | 644 | 1635 | 308 |

Note: Coefficients are estimated using the linear probability model. The dependent variable in all regressions is Currently searching for job, an indicator variable that takes value one if the participant is currently looking for a job; 0 otherwise. Columns (2), (4) \& (6) include data from participants who are married. $* * * p<0.01, * * p<0.05, * p<0.1$

Table A.3: Correlation of respondent characteristics with job search behavior using online platform

|  | Searched for job using online platform |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | (1) | (2) | Female |  | Male |  |
|  |  |  | (3) | (4) | (5) | (6) |
| Demography |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Female | 0.012 | 0.039 | - | - | - | - |
| Age (in years) | 0.003 | -0.001 | 0.006 | 0.005 | 0 | -0.018 |
| Married | -0.076* | 0.109 | -0.081 | 0.035 | -0.037 | 0.305* |
| No. of children | $-0.053^{* * *}$ | -0.048* | -0.065** | -0.062* | -0.04 | -0.01 |
| Employed | $0.107^{* * *}$ | 0.134** | $0.132^{* * *}$ | 0.148* | 0.094** | 0.049 |
| Unemployed | 0.302*** | 0.324*** | $0.281^{* * *}$ | $0.357^{* * *}$ | 0.312*** | 0.25 |
| 12th Pass | 0.155*** | $0.171^{* * *}$ | 0.140 *** | $0.133^{* * *}$ | $0.167^{* * *}$ | 0.206* |
| Aspirations |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Join Govt Jobs | 0.122** | 0.17 | 0.133* | 0.071 | $0.164^{* *}$ | 0.185 |
| Start own business | 0.045 | 0.065 | 0.076 | -0.001 | 0.082 | 0.031 |
| Join private job | 0.133** | 0.151 | 0.126 | 0.094 | $0.203^{* * *}$ | 0.1 |
| Become a professional | 0.061 | -0.033 | 0.162 | -0.078 | -0.106 | -0.494 |
| Work matches career vision | -0.014 | 0.001 | -0.004 | 0.018 | -0.014 | 0.082 |
| Preference (1-3) |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Monetary compensation | -0.015 | -0.067 | -0.065 | -0.138 | 0.058 | 0.068 |
| Non-Monetary compensation | -0.011 | 0.056 | -0.007 | 0.049 | 0.001 | 0.103 |
| Flexible work arrangement | -0.013 | -0.01 | -0.004 | 0.007 | 0.001 | 0.052 |
| Nature of work environment | 0.01 | -0.03 | 0.041 | 0.034 | -0.022 | -0.108 |
| Job location | -0.054* | -0.071 | -0.066* | 0.004 | -0.056 | -0.252* |
| Preference (Indicator) |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Salary or Wage | 0.018 | -0.152* | 0.042 | -0.164* | -0.013 | -0.325 |
| In-kind compensation | 0.100* | -0.205* | 0.097 | -0.238* | 0.12 | -0.418 |
| Workplace location | -0.042 | 0.011 | 0.007 | 0.042 | -0.082* | 0.025 |
| Working Hours | 0.021 | 0.053 | 0.038 | 0.038 | 0.041 | 0.071 |
| Safety at workplace | 0.035 | 0.04 | 0.012 | 0.003 | 0.053 | 0.038 |
| Gender mix at workplace | 0.052 | 0.061 | 0.002 | 0.069 | 0.126 | 0.05 |
| Gender of immediate supervisor | 0.058 | 0.104 | 0.139 | 0.201 | -0.001 | -0.014 |
| Pay frequency | -0.026 | -0.034 | 0.016 | -0.058 | -0.073 | -0.039 |
| Pay structure | -0.001 | -0.111 | 0.024 | -0.138 | -0.018 | -0.08 |
| Spouse Employed | - | -0.015 | - | -0.002 | - | 0.114 |
| Cluster Fixed Effect | Yes | Yes | Yes | Yes | Yes | Yes |
| R-squared | 0.164 | 0.282 | 0.216 | 0.357 | 0.2 | 0.544 |
| Observations | 3418 | 952 | 1783 | 644 | 1635 | 308 |

Note: Coefficients are estimated using the linear probability model. The dependent variable in all regressions is Searched for job using online platform, an indicator variable that takes value one if the participant has ever searched for a job using an online platform; 0 otherwise. Columns (2), (4) \& (6) include data from participants who are married. $* * * p<0.01, * * p<0.05, * p<0.1$

Table A.4: Correlation of respondent characteristics with intent to search for job in future using online platform

|  | Use platform in future |  |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | (1) | (2) | Female |  | Male |  |
|  |  |  | (3) | (4) | (5) | (6) |
| Demography |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Female | -0.023 | 0.026 | - | - | - | - |
| Age (in years) | $-0.013^{* * *}$ | -0.004 | $-0.014^{* * *}$ | -0.005 | $-0.011^{* * *}$ | -0.005 |
| Married | -0.009 | -0.149 | -0.007 | 0.128 | 0.005 | -0.266 |
| No. of children | 0.023 | 0.014 | 0.022 | 0.012 | 0.014 | 0.015 |
| Employed | -0.214*** | $-0.136^{* * *}$ | -0.195*** | $-0.158^{* * *}$ | -0.237*** | -0.056 |
| Unemployed | $-0.226^{* * *}$ | $-0.166^{* * *}$ | $-0.204^{* * *}$ | $-0.172^{* * *}$ | $-0.273^{* * *}$ | -0.065 |
| 12th Pass | $-0.037^{* *}$ | 0.02 | -0.033 | 0.036 | -0.04 | 0.002 |
| Aspirations |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Join Govt Jobs | 0.028 | 0.167* | 0.016 | 0.247** | 0.016 | -0.119 |
| Start own business | -0.054 | 0.099 | -0.069 | 0.147 | -0.058 | -0.083 |
| Join private job | -0.056 | 0.126 | -0.059 | 0.173* | -0.063 | -0.09 |
| Become a professional | 0.023 | -0.031 | -0.09 | -0.086 | 0.221* | -0.039 |
| Work matches career vision | 0.064** | 0.013 | 0.046 | -0.002 | $0.076^{* *}$ | 0.012 |
| Preference (1-3) |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Monetary compensation | -0.008 | 0.002 | -0.004 | 0.022 | -0.013 | 0.044 |
| Non-Monetary compensation | 0.003 | 0.018 | -0.012 | 0.012 | 0.027 | 0.066 |
| Flexible work arrangement | 0.013 | -0.045 | 0.017 | -0.074 | 0.006 | -0.003 |
| Nature of work environment | -0.007 | -0.013 | -0.026 | -0.038 | 0.012 | -0.009 |
| Job location | -0.006 | 0.022 | -0.011 | 0.019 | 0.002 | 0.029 |
| Preference (Indicator) |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| Salary or Wage | -0.03 | 0.044 | -0.029 | 0.062 | -0.034 | 0.045 |
| In-kind compensation | -0.046 | 0.066 | -0.021 | 0.122 | -0.089 | 0.023 |
| Workplace location | 0.03 | 0.012 | 0.042 | 0.024 | 0.012 | -0.044 |
| Working Hours | 0.017 | -0.017 | 0.019 | -0.007 | -0.002 | -0.03 |
| Safety at workplace | 0.017 | 0.048 | 0.011 | 0.06 | 0.029 | -0.056 |
| Gender mix at workplace | 0.003 | 0.084 | 0.016 | 0.078 | -0.012 | 0.077 |
| Gender of immediate supervisor | 0.019 | 0.078 | -0.024 | -0.018 | 0.045 | 0.026 |
| Pay frequency | -0.011 | 0.031 | -0.048 | 0.095 | 0.042 | 0.075 |
| Pay structure | 0.001 | 0.081 | -0.036 | 0.141 | 0.041 | 0.099 |
| Spouse Employed | - | -0.005 | - | -0.063 | - | 0.036 |
| Cluster Fixed Effect | Yes | Yes | Yes | Yes | Yes | Yes |
| R-squared | 0.22 | 0.25 | 0.226 | 0.302 | 0.308 | 0.474 |
| Observations | 3418 | 952 | 1783 | 644 | 1635 | 308 |

Note: Coefficients are estimated using the linear probability model. The dependent variable in all regressions is Use platform in future, an indicator variable that takes value one if the participant intends to search for a job in the future using an online platform; 0 otherwise. Columns (2), (4) \& (6) include data from participants who are married. $* * * p<0.01, * * p<0.05, * p<0.1$
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[^0]:    Note: Author's own calculation using 3418 baseline surveys across 131 clusters. Panel A comprises the complete sample, while Panel B shows data by gender.

[^1]:    ${ }^{1}$ For additional data on job perceptions see Appendix Figures A. 1 - A. 8 .

