Quota vs Quality? Long-Term Gains from an Unusual Gender Quota

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April 2022

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Abstract

We evaluate equity-efficiency trade-offs from admission quotas by examining effects on output once beneficiaries start producing in the relevant industry. In particular, we document the impact of abolishing a 40% quota for male primary school teachers in Finland on their pupils' long run outcomes. The quota had advantaged academically lower-scoring male university applicants, and its removal cut the share of men among new teachers by half. We combine this reform with the timing of union-mandated teacher retirements to isolate quasi-random variation in the local share of male quota teachers. Using comprehensive register data, we find that pupils exposed to a higher share of male quota teachers during primary school have higher educational attainment and labor force participation at age 25. Pupils of both genders benefit similarly from exposure to male quota teachers. Our findings are consistent with the quota improving the allocation of talent over the unconstrained selection process.

We are grateful to David Yanagizawa-Drott, Joachim Voth, Claudia Goldin and Ulf Zölitz for their guidance throughout this project. We thank Sara Bagagli, Anne Sofie Beck Knudsen, Augustin Bergeron, Anne Brenøe, Lorenzo Casaburi, Ana Costa-Ramón, Alessandro Ferrari, Matteo Greco, David Hémous, Andrea Hofer, Kristiina Huttunnen, Daniel Kopp, Mika Kortelainen, Ross Mattheis, Morten Olsen, Claude Raisaro, Heather Sarsons, and Hanna Virtanen for helpful comments and suggestions. We thank Topias Jalo and his colleagues at Statistics Finland, as well as the administrative staff at the Universities of Tampere and Zurich for their support. We gratefully acknowledge financial support from the Yrjö Jahnsson foundation.

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1 Introduction

Are affirmative action policies, such as quotas, costly for economic efficiency? On one hand, when quotas in educational institutions and workplaces are binding, they require these organizations to "lower the bar" by admitting applicants who would have been rejected otherwise. As quotas force a decision maker to deviate from her preferred ranking of candidates, the overall quality of successful applicants may be lower (Welch, 1976; Lundberg and Startz, 1983; Arcidiacono and Lovenheim, 2016). Cast in this light, affirmative action policies achieve a distributional goal only at the cost of lower productivity.

In contrast to this reasoning, affirmative action policies may raise economic efficiency when evening out differences that arise from unequal opportunities that are unrelated to inherent potential ability (Hsieh et al., 2019; Coate and Loury, 1993; Becker, 1957).

Even in the absence of explicit discriminatory barriers, differential treatment of underrepresented groups can be desirable when selection processes operate under imperfect knowledge of candidates' potential abilities (Holzer and Neumark, 2000). This is the case in settings in which multiple dimensions of skill determine output, but selection criteria are limited to specific subsets of cognitive scores (Heckman et al., 2006; Deming, 2017; Bell et al., 2019; Siniscalchi and Veronesi, 2021). A similar reasoning applies to environments in which complementarities between groups materialize in production, such that diversity itself augments productivity. Taken together, these countervailing forces indicate that whether a representation quota is costly or output-enhancing is ultimately an empirical question whose answer depends on the specifics of the setting.

In this paper, we document that a quota - beyond merely achieving a representational goal - raised efficiency in the relevant industry by correcting a mis-allocation of talent. Leveraging a unique policy reform in Finland, we trace out how a quota-induced shift in the gender composition of an entire occupation affects output in the long run. We study how the termination of a quota for male primary school teachers influenced pupils' educational pathways and subsequent labor force attachment. Specifically, this quota had reserved 40% of slots in admissions for primary school teacher studies at Finnish universities for male applicants, advantaging academically lower-scoring male candidates. The removal of the quota resulted in a sharp drop in the share of men among admits to primary school teacher studies from about 40% to 20% (Uusiautti and Määttä, 2013; Räihä, 2010).

Our identification strategy isolates exogenous variation in pupils' exposure to male quota teachers with a differences-in-differences instrumental variables (DiD-IV) framework: To instrument for the local teacher gender composition that pupils experience in primary school, we use the lifting of the quota together with the timing of local demand shocks for new teachers. These demand shocks arise from local teachers reaching the union-mandated teacher retirement age when turning 60. The first stage employs a DiD specification that compares municipalities with and without retirements across the quota and post-quota period. Intuitively, municipalities in which teachers turn 60 while the quota is still in place will hire new teachers from a rookie teacher market with quota men, compared to municipalities whose teachers turn 60 just after the quota was abolished.[1] The exclusion restriction requires that teacher retirements in the post-quota period do not differentially impact pupil outcomes except via changing the teacher gender composition. Our empirical strategy addresses this by comparing pupils who experience similar exposure to new teachers via retirements, but face a different gender composition of those rookie teachers due to the lifting of the quota.

We start by outlining a simple conceptual framework of university admissions that derives conditions under which a representation quota results in lower or higher total ability of admitted candidates. When the selection criterion fully reflects candidate ability, introducing a binding quota comes at the cost of admitting less qualified candidates. In contrast, there may be efficiency gains from a quota when the selection criterion is negatively correlated with minority group status and insufficiently captures the potential ability of candidates: This can be the case both when the mapping between the selection criterion and ability differs across groups, and when there are complementarities in production between groups. Embedding same-identity role model effects within this framework, we derive testable predictions for our specific setting.

We then turn to examine the efficiency effects of the quota empirically. First, we document how the lifting of the quota affected the local gender composition of teachers at the municipal level: Once the primary teacher cohorts that studied without the quota graduate and enter the market for rookie teachers in 1994, each retiring teacher is 20 percentage points less likely to be replaced with a male teacher relative to the quota period. These changes in the local teacher gender composition are accompanied by small, albeit noisily measured, increases in local teachers' average academic scores – consistent with the notion that lower scoring men are no longer admitted to primary teacher studies once the quota is abolished.

We proceed to study how these changes affect pupils, using comprehensive register data from 1988 to 2018 to trace out pupils' education and labor market pathways until age 25. Using the timing of teacher age-based retirements as an instrument for the local teacher gender composition, we show that pupils exposed to a higher share of male teachers via the quota have higher educational attainment and labor force attachment in the long run: At age 25, these pupils are .09 standard deviations (SD) more likely to be a student or actively participating in the labor market for a 1 SD increase in the share of male quota teachers.[2] In terms of educational attainment, we observe a shift towards higher qualifications throughout the educational attainment distribution: For practically-oriented vocational degrees, pupils are more likely to have additional advanced qualifications instead of a basic three-year degree. For academic tracks, pupils are more likely to have obtained a university level BA degree by age 25.

To better understand from where these differences in long-term outcomes originate, we use rich register data to closely track pupils' educational trajectory after finishing compulsory schooling. We use records from the nationally-organized allocation of education slots after compulsory schooling, for which pupils can put in up to five preferred institution choices. We find that male

[1] We label as "quota men" those male teachers who were only able to enter primary teachers studies because the quota was in place and would not have gotten admitted otherwise. Throughout the paper, we refer to teachers turning 60 as "retirement".

[2] 1 SD in the share of male (quota) teachers corresponds to 6.5 percentage points. The average within-municipality change in the share of male teachers over our study period is 5 percentage points.

quota teachers have important effects at this pivotal moment: Pupils exposed to a higher share of male quota teachers are more likely to directly apply to continued education. As pupils' applications are more aligned with attainable options, they are more likely to obtain one of their top two choices. These patterns translate into higher enrollment rates in post-compulsory education at age 16.

A central question that arises from our results is through which channels quota men – relative to marginal female teachers pushed out by the quota – make a difference. First, via a same-gender role model mechanism, male quota teachers could raise specifically boys' academic aspirations and achievement. However, adding more male role models for boys implies that girls loose female examples to aspire to, potentially making them worse off. Examining results by pupil gender, we can rule out that girls are negatively impacted by the quota policy. Further, we do not find evidence for a role model channel that would purely operate through male teachers setting an example for boys via same-gender identity: Boys' educational outcomes are not more affected from exposure to male quota teachers relative to girls', and none of the other main effects differ systematically by pupil gender.

Second, quota men could inspire pupils to pursue different educational fields. Our estimates indicate that pupils move away from more gender-neutral education choices and become more likely to choose a STEM (Science, Technology, Engineering, and Mathematics) field. We also examine whether exposure to more male quota teachers inspires boys to take up education-related fields themselves, but do not find that pupils of either gender would be more likely to pick such fields by age 25.

Third, complementarities between male and female teachers (i.e. by specializing according to comparative advantage) could result in better outcomes for all pupils. The Finnish primary school system is characterized by extensive collaboration between teacher colleagues, both in school-wide curricula design and preparation of classes, as well as in actual teaching (Sahlberg, 2021). We probe for complementarities between male and female teachers by estimating separate effects depending on the initial gender composition of the local teacher team. The benefits of adding an additional male teacher are similar in magnitude between places with few male teachers and places where the share of men among colleagues is already high. However, a lack of precision prevents us from fully disentangling whether effects arise from inherent ability of male quota teachers or from complementarities in team production.

We posit that the evidence in our setting is consistent with male quota teachers contributing positive qualities to school environments that are not sufficiently captured by the selection criteria in absence of the quota. We document that the first order effects of the misalignment between these criteria and male quota teachers' positive impacts on the job dwarf any same-gender role model effects. While the quota thus neither closed educational attainment gaps between boy and girl pupils, nor mitigated the gender-segregation of teaching fields in the long term, it succeeded in selecting male teachers that produced better outcomes for pupils.

This study makes two main contributions. First, by examining the output effects of an admissions quota, we expand on recent work that has documented similar sized benefits from access to selective colleges for marginal admits under affirmative action relative to marginal candidates pushed out (Bleemer, 2021a; Black et al., 2020; Otero et al., 2021). Empirical evidence on how quotas impact output-related measures has almost exclusively focused on mandated representation of women in board rooms, documenting negative or neutral effects on firm performance in the short run (Ahern and Dittmar, 2012; Matsa and Miller, 2013; Eckbo et al., 2021; Ferrari et al., 2021).[3] We contribute to this body of work by cleanly documenting that a quota – applied at university entry – can have positive effects that extend beyond its direct beneficiaries, such that the policy improved output in the relevant sector in the long run. Our results also highlight a broader point: Selection of candidates based on academic scores and interviews, among the most widely used methods to assess applicants, can miss out on important dimensions of talent.

Second, by shedding light on the channels through which male quota teachers matter, we contribute to the literature on role model effects in education. Several studies have provided evidence that being matched with a same-identity teacher can affect academic performance (Gershenson et al., 2022; Dee, 2007; Antecol et al., 2015; Lim and Meer, 2017; Carrell et al., 2010). Work on targeted role model interventions has documented positive effects for female minority students in male-dominated fields (Porter and Serra, 2019; Breda et al., 2018; Kofoed et al., 2019). In contrast to reallocating a fixed set of teachers across pupils, we examine whether same-identity role model channels are at play when changing the composition of primary school teachers via a quota. This allows us to better understand whether policies that aim to recruit more men to become teachers are an effective tool to mitigate gendered academic achievement gaps. Further, we evaluate a quota's general potential to change the gender-segregation of occupations for future generations, as we can track whether exposure to male teachers makes boys more likely to pick an education-related occupation themselves.

Documenting how trade-offs related to equitable representation targets materialize by assessing their effects on productivity is important – especially so at a time at which affirmative action policies are under scrutiny. While many countries around the world are aiming to further diversify occupation categories (UN, 2019; Long, 2019), there is also significant push back in other settings. Universities in the United States and elsewhere are facing increasing judicial challenges for admission policies that embrace broader measures of academic preparedness (Leman, 2021; Dhume, 2019). Our results suggest that carefully considering the correlates of ability and minority group status in selection processes provides a promising avenue to increase both equitable representation and economic efficiency.

[3] Peck (2017) and Cortés et al. (2021) document negative effects on performance of a policy that required firms to hire native workers in Saudi Arabia. Several papers have studied quotas for female politicians, but do not take a stance on whether this impacts output (Chattopadhyay and Duflo, 2004; Beaman et al., 2009; Besley et al., 2017; Baltrunaite et al., 2014; Bagues and Campa, 2021). Chattopadhyay and Duflo (2004) specifically highlight that it is through the characteristic of being female herself that a political leader's preferences in India are more closely aligned with female constituents, thus moving the status quo of policies to more closely reflect preferences of the median voter.

2 Context

2.1 Primary school teachers in Finland

Finland has been among the top scoring countries for multiple rounds of international student assessments, leading to considerable international attention paired with efforts to adopt best practices from the Finnish education and teacher training system (Malinen et al., 2012; Niemi et al., 2016). Finland prides itself in having an equitable school system that aims at equalizing opportunities (Sahlberg, 2021).

Due to being one of the most competitive degrees in university admissions, primary school teachers enjoy high social status (Finnish National Agency for Education, 2018). While salaries are on par with OECD average, active teaching hours are comparatively low (Sahlberg, 2021). Primary school teachers are municipal employees who are hired by local schools, and are part of a powerful teacher union that fixes both salary schedules, and – for the relevant period in this study – a retirement age of 60 in collective bargaining agreements (Kivinen and Rinne, 1994; Valtiokonttori, 1988). A national curriculum outlines broad learning goals. Under the supervision of municipal education authorities, teachers within and across schools collaborate in designing detailed learning plans (Sahlberg, 2021; Sahlberg et al., 2019).

In contrast to the United States, primary school teachers may spend several years with one cohort of pupils as their main classroom teacher covering all subjects. However, primary school teachers are also actively embedded in their work environment through extensive collaboration with their colleagues, both in curriculum design, preparing lessons and school wide activities, as well as in active teaching (Sahlberg, 2021).Pupils in our setting are thus experiencing and interacting regularly with the teacher body of their entire school. Conducting the analysis at the municipal level takes into account any spill-overs that arise from teachers collaborating within and across schools.[4]

2.2 Primary school teacher training and the quota reform

2.2.1 Historical context

The first teacher training institutes in Finland were founded in the mid-1800s, and offered training separate by gender. In 1881, new education decrees allowed for co-education for children attending municipal primary schools as long as sufficient instruction in handicrafts could be guaranteed, de facto leading to "differentiation between male and female elementary school teachers and a quota system in teacher training" (Sysiharju, 1987). While the number of primary school teachers in the first half of the twentieth century ballooned from 6,800 to 25,000, the share of male primary teachers remained stable at 41% (Sysiharju, 1987).

In the context of educational reforms in the 1970s, primary teacher education was transferred to universities and elevated to a master's level degree (Niemi et al., 2016). With an acceptance rate fluctuating around 10%, primary school teaching has been and still is among the most competitive degrees in the country and applicants often apply multiple years in a row until they

[4]The median population size of the 461 municipalities in our sample is 5000 inhabitants. See also section 4.

are successfully admitted (Tirri, 2014; Uusiautti and Määttä, 2013).

Admissions throughout our study period closely followed the main principles established in those reforms, including that "the Ministry of Education maintained the sex quota system for the training of classroom teachers" (Sysiharju, 1987): In a first step, applicants were ranked in a centralized system according to a score that mainly considered candidates' grades in the matriculation exam (the nationally graded high school exit exam) with a few additional points given for candidates' extra-curricular activities. The highest ranked candidates were invited to an in-person second round (Uusiautti, Määttä, et al., 2013). In this second step of the selection process, candidates' teaching qualities were evaluated independently by a faculty board through an extensive host of exercises, including teaching in front of real pupils, a pedagogical analysis of this practice lesson, and in-depth interviews (Räihä, 2010; Uusiautti, Määttä, et al., 2013). The highest ranked candidates in the second step were admitted to study primary teacher education according to the number of available study slots. Within this process, the Ministry of Education jointly with the education departments ensured that around 40% of candidates invited to the second round were men (Liimatainen, 2002). Documentary evidence on how strongly the universities were constrained in their final admission decisions for the decentralized second round is somewhat inconclusive (Räihä, 2010; Liimatainen, 2002). However, aggregate statistics imply that the general gender guidelines issued by the Ministry resulted in the desired gender mix of primary teachers: About 40% of active primary school teachers in the country were male until the mid-1980s (Sysiharju, 1987).[5]

The quota was abolished for the cohort applying to university in the fall of 1989 (thus graduating from primary school teacher studies in 1994), as it was not in compliance with a broad anti-discrimination law passed by parliament in 1987 (Tasa-Arvovaltuutetu, 1987). Since its lifting, politicians and the general public have repeatedly argued for the quota's reinstatement, motivated by the fact that boys are increasingly lagging behind academically and that a growing number of children raised by single mothers may lack a father figure (Etelä Suomen Sanomat, 1988; Liiten, 2012).

2.2.2 Summary statistics on admissions and teacher characteristics

Using aggregate statistics issued by the Ministry of Education, Figure 1 shows the share of men among those applying to primary teacher studies, and among those being invited to the second round of the selection process. While there is a sharp drop from 40% to 20% for second round invitees in 1989, the share of men who apply evolves smoothly around the time of the reform.[6]

[5]It is difficult to find statistics on pass rates and scores for the decentralized second step of the selection process for this time period. Uusiautti and Määttä (2013) cite a statistic from the University of Lapland in 1978, where about three applicants were invited per available study slot. In light of the quota expiring, a working group of the Ministry of Education recommended universities to invite at least four candidates per available study slot to the second round to ensure enough diversity among selected teachers in absence of the quota (Etelä Suomen Sanomat, 1988). Mankki et al. (2020) examine scores received in the second step of the selection process in more recent years (after the quota), and show that male candidates receive higher scores than women.

[6]We can only assess whether the quota was binding in this indirect way. While the lifting of the quota was widely discussed in policy and media reports at the time, we have found no documentary evidence that either application numbers (see Appendix Figure A1) or the composition of applicants would have drastically changed with the lifting of the quota. Figure 2 shows no unexpected discontinuity in the test scores of those admitted post-quota.

While final admits to primary teacher studies were not recorded, using proxy measures in the register data, we observe an approximately 15 percentage point drop in the share of men among primary school teacher graduates in Figure A2.[7]

As the quota did not only change the gender composition of incoming teachers but also advantaged academically lower scoring men, Figure 2 plots future teachers' national percentile rank in the matriculation exam for the first attempt of the exam, against the last year in which they ever took this exam.[8] While the quota was in place, men on average scored about 10 percentiles lower. Once the quota was lifted, the average score among male teachers increased a bit, consistent with universities no longer admitting relatively lower scoring male applicants. We will return both to the changes in primary teacher gender composition and academic scores more formally in section 6.1.

Teacher gender in our setting is correlated with a bundle of other characteristics that may matter for teaching. Table 1 presents summary statistics on male and female teachers who are active in the profession before the lifting of the quota (i.e. before 1994 as the year in which the first non-quota cohort graduates from teacher studies), and thereafter. In Panel A, we can observe that male teachers are more likely to come from rural areas and to live in their region and municipality of birth when compared to female teachers, but differences are small. Regarding educational trajectories in Panel B, there is no difference in having obtained a high school degree and being a certified teacher.[9] In Panel C, statistics on the matriculation exam show no difference in having passed the exam, but again illustrate that male teachers have significantly lower scores, even when considering the best exam take for repeated attempts. High school students had some flexibility to choose either mathematics or a combination of other natural and social sciences ("Reaali") in the matriculation exam. Male teachers are about 9 percentage points more likely to have taken the mathematics exam compared to female teachers, and 10 percentage points more likely to have chosen advanced level mathematics rather than the basic level exam.[10]

3 Conceptual framework

This section develops a conceptual framework assessing the trade-offs between teacher quality and gender representation. In our setting, the admissions office is the decision maker who would

[7]Figure A2 plots the share of men against the year of their *last* attempt at the matriculation exam that qualifies students for university studies. The register data does not contain the year of admission to university. Since students can repeat the matriculation exam if they want to increase their score, the year in which they last took the exam serves as the closest proxy for when they start university studies: Anyone taking the exam in and after 1989 will with certainty have studied under the non-quota application regime. Notice that the gradual drop before 1989 is consistent with a setting in which students apply multiple years in a row.

[8]We use the average national percentile score across all subjects for the *first* time that future teachers took the exam in order to get at a measure of inherent ability that is not influenced by repeated test taking. We plot this percentile rank against the date of their *last* exam to most closely approximate the point of entry to university studies. See also Appendix B (Figure A3) for the distribution of percentile ranks. When considering the full population of first time exam takers in the country, men score about 2 percentile points lower compared to women.

[9]Male teachers on average a year older when being awarded their teaching degree, likely due to mandatory military service for men.

[10]Each exam field and level of difficulty is graded on a curve within that group. Appendix B (Table A1) shows additional summary statistics for each matriculation exam field.

like to maximize future teacher ability. However, true teacher ability is unobserved by the admissions office so that it selects candidates based on scores.[11] We outline how a quota's effect on total candidate quality depends on the interplay between scores as the selection criterion and teacher ability: We first examine a benchmark case in which scores fully reflect teaching ability, such that a quota is costly. We then proceed to examine two cases in which the mapping of scores into ability is imperfect, such that a quota has the potential to be efficiency enhancing: We discuss a case where the mapping of scores is group-specific, and a case in which there exist complementarities in production between teachers of different genders. Finally, we embed same-identity role-model effects and show how a quota has differential impacts by pupil gender. We summarize these theoretical points by deriving testable predictions for the empirical part.

3.1 Set-up

Consider an admissions office that seeks to select a fixed mass of candidates C from a pool of applicants by considering their scores, s. Candidates belong to one of two groups j, with $j \in \{M, F\}$ for Male and Female, and are heterogeneous with respect to their score. Scores are defined on $[\underline{s}, \bar{s}]$, the density of scores $h_j(s)$ is twice continuously differentiable, and we assume full support, $h_j(s) > 0$ on the relevant interval. We assume that the distribution of scores of the M group is first order stochastically dominated by the distribution of F scores to reflect the empirical fact that male applicants tend to have lower scores in our setting:

$$H_F(s) \leq H_M(s)$$

for all s, with strict inequality whenever $H_M > 0$ and $H_F < 1$. The mass of candidates of each group that is admitted above a cutoff score s^* is given by $M = \int_{s^*}^{\bar{s}} h_M(s)ds = 1 - H_M(s^*)$ and $F = \int_{s^*}^{\bar{s}} h_F(s)ds = 1 - H_F(s^*)$.

We further introduce a measure of candidates' teaching ability, a, that we will return to in more detail in iterations below. We define a welfare function W as the total teaching ability of admitted candidates for a given ability threshold, a^*:

$$W(a^*) = \int_{a^*}^{\bar{a}} a\, h_M(a)da + \int_{a^*}^{\bar{a}} a\, h_F(a)da \tag{1}$$

In our setting, the admissions office's aim is to pick the highest ability teachers, but since it can not observe a or is perhaps restricted to only consider s, it has to rely on candidates' scores as a proxy for ability.

Admissions without quota: The admissions office picks a threshold score s_j^* above which all

[11] Without loss of generality, we make a simplification in the model relative to the actual selection process in our setting: We only look at a one-stage selection process based on scores (that can be any combination of academic score and evaluator score) to illustrate the main forces at play.

candidates are admitted subject to a capacity constraint:[12]

$$\max_{s_M, s_F} \int_{s_M}^{\bar{s}} s\, h_M(s) ds + \int_{s_F}^{\bar{s}} s\, h_F(s) ds \tag{2}$$

$$s.t.\ \ M + F = C$$

When maximizing total scores of admits, the optimal cutoff s_j^* is the same for both groups: $s_M^* = s_F^* = s^*$, resulting in the mass of admitted women outnumbering admitted men due to first order stochastic dominance.

Admissions with quota: Suppose we now introduce a quota rule that adds an additional constraint to the admissions office's optimization by requiring that at least mass q of students from group M be admitted. The admissions office then solves the problem in equation 2 with the additional constraint:

$$s.t.\ \ M \geq q \tag{3}$$

When the quota constraint is binding, the admission cut-offs between groups diverge and the admissions office chooses optimal cutoffs that are group-specific:

$$s_M^*(q) = s_F^*(q) - \delta \tag{4}$$

where δ is the Lagrange multiplier of the quota constraint and indicates the shadow price of admitting a male candidate at the margin. The following iterations of the model briefly discuss how total teaching ability evaluated by W changes for different mappings of scores s into teaching ability a, by comparing picks based on scores to admissions under full information.

3.2 Candidate choice when scores fully reflect ability

We start by evaluating a benchmark case: Scores fully reflect teaching ability, so that

$$a = s$$

In this case, requiring the admissions office via a quota to admit more men relative to the unconstrained optimization in equation 2 will result in total teaching ability of admits being lower under a quota: $W(s^*(q)) < W(s^*)$. This illustrates one of the main concerns frequently brought forward against quota rules: Requiring the admissions office to forgo its preferred allocation of slots will lower total candidate quality, as the ability of additional men admitted due to the

[12]The admissions office's problem here is similar to Chan and Eyster (2003), who make the theoretical point that forbidding universities whose utility function contains an exogenous preference parameter for diversity from using race as a selection criteria will result in lower quality of admits. This results from the optimal admissions rule under race-blind admissions consisting in randomly selecting applicants above a lower cut-off score, whereas color-sighted admissions select the best scoring candidates within each group (see also Ray and Sethi, 2010). Ellison and Pathak (2021) bring the reasoning of Chan and Eyster (2003) to the data to evaluate the efficiency of a place-based affirmative action rule in two Chicago Public Schools. Instead of assuming a preference parameter for diversity, their model defines students' outcomes as a trade-off between an optimal level of school diversity and academic match. Our set-up does not assume a taste parameter for diversity.

quota is less than the ability of women who must be rejected to satisfy the quota.[13]

3.3 Group-specific mapping of scores into ability

Consider now a case in which the association between scores and teaching ability is group-specific:

$$a = s + \alpha \mathbb{1}_M$$

with $\alpha > 0$, $\mathbb{1}_M$ an indicator function that denotes membership in group M, and density ρ such that $\rho(s + \alpha \mathbb{1}_M) = h(s)$. For any given teaching ability level a, the score of members of the M group is reduced by a penalty parameter α.[14] In such a world, switching out a marginal female with a marginal male teacher who has the same score increases total teacher ability.

Full information: When evaluating total teaching ability of admits under full information, W takes into account men's true ability. Substituting for a with the above relation, the optimization problem when fully observing teacher ability becomes:

$$\max_{s_M, s_F} \int_{s_M}^{\bar{s}} (s + \alpha)\rho_M(s + \alpha)ds + \int_{s_F}^{\bar{s}} s\rho_F(s)ds \tag{6}$$

$$s.t. \;\; M + F = C$$

The first order conditions under full information (FI) imply that the optimal cutoff scores in this case are such that:

$$s_M^{FI} = s_F^{FI} - \alpha$$

The marginal male admit here has a strictly lower score than the marginal female admit and the optimal allocation of slots fully takes into account that M group members' scores suffer a test score penalty α for any given ability level a.

Admissions Office: In contrast, the admissions office continues to select candidates based on scores alone (equation 2): $s_M^* = s_F^* = s^*$. In this case, it is the lack of differential score thresholds that is costly as the admissions office does not take into account men's score penalty, and $W(s^*) < W(s^{FI})$.

With a quota rule, the admissions office chooses $s_M^*(q) = s_F^*(q) - \delta$. The wedge between marginal male and female admission scores grows with the mass of male candidates required by the quota, and achieves the optimum under full information when the quota is set such that $\delta = \alpha$. This illustrates that the admissions office deviates further from the optimum under full information both when a quota under- as well as when it over-corrects for differences in scores: Total teaching ability will steadily decline with the mass of men required by the quota rule once

[13] I.e.

$$\int_{s_M^*(q)}^{s^*} s\, h_M(s)ds < \int_{s^*}^{s_F^*(q)} s\, h_F(s)ds \tag{5}$$

[14] Note that richer models deliver a penalty parameter of this form. For example, when scores are a differentially noisy signal of ability for different groups, the conditional expectation of ability given score may take this form (Phelps, 1972; Aigner and Cain, 1977).

$\delta > \alpha$, and will eventually yield an outcome worse than $W(s^*)$.

3.4 Candidate choice with complementarities

Even when scores fully reflect individual teacher ability, the existence of complementarities between M and F teachers can motivate differential treatment by group status. If the gains in total teacher ability from complementarities outweigh the costs in terms of individual scores, switching out marginal female with marginal male teachers will increase overall teacher quality, but with decreasing marginal returns. This could be the case if, for example, pupils are more motivated when exposed to same-gender teachers, or when diverse teams of male and female teachers perform better when designing school curricula.

We return to the assumption in the benchmark case that scores perfectly map into ability, $s = a$. We introduce complementarity in teaching ability with a production function V that exhibits positive cross-derivatives, and treats M and F candidates symmetrically:[15]

$$V = \sqrt{L_M L_F}$$

with $L_M = \int_{s_M}^{\bar{s}} s\, h_M(s)ds$ and $L_F = \int_{s_F}^{\bar{s}} s\, h_F(s)ds$ as total teacher ability for group M and F respectively. Under full information of V, the optimum equates the relative test score thresholds to the relative total ability of admitted candidates:

$$\frac{s_M^{FI}}{s_F^{FI}} = \frac{L_M}{L_F}$$

For a common threshold score $s_M^{FI} = s_F^{FI}$, it has to be that $L_M = L_F$, which is inconsistent with the assumption that $H_F(s)$ first order stochastically dominates $H_M(s)$ with strict inequality. The threshold for M must be lower, so that in the optimal allocation, $s_M^{FI} < s_F^{FI}$.

3.5 Same-gender role model effects

An interesting point to consider within this framework is how a quota would affect welfare separately by pupil gender due to the presence of same-gender role-model effects. To do so, we define total welfare as the sum of welfare for boy and girl pupils, and by adding a same-gender role-model constant r to teaching ability. Consider two groups of pupils with $p \in [b, g]$ where b stands for boy and g for girl pupils. We define teaching ability separately by pupil gender p:

$$a_p = s + r_p\, \mathbb{1}_{p=j}$$

with r_p a constant role model effect that depends on pupil gender and switches on whenever pupil and teacher gender coincide. In addition, we define W as consisting of total teaching ability for boys and girls. Substituting with the above equation for teaching ability and assuming equal

[15] We focus here on homogeneity of degree 1, which implies that double the amount of teachers can teach double the amount of pupils, but any degree of homogeneity larger than zero yields the same conclusions

shares of boy and girl pupils, we get:

$$W = \frac{1}{2}W_b + \frac{1}{2}W_g = \int_{s_M}^{\bar{s}} s\, h_M(s)ds + \int_{s_F}^{\bar{s}} sh_F(s)ds + \frac{1}{2}\, r\, M + \frac{1}{2}\, r\, F \tag{7}$$

Full information: Under full information, optimal cut-off scores at university admissions are:

$$s_M^{FI} = s_F^{FI} + \frac{1}{2}(r_g - r_b)$$

The relative magnitudes of r_g and r_b will determine the overall effect of a binding quota for male applicants. Irrespective of the overall effect, the impact of a quota will differ between boy and girl pupils: For girls, W_g declines both because of a decrease in teacher scores s and from loosing r_g for every female teacher being switched out with a male teacher. W_b instead experiences some gains from r_b. The impact of a quota that increases the number of male teachers at the expense of female teachers will thus always be less positive (or more negative) for girl pupils relative to boy pupils.

i) $\mathbf{r_g = r_b}$: This reduces to the case discussed in section 3.2, such that a binding quota for male teachers will be costly in the aggregate.

ii) $\mathbf{r_g < r_b}$: This reduces to the case in section 3.3, such that a binding quota for male teachers can be efficiency enhancing in the aggregate, and achieves the optimal allocation under full information whenever $\delta = \frac{1}{2}(r_g - r_b)$.

iii) $\mathbf{r_g > r_b}$: In such a case, a binding quota will be costly both in terms of s and r.

The same reasoning applies as above when r is only beneficial up to a certain threshold (e.g. 50% of teachers of either gender). However, the relatively more negative effect for girls will be less pronounced compared to the cases discussed above.

3.6 Empirical predictions from conceptual framework

We therefore have several potential descriptions of the relationship between scores, output, and the effect of quotas.

Negative output effect of a quota: If scores perfectly reflect future teacher ability, quotas will reduce output in the absence of complementarities. Our empirical set-up directly serves as a test of whether the quota was efficieny-enhancing by examining output in terms of pupils' outcomes.

Positive output effect of a quota: If scores imperfectly reflect teacher ability, so that for a given score men have higher ability than women, a quota may improve output so long as it is not too stringent. Complementarities may cause greater output from male teachers with lower test scores even if all components of ability are reflected in scores, but will do so with decreasing marginal returns.

Presence of same-gender role model effects: Irrespective of the impact of a quota in the aggregate, girl pupils will be more negatively/less positively affected from a male teacher quota relative to boys in the presence of same-gender role model effects. This is driven by boys gaining additional same-gender role-models when increasing the number of male teachers.

4 Data and sample

Our main data source is register data maintained by Statistics Finland which span the years 1988 - 2018, and contain detailed yearly information on all residents of Finland. We compile two main data sets that correspond to the respective parts of the analysis. **Teachers:** We construct a panel of active primary school teachers from 1990 - 2000 for all individuals whose occupation at any point in time between 1990 - 2005 is classified as a primary school teacher by Statistics Finland's occupation classification system in the employment register. Since occupation categories are first available in 1990 and are not reported in every year, we use a combination of workplace, industry, salary, degree and career information to infer active teacher status in any given year (FOLK employment, basic, and degree). We can match teachers' matriculation exams scores and dates for all cohorts born after 1952 (YTL moduuli), but we do not observe university enrollment or study progress for teachers as these registers were not maintained at the time.

Pupils: We observe the universe of children living in Finland who turn seven years old (and therefore start school in that calendar year) between 1988-2000, reaching age 25 until 2018 as the last year of our data. We assign children to a municipality (and teacher gender composition during grades 1-6) based on their place of residence in the year in which they start school. We further match pupils to their parents which allows us to observe a rich host of variables related to families' socio-demographic characteristics at age seven (FOLK family). We use a variety of registers, available on a yearly basis after age 16, to measure pupils' outcomes:

Early adulthood (age 25): We measure pupils' labor force status as recorded in the last week of the calendar year in which they turn 25 years old (FOLK employment). Regarding educational outcomes, we observe pupils' highest degree achieved, and we construct their field of education using information on their latest degree (FOLK degree). We also examine fertility patterns up to early adulthood with yearly data from the population register (FOLK basic).

Intermediate outcomes: We merge pupils to registers on post-compulsory education applications that occur in the last year of middle school, i.e. the year in which pupils turn 16 (EDU-THYR). This allows us to observe when pupils apply, their preference ranking of up to five degree and institution choices, as well as which option they are allocated in the centralized admissions process. For the school starting cohorts from 1990 on-wards, we can additionally observe enrollment in post-compulsory education (EDU-OPISK).

We measure all of the treatment variables at the municipal level since data to link pupils and teachers to classrooms or schools does not exist. As our main goal is to estimate the impact of a quota per se, and not the impact of having a teacher of a particular gender, aggregating the data to a level higher than the classroom is consistent with both the research question and a setting in which collegial collaboration is widely practiced. The median population size among the 461 municipalities in our sample is 5000 inhabitants in 1990, with a median of 73 children by cohort in primary school. Appendix Figure A22 shows the CDF of the number of primary and middle schools combined across municipalities in the year 2005, as earlier or more detailed data was unobtainable. About 20% of municipalities have fewer than 5 primary and middle schools combined.

To comply with data disclosure regulations by Statistics Finland, we exclude municipalities that contain fewer than three teacher observations in a given year from our analysis. Once we move to a pupil level panel, we restrict the sample to municipality*year cells for which we are able to observe at least six teacher observations (i.e. the teaching staff for grades 1-6).[16]

5 Empirical strategy

We want to study whether and how output is affected when the gender composition of teachers changes via a quota. Lifting the quota at the point of university admissions will impact the gender composition among active primary school teachers only gradually over time, but the changes in the flow of incoming teachers are sharp and immediate. In the estimation strategy, we therefore use shocks to the demand for new teachers that arise from idiosynchratic local teacher retirement. Since teacher retirement could respond endogenously to the policy reform itself, we only use variation from teachers reaching the union mandated retirement age of 60. We use the term "retirement" exclusively to refer to teachers turning 60 throughout the paper.

Ideally, we would like to observe yearly pupil level outcomes and classroom specific links of pupils and teachers in order to differentiate between direct and indirect exposure effects, but such data does not exist. An ideal experiment, taking the aggregation level of our data as given, would consist in randomly removing some teachers from municipalities, and deciding with a coin flip whether replacement teachers are drawn either from a pool of male quota teachers, or from a pool of marginal female teachers.[17]

Our DiD-IV estimation strategy closely approximates this experiment, taking into account that changes in quota teachers materialize via the inflow of rookie teachers and that we cannot observe quota male and marginal female teachers in the data. Municipalities in our setting are randomly assigned quota men – and thus more male teachers in general – via the *timing* of their open positions arising from teacher retirement. We thus estimate a local average treatment effect for complier municipalities: Variation stems from those municipalities that via the timing of retirements are induced to hire more vs less quota men among their teachers. While this notion matters for assessing the external validity of results, we think that our estimates get us close to the policy-relevant parameter of interest: What happens when we change the composition of an occupation via a quota that operates through the inflow of incoming candidates?

Figure 3 outlines the timeline of our reform: The primary school teacher students who enter university before 1989 are selected via the quota rule. As the official time to complete the degree is five years, the quota and non-quota cohorts of new teachers will leave university around the year 1994 and will be hired by municipalities for their local schools. If municipalities have open positions during the time when quota cohorts enter the teacher market, they will be more likely to hire candidates from a pool with relatively more male rookie teachers compared to municipalities that have to fill open positions once new teacher cohorts selected without the quota are entering

[16] Results are qualitatively similar, but more noisily estimated, when keeping the 7,154 pupils for which we have incomplete teacher composition information in the sample.

[17] We label as "male quota teachers" those male teachers who were only able to enter primary teachers studies because the quota was in place and would not have gotten admitted otherwise. We refer to "marginal female teachers" as those female teachers who were able to be admitted to primary teacher studies once the quota was abolished and would not have gotten in if the quota were still in place.

the teacher market.

5.1 Municipal level: Changes in teacher composition

We first document that local retirement interacted with the timing of abolishing the quota changes the local gender composition of teachers. Consider the following specification:

$$\textit{share male}_{mt} = \pi_0 + \pi_1 \, \textit{total share 60}_{mt} + \pi_2 \, \mathbb{1}_{t=post} \, \textit{total share 60}_{mt} + X_{mt}\delta + \eta_{rt} + \gamma_{mp} + \zeta_{mt} \quad (8)$$

with $\textit{share male}_{mt}$ the share of male teachers in municipality m in a given year t, and $\textit{total share 60}_{mt}$ the cumulative teacher retirements in a municipality up to that point in time.[18] The indicator function $\mathbb{1}_{t=post}$ switches on once non-quota teacher cohorts graduate and start entering the teacher market in 1994. The coefficient of interest, π_2, measures how additional retirements in the post-quota period affect the share of local male teachers *relative* to when the quota was still in place. We add region-by-year fixed effects η_{rt} to control for time-varying shocks whose impacts may vary regionally, with a total of 19 regions comprising on average 24 municipalities. In addition, we can also add controls for time-varying municipal characteristics X_{mt}. The municipality-by-period fixed effects, γ_{mp}, 'reset' the measure of total retirements once the post period starts to separately estimate how retirements affect the local share of male teachers in the post period.[19]

5.2 Pupil level: Does the quota shift in teacher gender affect outcomes?

Structural equation: Our main equation of interest is the following structural equation:

$$y_{im,t+x} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \overline{\textit{share male}}_{mt} + \beta_2 \overline{\textit{total share 60}}_{mt} + X_i\delta + \gamma_m + \eta_{rt} + u_{imt} \quad (10)$$

with $y_{im,t+x}$ the outcome of interest at time $t+x$ for pupil i who at age seven lived in municipality m, and X_i individual level controls for socio-economic status, also measured at age seven.[20] We add municipal fixed effects γ_m, as well as region-by-cohort fixed effects, η_{rt}. We are interested in how increasing the average share of male teachers via the quota affects pupils' outcomes, with $\overline{\textit{share male}}_{mt}$ the average of the share of male teachers across the years we observe pupils in

[18]The fixed effects specification of equation 8 uses the stock of the dependent variable (the share of male teachers) and the independent variable (the cumulative share retiring teachers over time). The corresponding first difference equation uses flows on both sides of the equation by regressing the year-on-year changes in the share of male teachers within a municipality on the share retiring teachers in each year, dropping the municipal fixed effects:

$$\Delta \textit{share male}_{mt} = \pi_0 + \pi_1 \, \textit{share 60}_{mt} + \pi_2 \, \mathbb{1}_{t=post} \, \textit{share 60}_{mt} + X_{mt}\delta + \eta_{rt} + \zeta_{mt} \quad (9)$$

We report first stage results for both equations, and use equation 9 when thinking in flows is more intuitive for some robustness checks on hiring patterns.

[19]The reset is necessary so as to properly net out any effect of the quota-period retirements from the post-quota estimate. I.e. the effect of retirements on the gender composition in the post is independent of how much retirement the municipality faced in the quota period.

[20]The controls we include are pupil gender, language (Swedish, Finnish, other), foreign origin, single parent household, and highest level of education in the household (Compulsory, Secondary, Tertiary, n/a).

primary school.[21]

Our empirical strategy isolates variation in the share of male quota teachers from gender changes in the inflow of recently graduated teachers that is caused by retirements. Rookie teachers may differ from older teachers along various dimensions: they have less experience, but they might also be differentially motivated to teach. We account for pupils' exposure to rookie teachers via retirement by controlling for the average aggregate share of teacher retirements during a pupils' time in primary school, $\overline{\textit{total share 60}}_{mt}$, and we discuss its construction in more detail below. Note that schools' hiring decisions, and thus the impact of being exposed to retirements, may change due to the quota. As such, our estimates measure the total effect of the policy which includes differential responses to retirement shocks. We elaborate on this in more detail in the robustness section 8, and do not find evidence that schools changed their practices over time.

First stage: We instrument for $\overline{\textit{share male}}_{mt}$ with the following first stage equation on the pupil level that closely mimics the municipal level first stage in equation 8. Since every time period t corresponds to the start of school for a particular cohort, we refer to t as a cohort identifier in the following:

$$\overline{\textit{share male}}_{mt} = \pi_0 + \pi_1\, \overline{\textit{total share 60}}_{mt} + \pi_2\, \mathbb{1}_{t=post}\, \overline{\textit{total share 60}}_{mt} + X_i\delta + \gamma_m + \eta_{rt} + \epsilon_{imt} \quad (11)$$

Variation in treatment intensity arises from how much teacher retirement different cohorts of pupils across different municipalities experience in the post-quota relative to the quota period. The coefficient of interest, π_2, measures how the share of male teachers a pupil experiences is affected by retirements in the post-quota relative to the quota period. By measuring the differential impact of retirements, we compare the causal effect of being exposed to new teachers against the causal effect of being exposed to new teachers with a changed gender composition due to the lifting of the quota. In the structural equation, β_1 then measures the causal effect of being exposed to relatively more male teachers via incoming quota men. This relative comparison addresses exclusion restriction concerns that retirement triggered increases in rookie teachers matter for pupil outcomes.

We measure pupils exposure to retirements during their time in primary school, $\overline{\textit{total share 60}}_{mt}$, by taking the average of cumulative retirements a pupil is exposed to during their six grade levels g in primary school:

$$\overline{\textit{total share 60}}_{mt} = \frac{1}{6}\sum_{g=1}^{6} R_{mtg} \quad (12)$$

with $R_g = \textit{share 60}_g + R_{g-1}$ and $R_1 = \textit{share 60}_{-2} + \textit{share 60}_{-1} + \textit{share 60}_1$

For example, the retirement measure for grade 6 (R_6) adds retirements that occur just before a pupil enters grade 6 ($\textit{share 60}_6$) to all retirements the pupil has experienced up to this point:

[21] Our pupil panel spans 13 cohorts that are starting school in the years 1988-2000, and thus experience teachers who we can observe from 1990 - 2000. For some cohorts of pupils, we observe the teacher composition for each year that pupils are in school, while for others, we only know it for their starting or ending years. Appendix Figure A21 depicts the cohorts over time observed in our data.

$R_6 = \textit{share 60}_6 + R_5$. R_1 considers all retirements up to two years before a pupil starts school. We construct $\overline{\textit{total share 60}}_{mt}$ in this way to reflect the fact that retirements that happen later in the pupils' school career will have an impact on the teacher composition for relatively fewer years compared to retirements when pupils start school: Retirements that occur before a pupil enters grade 1 have the potential to change the gender composition, and thus the average share of male teachers, for all grades a pupil spends in primary school. In contrast, any retirements occurring just before a pupil enters grade 6 will affect the teacher composition only in their last year in school. In the empirical analysis, we report grade level results for the first stage that directly motivate the construction of this measure.

5.3 Discussion of identifying assumptions

We revisit explicit and implicit identifying assumptions of our setting in more depth. To start with, our identification strategy needs to satisfy the two main IV assumptions. Relevance requires that teacher retirements in the post-quota period decisively impact the local share of male teachers, which we can assess directly in the first stage regressions. The exclusion restriction, briefly touched on in the above, warrants more discussion: We require that teacher retirements affect pupils' outcomes only via changes in the share of male teachers, and thus changes in male quota teachers. However, retirements themselves, by triggering teacher turnover, may have a direct effect on pupils. We tackle this by measuring relative changes in outcomes between cohorts that experience similar exposure to retirements, but with different timing. The underlying assumptions here are twofold: First, we need to assume that there are no other policy changes that happen simultaneously with the quota that have effects on students *via the channel of retirements*. To the best of our knowledge, there are no such policies. Secondly, we assume that exiting patterns and hiring practices to replace retiring teachers do not differentially change as a response to the quota.[22] We test for such patterns in Section 8 and do not find evidence for differential changes in the post-quota period.

Implicit in our empirical design is the further assumption that the local timing of retirements is idiosyncratic, and therefore uncorrelated with any other shocks that could affect pupil outcomes. We address such concerns by only using variation arising from teachers turning 60 (instead of actual exits), by controlling for a rich host of pupils' socio-economic characteristics at age 7, and by including region-by-cohort fixed effects. As such, we are only comparing cohorts in municipalities within the same region and year, with the notion that relevant economic shocks (in the past and currently) will similarly affect neighboring places.

Finally, while our regressions are measuring the effect of having more male quota teachers, we see teacher gender not just as a biological distinction, but as something that proxies for a bundle of characteristics that may differentiate quota male and marginal female teachers.

[22]This includes the monotonicity assumption that rules out defiers in a LATE framework. In our case, these would be municipalities that would not want to hire male teachers while the quota is in place when facing retirements, but start hiring differentially more male teachers for retiring teachers in the post period.

6 Main results

6.1 Municipal level: Effects on teacher composition

Teacher gender: We start by documenting the effects on teacher gender composition at the municipal level after the quota was lifted. We first examine teacher exit patterns. Figure 4 plots the exit probability by age for all primary school teachers in our sample. We report the probability of a primary teacher not teaching at a given age, conditional on having been an active teacher in the previous year. There is a large spike in exits exactly at the union mandated retirement age of 60. In our estimation, we are only using variation from teacher exits that is due to teachers turning 60 years old. [23]

To illustrate the intuition of the first stage using the raw data, Figure 5 displays the relationship between teacher retirement in a municipality (on the horizontal axis) and changes in the share of male teachers by separately plotting the period in which quota cohorts enter the teacher market (1991-93) and a period of similar length in the post-quota period (1994-96). Teacher retirement has a small positive effect on the local share of male teachers in the quota years. In the post-quota period, higher shares of teachers retiring are associated with substantial local drops in the share of male teachers.[24]

Figure 6 formalizes this intuition by running the first stage equation 8 as an event study, estimating separate coefficients year-by-year, relative to 1993 as the last quota-period year. Teacher retirements in the years in which the quota was still in place do not differentially affect the local share of male teachers relative to the year 1993, while retirements in the post-quota period lead to a sizeable drop of about 20 percentage points. Table 2 summarizes this result for both the first difference and fixed effects specifications, bundling years into a quota and post-quota period. Results are quantitatively similar across specifications: While retirements in the pre-period have a small positive effect on the local share of male teachers, the coefficient of interest on retirements in the post-quota period consistently reports large drops. We assess negative weights arising in two-way fixed effects estimation in our setting in section 8 following De Chaisemartin and d'Haultfoeuille (2020).

The magnitude of reported coefficients corresponds to measuring what would happen if all teachers in a municipality were to retire in the post-quota period: In this scenario, the local share of male teachers would drop by about 17-22 percentage points. These magnitudes match the drop in incoming male teachers reported by the literature and observed in teacher admissions and graduates (Figure 1). We can re-scale this coefficient to reflect a more realistic retirement pattern: If 10% of local teachers reach age 60 in the post-quota period, this translates into a 2 percentage point drop in the share of male teachers, which corresponds to a 5.5% decrease over the mean in the baseline period.

[23] Appendix D shows municipal level statistics on teachers turning 60. In any given year, around 45% of municipalities in the sample have a retirement. We also examine teachers' likelihood of changing jobs across municipalities in Appendix Figure A4. Less than 1% of teachers in the age bracket above 55 are changing the location of where they teach across all years of our panel.

[24] Note that since our teacher panel spans 1990-2000, the first year for which we can calculate the share of teachers turning 60 that determines re-hiring for the upcoming academic year is for 1991 (i.e. the 1991/92 academic school year)

Teacher academic ability: While the quota targeted the gender composition of incoming primary school teachers, it simultaneously affected overall academic ability among teachers by giving preferential access to men with lower academic scores on average. In Table A2, we report the first stage with the municipal average of teachers' scores across different fields of the matriculation exam as the outcome. While coefficients are noisily estimated due to test scores only being available for teacher cohorts born after 1952, retirements in the post period lead to an increase of about 1.25 percentile scores in the local teacher body, relative to the quota period (column 1). This magnitude is consistent with replacing approximately 20% of teachers with an on average 7-8 percentile point higher test score in the post-quota period (see Figure 2).[25] We next turn to examine how these changes affect pupils.

6.2 Pupils: Labor force and educational attachment at age 25

Pupil-level first stage: Our pupil-level panel spans the cohorts that enter primary school between the years 1988 to 2000. We start by documenting the first stage relationship: Are children who experience more teacher retirement post-quota exposed to fewer male quota teachers? Our outcome here is the average share of male teachers across the six years a pupil spends in primary school.

Figure 7a shows the first stage results if we regress the average share of male teachers on the share of retirements pupils experience just before they start each grade level, starting up to two years before they enter school and until grade six.[26] Figure 7a depicts coefficients separately for the quota period (grey) and the post-quota period (green), while Figure 7b shows the effect of retirements in the post-quota period *relative* to the quota period. Teacher retirements in the early years of students' primary school time have a large and significant impact on the average share of male teachers pupils experience during their time in primary school. At higher grade levels, this effect gradually peters out. This pattern clearly shows that retirements in early grades, which affect the teacher composition during the entire six years a pupil spends in primary school, contribute more to explaining the average share of male teachers a pupil faces across their entire time in primary school. Similarly, retirements that happen just before a pupil enters grade six will only impact the share of male teachers for one year, and therefore contribute less to moving the average share of male teachers over all six years. This pattern, as described in section 5.2, informs our construction of the instrument when bundling a pupil's exposure measure across all grades. We define a pupils' average total exposure to retirements as the average cumulative share of teachers retiring in each grade level, which gives more weight to retirements that have the potential to change the teacher composition for a longer time.

In Table 3, columns 1-3 show results for the pupil level first stage. Due to the cumulative nature of the explanatory variable, we can interpret this coefficient as 'how much does the average share of male teachers change if all teachers were to retire just before a pupil starts school'. The

[25]We use teachers' score in their first attempt at the exam. We observe scores for 59% of the total teacher sample and restrict the sample to municipalities for which we observe at least one teacher with a score in the baseline period. For all specifications in which we need to restrict the sample due to data availability, we also run the first stage regression to ensure comparability. Those coefficients are reported in Appendix Table A3.

[26]Appendix Figure A21 shows which cohorts are exposed to quota years in which grade levels.

magnitudes are similar to the municipal level regressions: Pupils facing 10% of teachers retiring just before they start school are exposed to about a 1.8 percentage points lower share of male teachers.

Labor market outcomes: Turning to outcomes, we examine pupils' labor market attachment at age 25. As many youths are still studying at this age, but are classified as employed due to part time work, we combine the categories of being a student and being employed into one measure that reflects not sitting idle. For this age group, this metric is considered relevant to measure the propensity to successfully integrate into the labor market (Eurostat, 2021; OECD, 2021). Columns 4-6 in Table 3 report reduced form, and columns 7-9 IV results: Being exposed to more male quota teachers during primary school results in higher likelihood of being either employed or a student at age 25.

The coefficients report the effect size associated with an increase of male quota teachers from zero to all of the teaching staff being male quota teachers. To scale effect sizes to match a more realistic pattern, we consider the impact of a 1 SD increase in the share of male (quota) teachers, which is around 0.065. For a 1 SD increase in the share of male (quota) teachers, pupils have a 0.03 percentage points higher likelihood of working or studying, which corresponds to a 4% increase over the mean. Translated into standardized effect sizes (see the bottom row of Table 4), exposure to 1 SD higher share of male (quota) teachers during primary school leads to a .09 SD increased attachment to the labor/education market.[27]

Figure 8a and the corresponding Table 4 report effects for our preferred specification (column 9 of Table 3) for the remaining, mutually exclusive labor market status categories. While we observe no effect on unemployment, pupils are somewhat less likely to be on a disability pension, and significantly less likely to be out of the labor force for reasons other than disability. We report reduced form estimates for all main results in Appendix F.

Figure 8b and Appendix Table A9 show results by gender. Instead of splitting the sample, we run our main specification (Equation 10) and include separate treatment effects for boys and girls while estimating controls and fixed effects jointly. Results are qualitatively similar to splitting the sample, but less noisily estimated.[28] We discuss results by pupil gender in more detail in section 7.2.

Educational attainment: Next, we turn to examine educational attainment at age 25. After compulsory education, the Finnish education system has two tiers: vocational and academic. Standard three year vocational degrees offer training in occupation-specific skills. In addition to working towards the completion of a basic vocational degree, pupils may take academic high school coursework that qualifies them to study a broader range of subjects at higher education institutions and adds an extra year to their study time. Alternatively, or in addition, pupils can

[27]We can also ask how many pupils in a school this corresponds to. An increase in the share of male teachers of 0.065 corresponds roughly to switching out 1 in 15 teachers from marginal female to quota male at a local school. As the average class size is 20 pupils, this place would have a total of 300 pupils, and therefore about 9 pupils switch their labor market status.

[28]Estimating heterogeneity by pupil gender requires taking a stance on how to account for common shocks that are absorbed by the municipality and cohort*region fixed effects. When estimating these fixed effects jointly, the underlying assumption is that we expect time-varying economic shocks to affect the choices of boys and girls to a similar extent. We also report split sample results for the main outcomes in Appendix H.

also take further specialization training that expands and deepens occupation-specific skills.[29] While students from the vocational track may qualify for specific fields of tertiary education at university, the typical study path for the tertiary level is at polytechnics. The academic path, on the other hand, leads from a three year high school degree to a Bachelor's degree (3 years) and a Master's degree (2 years) at university. Appendix Figure A19 shows the organization of the Finnish education system in detail.

Figure 9a and Table 5 present results for educational attainment by examining the highest degree achieved at age 25 using mutually exclusive education categories. We can see a shift towards higher attainment both in vocationally oriented as well as in academic education paths. As such, we observe a shift away from remaining with compulsory education or a standard three year vocational degree only, towards a "vocational plus degree", defined as vocational degree holders with additional specialist or high school qualifications. A 1 SD increase in the share of male (quota) teachers makes pupils .09 SD more likely to shift towards such a higher skilled degree. Turning to academically oriented degrees, we similarly observe a shift away from high school degrees towards having completed a university bachelor level degree. Results by pupil gender are displayed in Figure 9b and Appendix Table A10.

We can also look at realized fertility up to age 26. In Finland, there is low prevalence of teenage pregnancies and the average age at first birth increased from 27.2 in 1995 to 29 in 2016 and is close to the OECD average (OECD, 2019). Consistent with our finding that pupils invest more in education and have a higher attachment to the labor force when exposed to more male quota teachers, we can document in Appendix E that female pupils are less likely to have given birth by age 26, which is indicative of delaying fertility.[30]

7 Mechanisms

Where do effects at age 25 stem from, and how would male quota teachers make a difference? This part first explores in more detail the step-by-step educational decisions that lead to the observed differences when pupils are young adults. We then examine how our empirical results tie back into the predictions of the conceptual framework: First, we discuss whether any of the main effects are driven by boy pupils benefiting more from male quota teachers due to the presence of same-identity role model effects. We then turn to examine if effects derive from male teachers inspiring pupils to pursue different educational fields. Lastly, we try to differentiate between a mechanism where either male quota teachers make teacher teams more productive via complementarities, or where male quota teachers are of overall higher teaching ability than the marginal female teachers they replace.

[29] An example for a basic vocational degree is training to work in the vehicles sector which covers subjects from car sales to vehicle mechanics, while additional qualifications allow pupils to specialize e.g. in specific areas of vehicle repair.

[30] For male pupils there is a small increase in the likelihood of having a first child by age 26, but it is statistically not significant and economically small.

7.1 Intermediate outcomes: Applications to post-compulsory education

In order to better understand where the long run effects measured at age 25 originate, we examine application choices to higher education options that take place after compulsory schooling at age 16.[31] After primary school (grades 1-6) and middle school (grades 7-9), pupils in Finland have the option to apply to upper secondary education, which typically takes three years to complete, is provided free of charge, and is divided into a vocational and academic track. In grade 9, the final year of middle school, pupils apply for their desired institution, and in the case of the vocational track also their desired field. While further education is not mandatory after age 16, application rates for upper secondary degrees are very high with around 90% of a cohort applying in early spring of their final year in middle school. Raising completion rates of upper secondary education is a policy priority as a post-compulsory degree is deemed crucial for labor force attachment: Finns with only basic education are four times more likely to be out of the labor force, and have significantly lower employment rates in adulthood (Virtanen, 2016; Niemi et al., 2016).[32]

In the centrally organized application process, each pupil can submit up to five choices for institution (and field), and a student proposed ranked choice algorithm allocates available study slots.[33] Institutions rank applicants based on grades and other qualifications such as extracurriculars. As applications take place before pupils obtain their final grades that are used to allocate slots, and with the popularity of institutions and fields varying over the years, students face uncertainty over whether they are able to obtain a study slot. The number of available slots per degree is centrally regulated and about 4% of a cohort end up without a study slot in the fall after finishing middle school.

Figure 10a and Table 7 report results on pupils' application timing and choices (Table 6 reports the first stage, reduced form and IV for the main outcome for this section). Having more male quota teachers makes pupils more likely to apply directly in their final year of middle school at age 16, and less likely to postpone applying to up to five years later.[34] We see no significant effect on never applying to upper secondary education. When considering the allocation of slots, we further observe that pupils are more likely to get one of their top two choices, while the effect of not getting any slot at all is muted.[35] Consistent with Virtanen (2016), we find that these patterns translate into higher enrollment rates in upper secondary education in general, and significantly so in the year in which students turn 16. Figure 10b and Appendix Table A11

[31] Virtually everyone (99.7% of a cohort) successfully graduates from compulsory education (Virtanen, 2016). See Appendix Figure A19 for more details on the Finnish education system

[32] Prior research with Finnish data has shown that the choices and slot allocations in upper secondary education can be pivotal: With an RDD design, Virtanen (2016) shows that failing to obtain a preferred choice or a study slot at all results in a lower probability of graduation. Virtanen (2016) also provides an excellent in-depth description of the allocation process of slots for upper secondary schooling.

[33] For an infinite number of choices, the algorithm would be strategy proof. Since students can only submit five choices, some may choose to enter a 'safe' option to make sure they get a study spot.

[34] With a simple back-of-the-envelope calculation, the increase in the propensity to apply can account for close to a quarter of the labor force attachment effect in section 6.2 (the raw difference in labor force attachment for pupils who directly apply against those who do not is 25.4 percentage points).

[35] The mutually exclusive categories and effect sizes for this outcome are: Getting first (0.33), second (0.2), third (-0.13), fourth (-0.1), fifth (0.02) choice, get no spot (-0.14), decline assigned slot (-0.11), and never apply (-0.07).

report heterogeneity by pupil gender.

Why are pupils who are exposed to more male quota teachers more successful in obtaining their preferred choice? We can check whether pupils are more sophisticated in their applications, with their main choice between aiming for an academic high school degree or vocational training options. We report effects in this part directly by pupil gender, as for these outcomes results differ significantly and overall effects mask more intricate patterns. Appendix Table A12 in Appendix G shows that male pupils are more likely to include any vocational training option among their choices (column 2), while refraining from applying exclusively to academic high schools (column 3). For the girls, while not statistically significant, the effect goes in the opposite direction. Overall, boys seem to become somewhat more cautious in their applications, and girls more confident. When examining for which track options pupils obtain a slot in columns 4-6, we see that the margin for boys shifts from not obtaining a slot at all (column 4) towards getting a vocational spot (column 5), while girls become more likely to obtain an academic spot (column 6) rather than a vocational one. Taken together, these results imply that having more male quota teachers makes pupils apply more in line with attainable options: Boys adjust their aspirations downwards, which prevents them from ending up without a slot at all, and girls correctly have high aspirations as they are more likely to get into academic high schools.

7.2 Role model effects

While the main effects clearly demonstrate that the overall impact of the quota was positive, boys should benefit more from having more male teachers relative to girls in the presence of same-gender role model effects (see section 3.5). This further raises the question whether the overall impact of the policy could mask that boys benefited while girls were made worse off.

As displayed in the figures and tables of our main results at age 16 and 25 by pupil gender, girls' outcomes are not negatively impacted from exposure to male quota teachers. We then test whether boys benefited more from male quota teachers: For educational outcomes at age 16 (Figure 10b), we cannot reject the null hypothesis of the coefficients being the same for boys and girls for any outcome at the 5% level, with the exception of remaining without a study slot (p-value of 0.017). While some coefficients differ significantly by pupil gender for highest degree achieved at age 25 (Figure 9b), these are the ones where boys are not benefiting as much as girls.[36] There are significant differences by pupil gender for our main labor market outcomes at age 25, with boys having better outcomes than girls. However, this pattern is quite sensitive to the choice of whether to estimate fixed effects jointly or separately by pupil gender. As shown in Appendix H, this gendered pattern reverses when estimating results in a split sample, and we cannot reject that coefficients are the same for boys and girls for those specifications.

Rather than providing a same-gender role model for boys, male teachers could also substitute for male role models at home for children growing up in single parent households (about 13% of the sample), of which most are headed by single mothers. With the caveat that heterogeneity along this dimension is not randomly assigned and may be correlated with other characteristics,

[36] The results that are significantly different at the 5% level with girls better off are: compulsory education, and having a tertiary vocational, BA and MA degree.

in Appendix I we display that pupils living in a single parent household when starting primary school have somewhat stronger benefits from exposure to male quota teachers in the longer run outcomes at age 25.

Taken together, we do not detect main effects that differ systematically by pupil gender. A same-gender role model channel that would make boys better off is thus not driving the positive impacts of the quota in the aggregate.

7.3 Education fields

We next turn to study whether exposure to more male quota teachers inspires pupils to pursue different education fields. While the main effects do not differ by pupil gender, a same-gender role model channel could also consist in male teachers setting an important example of men working in an occupation that is female dominated. As such, they may inspire primarily boy pupils to pursue a teaching-related field. On the other hand – and separate from a classical same-gender role model effect – male teachers could motivate pupils to pursue different education fields. This could be either via improving pupils' achievements overall or via male teachers' skills in particular subjects. As documented in section 2.2, male teachers are on average more likely to have chosen math as one of their matriculation exam fields, and may thus be more skilled or motivated to teach mathematically oriented topics.

In order to investigate these hypotheses, we measure pupils' choice of education field at age 25. We classify their career choices via their education field rather than their occupation because many youths at this age are still studying. For each pupil in our sample, we pick the field of the highest degree acquired if they are no longer a student and the field of their current degree if they are still studying. We define fields as primarily female or male dominated based on the generation prior to our sample, i.e. the 13 cohorts who are seven years old during the years 1975-87. If either gender constitutes more than 40% within a field and degree level cell, we define the field as male or female leaning, and gender neutral otherwise.[37] This results in 30% of pupils being in "Male" fields, 43% in gender-neutral, and 27% in "Female" fields. We also report results on STEM and STEM-M (STEM plus Medical) fields as well as teaching-related fields in general and primary school teacher in particular.[38]

Figure 11a and Table 8 report results on the choice of education field. The first three coefficients report results for primarily male, gender neutral and primarily female fields. We observe a somewhat muted shift away from gender neutral towards both more male- and female-dominated fields. Turning to STEM and STEM-M, pupils are significantly more likely to take up such fields when exposed to more male quota teachers, with effect sizes corresponding to a 0.08 and 0.09 SD increase for a 1 SD increase in the share of male quota teachers, respectively. Figure 11b

[37] I.e. we define share female based separately for a vocational degree in business vs. an academic degree in business. For the group that has never finished a degree beyond compulsory education and is currently not a student (9.8% of the sample), we assign the gender share of compulsory education, which is categorized as a gender-neutral field based on the previous generation.

[38] We define both academic and vocational degrees as STEM if the three-digit classification of Statistics Finland is one of the following fields: Agriculture (incl. Forestry and Fishery), Biology, Engineering, Environment, ICT, Mathematics and Statistics, Physical Sciences, Veterinary, and the 4-digit category related to Materials (glass, paper, plastic and wood). STEM-M in addition includes the 3-digit field Health.

and Appendix Tables A13 and A14 report results separately by pupil gender.[39] The STEM shift is similarly pronounced for both pupil genders. Regarding teaching fields overall and primary teacher education specifically, we fail to reject a null effect. The patterns outlined are similar when we control for level of education.

We can do a simple back-of-the-envelope calculation to gauge the extent to which labor market outcomes could be explained from field choices. The shift towards STEM fields could account for about 5.8% of total increase in labor force attachment measured in section 6.2.[40] In a similar spirit, in Appendix J we probe whether math background of teachers may be mediating the main effects. The coefficient of a control for average math background of teachers in the main reduced form and IV specifications is small and the inclusion of this variable leaves the estimated impact of exposure to male quota teachers unchanged. This suggests that neither field choice nor teacher math background are fully accounting for the main effects.

7.4 Complementarities between male and female teachers

Based on the predictions outlined in the conceptual framework in section 3, we also attempt to distinguish whether our results are driven by complementarities between male and female teachers. We do this by assessing marginal returns to male quota teachers along the distribution of the share of male teachers at baseline (i.e. in 1990): If male and female teachers are complements, adding an additional male teacher at a place with mostly female teachers should have larger marginal returns compared to adding an additional male teacher in an environment that is close to gender parity. We split the sample by the median share of male teachers in a municipality. The first group has initially a lower share of male teachers (average: 29%), and the second group a relatively higher share of male teachers (average: 43%).[41] Appendix K shows that estimated coefficients in both groups are similar, but the standard errors are too large to draw decisive conclusions.[42] We can thus not convincingly distinguish whether we find positive effects in our setting because diversity itself makes teacher teams more productive, or because within the scope of the policy, quota men have higher inherent teaching ability than the marginal women they replace.

[39] In all of the regressions on field choices, we do not estimate joint fixed effects for both genders, but report separate regressions by splitting the sample. We do this since for these gendered outcomes, the assumption that shocks would affect boys and girls similarly does not seem justified (i.e. a shock that raises demand for health care workers is likely to have quite different effects on young women vs. young men).

[40] Pupils with a STEM field have a 5 percentage point higher attachment to the labor force (0.88 vs 0.83 for non-STEM pupils).

[41] We can split the sample at other points in the distribution, with results qualitatively similar across different splits.

[42] Potential unobserved sorting of teachers into schools that deviates from the average municipal gender composition further makes our setting not an ideal case to test such a channel if collaboration matters more within than across schools.

8 Robustness

8.1 Do schools change hiring practices due to the reform?

Our treatment coefficients measure the effect of the quota policy, and thus include any impacts that may be due to schools responding endogenously to the policy, for example by changing their hiring patterns and recruiting more experienced teachers in lieu of rookies. While this is not a direct threat to identification, assessing these aspects helps to understand the underlying drivers of our effects. Table 9 reports municipal level regressions, with all specifications assessing changes in flows for consistency (see Equation 9). Our goal is to understand whether teacher retirements in the post-quota period differentially affect teacher exit or entry margins.

We start by assessing the effect of teachers turning 60 on the share of teachers leaving their current job in columns 1 and 2. Teachers turning 60 has almost a 1:1 impact on the share of teachers leaving, but not differentially so in the quota period. This effect is not driven by turnover of relatively younger teachers (column 2), and rather reinforces the observation that teachers reaching age 60 corresponds to actual exits from the teaching profession. In column 3 and 4, we examine how retirements affect proxies of experience of the local teacher body and do not detect a sizeable or significant change in the post-quota period. Column 5 shows (noisily estimated) that retirements in general result in a higher share of new entrants among newly arriving teachers at a municipality, but this does not change differentially in the post-quota period. Taken together, we fail to find corroborating evidence for changed teacher exit or re-hiring strategies as a response to the quota reform.

8.2 Teachers on parental leave

Apart from hiring patterns, the lifting the quota coincides with bringing more young female teachers to schools, who may have a higher propensity to go on leave when giving birth. The positive effects we detect from having more male quota teachers could then simply arise from pupils having less teacher turn-over. During the 1990s, Finland provided 6.5 months of entirely shareable parental leave taking effect after three months of birth-related maternity leave (Kamerman and Moss, 2009). To check whether any changes related to leave taking of teachers becoming mothers (or fathers) could affect pupils, we repeat the municipal first stage regressions. Table A22 (in Appendix L) shows that teachers turning 60 in the post period do not have a differential impact on either female or male teachers having a birth in their household. The share of a female teachers leaving the teacher force subsequent to becoming a mother is also not differentially affected by retirements in the post-quota period (column 4). In these specifications, the variation used stems from such patterns arising immediately as a response to teacher retirements. We therefore also document that, conditional on municipal and region-by-cohort fixed effects, higher exposure to female teachers having a newborn child does not impact pupil outcomes (Appendix Table A23). We conclude that differential leave taking patterns due to maternity from more female teachers post-quota are unlikely to drive our results.

8.3 Heterogeneous treatment effects in two-way fixed effects designs

An active literature has documented that in the presence of heterogeneous treatment effects, the coefficient of a two-way fixed effects (TWFE) regression, $\hat{\beta}_{fe}$, may be a biased estimate of the treatment effect and in severe cases exhibit the opposite sign.[43] If treatment effects are heterogeneous, such bias arises when already treated units are used as a control group in later periods. In a two stage least squares (2SLS) set-up, any issues with treatment effect heterogeneity would arise from residualized treatment assignment in the first stage, which is then used to generate predicted values of the endogenous variable for the second stage. In our setting, the first stage portrays a relationship between local retirements and teacher gender composition that should be purely mechanical and for which - given our knowledge about the quota reform - we have a clear ex-ante prior about sign and magnitude. While the TWFE literature to date has not tackled settings with continuous and infinite treatment variables, we follow the reasoning outlined in De Chaisemartin and d'Haultfoeuille (2020) to examine in detail negative weights and potential heterogeneity in treatment effects in Appendix N. We further probe whether first stage coefficients are driven by particular years, regions, or levels of treatment assignment in Appendix O and Appendix Figure A14. We conclude that treatment effect heterogeneity leading to sign reversal in $\hat{\beta}_{fe}$ is not a major concern in our setting.

8.4 Further robustness

Appendix M documents further sensitivity checks, showing that results are not driven by selective attrition in the pupil sample, the capital or large cities in general, and briefly discusses the main macro-economic shocks in Finland during our study period.

9 Conclusion

In this paper, we document that a quota that advantaged academically lower scoring men to obtain a study slot for primary teacher education has positive effects on output as measured by their pupils' long run educational and labor market outcomes. We find that pupils who were exposed to a higher share of male quota teachers during their time in primary school are more likely to be either in employment or studying at age 25, and have higher educational attainment as measured by their highest degree achieved.

Using comprehensive register data, we trace these long term effects back to consequential application patterns to post-compulsory education: Pupils exposed to a higher share of male quota teachers are more likely to apply to continue education directly after middle school, to obtain their preferred study slots and to enroll. We show that pupils of either gender apply more in line with attainable options, albeit along different margins. We do not find evidence that our main effects are more pronounced for male pupils, ruling out a same-gender role model channel as the main mechanism. We show that pupils of either gender are more likely to choose a STEM field, but boys in particular are not more likely to choose education or teaching related fields.

[43] See, among others: De Chaisemartin and d'Haultfoeuille, 2020; Arkhangelsky et al., 2021; Athey and Imbens, 2021; Sun and Abraham, 2020; Imai and Kim, 2021; Goodman-Bacon, 2021.

The male teacher quota thus did not have an impact along two essential dimensions frequently emphasized in policy debates: It did not contribute to reduce occupational segregation – one of the main drivers of raw gender wage gaps – for the future generation, as boys were not inspired to pick an education-related occupation when exposed to more male teachers via the quota. Neither did the quota contribute to close educational attainment gaps between girls and boys, as both pupil genders benefited equally from exposure to male quota teachers.

Instead, the quota in our setting fixed an inefficiency present in the selection process of teachers. Our results show that the quota succeeded in recruiting male teachers that contributed valuable qualities to the school environment within the parameters of the policy. A promising avenue for future research lies in more thoroughly disentangling whether increased representation affects efficiency via a channel of complementarities in team work, via channels of inherent candidate ability, or via a mix of both. A further limitation of our setting is that it explores a partial equilibrium, and we refer to prior (Hsieh et al., 2019; Bleemer, 2021b) and future research to gauge the general equilibrium consequences of such policies for the allocation of talent in the wider economy.

Our study directly speaks to concurrent policy issues on affirmative action and optimal selection of candidates and illustrates the importance of carefully considering the relationship between selection criteria and minority status. In settings where a main criterion for choosing candidates is more negatively correlated with a particular group status than that group's effectiveness on the job, representation targets can help to overcome such misalignment if the selection criteria themselves cannot be easily changed. Both in academia, with current experimentation on SAT requirements for US college applications, and in the private sector, where companies are starting to use balanced candidate lists, such avenues are increasingly being explored. Our results suggest that this may pay off not only in terms of achieving more equitable representation, but also in terms of economic efficiency.

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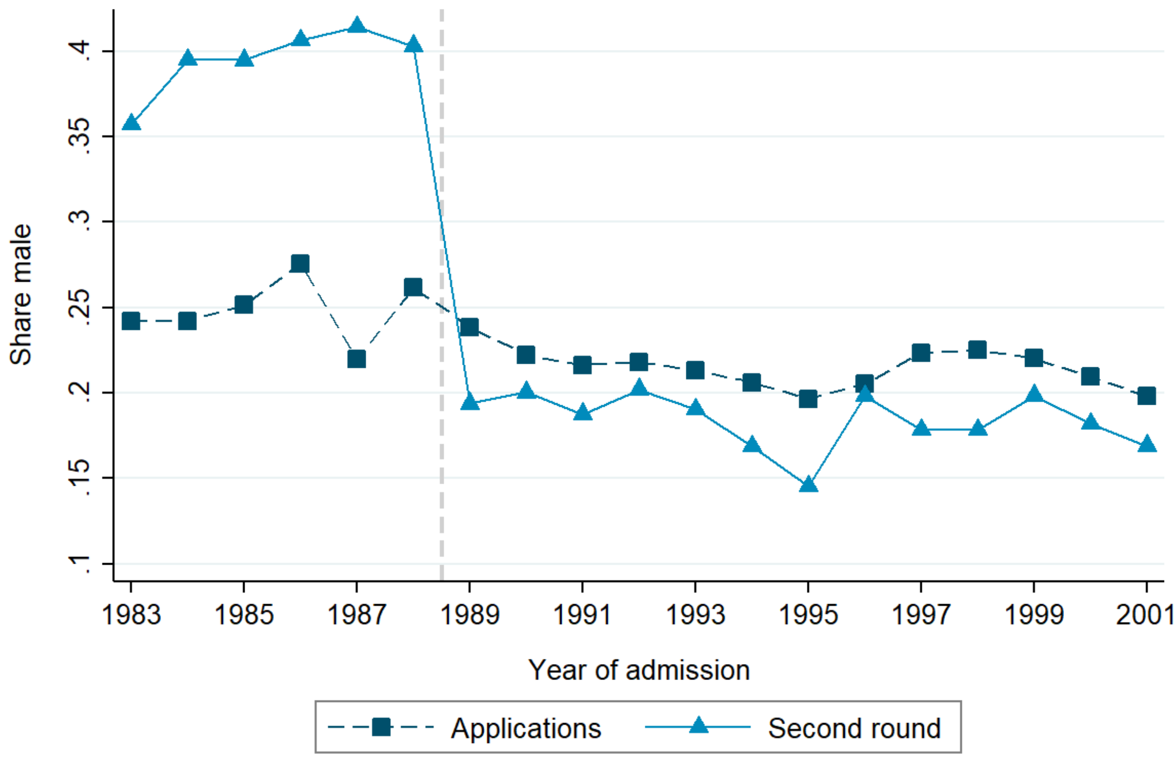
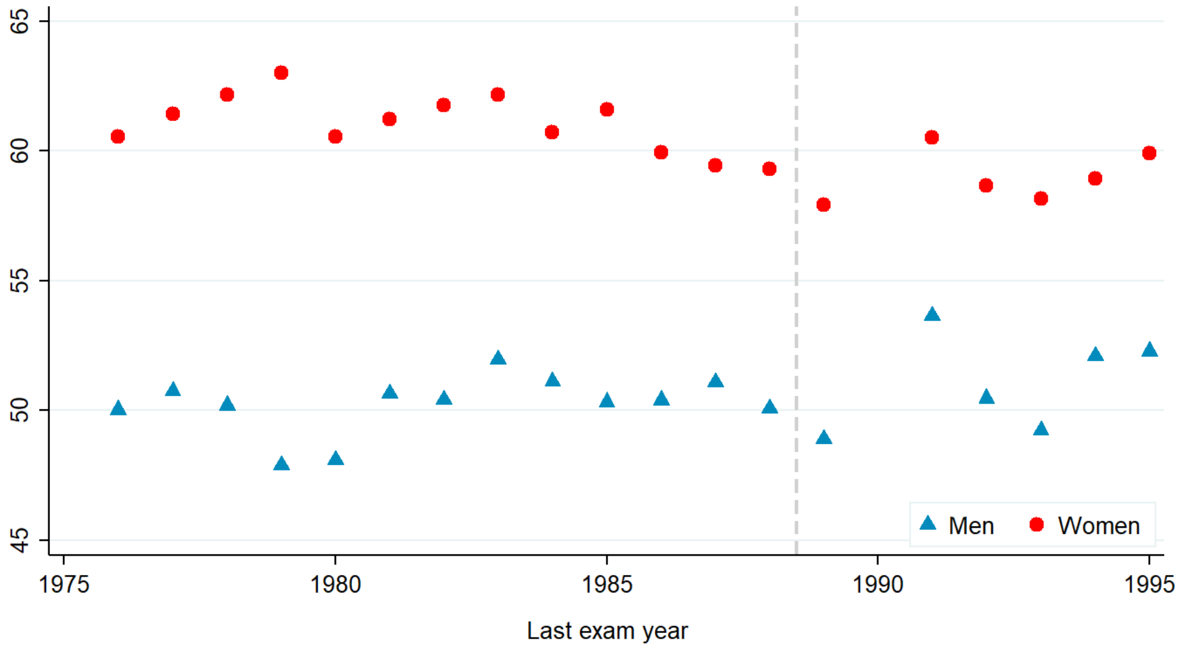
Tables and Figures

Figure 1: Share male in applications to primary school teacher



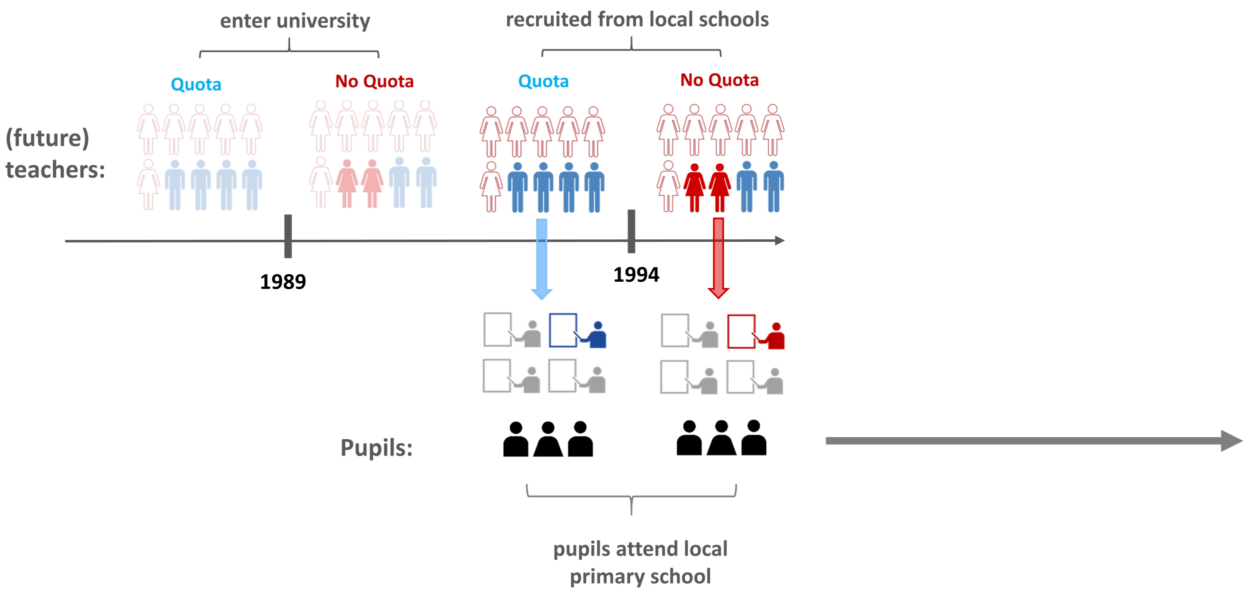
Note: Share male among applicants and invitees to the second round of admission to primary teacher studies. *Source:* Liimatainen (2002). (back)

Figure 2: Matriculation exam percentile rank among primary school teachers by year of last matriculation exam



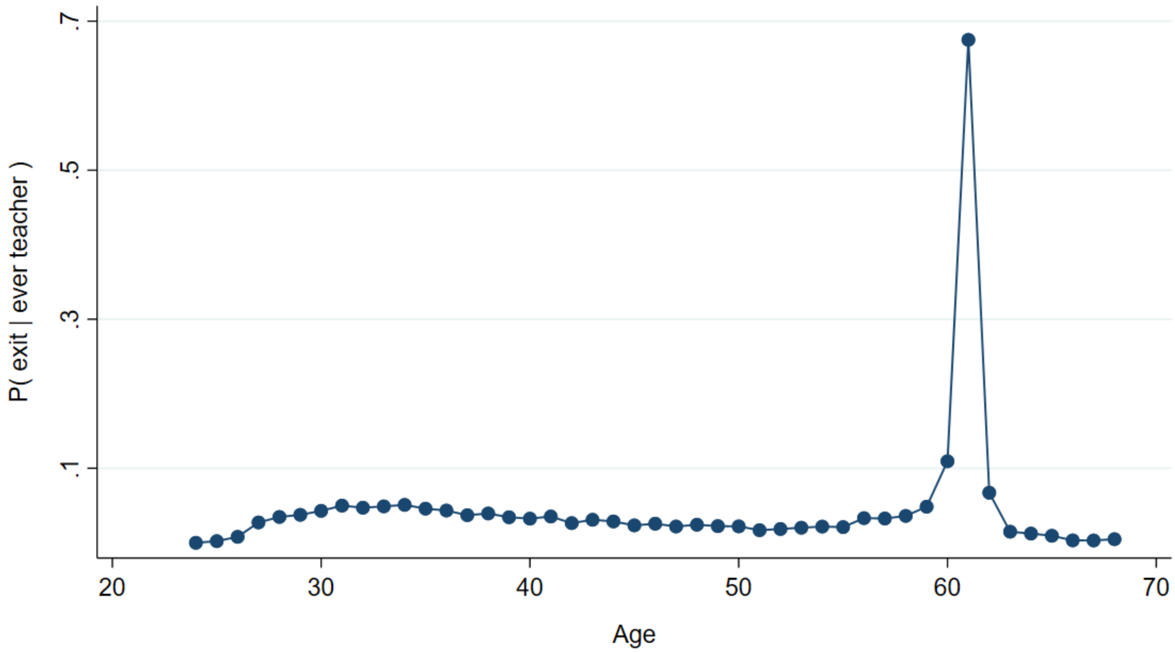
Note: National percentile rank across all subjects in the matriculation exam among primary school teachers, by gender and the last year in which they took the matriculation exam (qualifies applicants for university admissions). Exam takers in 1989 (dashed grey line) and thereafter will have studied after the male quota was abolished. Data on exam points for the year 1990 are missing, so that we cannot calculate the national distribution of scores according to percentiles for that year. Note that if the worst scorers are those that repeat the exam, this will bias the average scores in the years after 1990 upwards (the worst performers will not be counted in these averages as their scores are missing). When examining average grades, for which we have data reported in 1990, the pattern is similar and upward bias in the percentile scores after 1990 should be small. (back)

Figure 3: Timeline of the reform



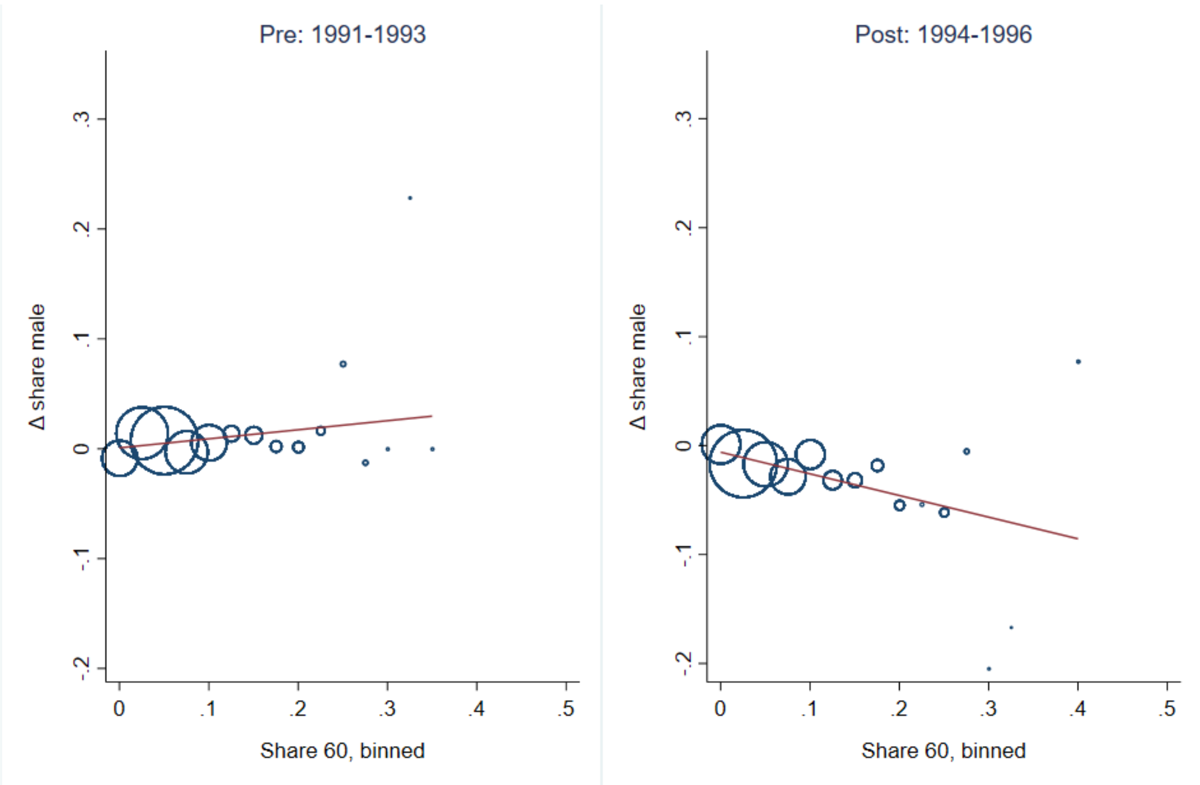
Note: Future primary school teachers enter university with the quota (pre-1989) and without the quota (1989 and thereafter), and graduate from the five year primary school teaching degree around the year 1994. Primary teacher graduates get hired by municipalities to teach in local schools. Pupils will experience differential exposure to quota teachers, described in detail in section 5 of the paper. (back)

Figure 4: Probability of teacher exit by age



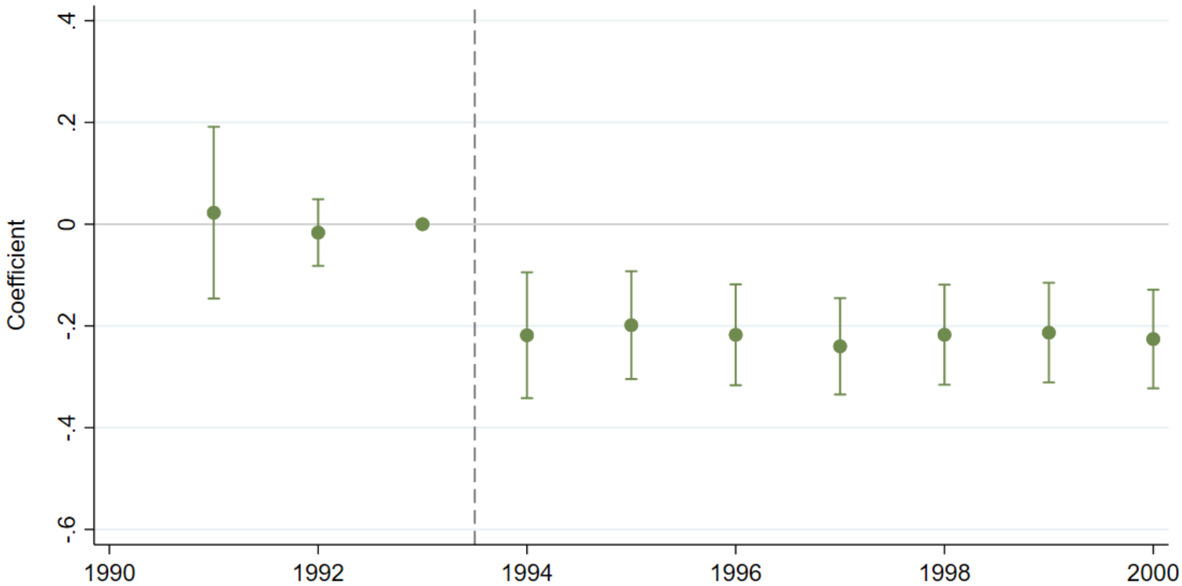
Note: Share of primary school teachers not working as a primary school teacher at a given age, conditional on having worked as a primary school teacher in the previous year. Data for all active primary school teachers in the years 1990-2000. Multiple exits per teacher possible.
(back)

Figure 5: First stage intuition: Changes in share male teachers by local retirements, raw data



Note: Municipality level data, binned: Change in the share of male primary school teachers for a period of similar length in the quota (1991-93) and post-quota (1994-96) period against total share of teachers turning 60. Linear fit, weighted by the number of municipalities per bin.
(back)

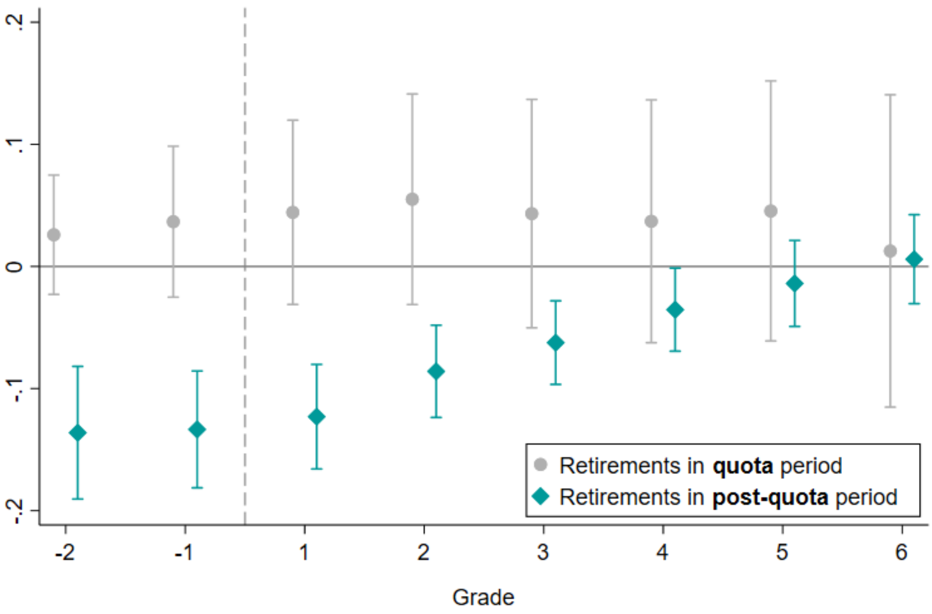
Figure 6: Municipal level first stage as event study



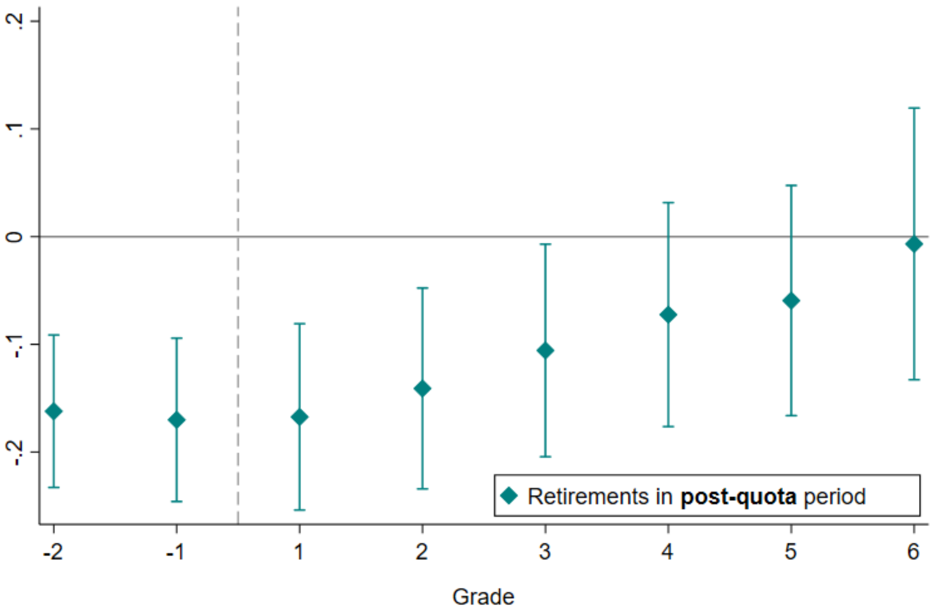
Note: Year-on-year estimates of π_2 for the first stage Equation 8, showing impact of primary teachers turning 60 on the local share of male teachers (relative to 1993). Standard errors clustered at the municipality level. Population weighted. (back)

Figure 7: First stage pupil level

(a) Separate estimation of quota and post-quota coefficients



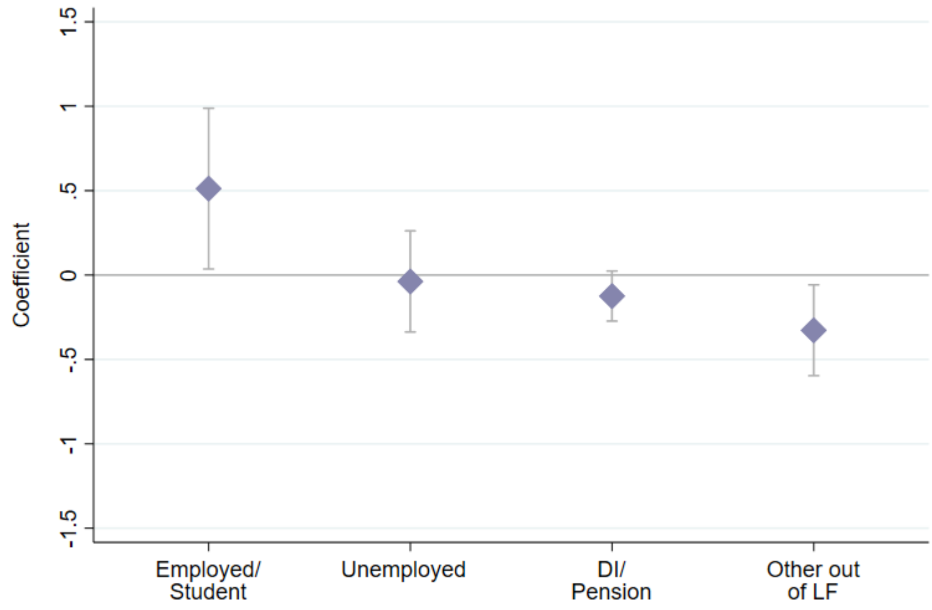
(b) Post-quota (relative to quota coefficients)



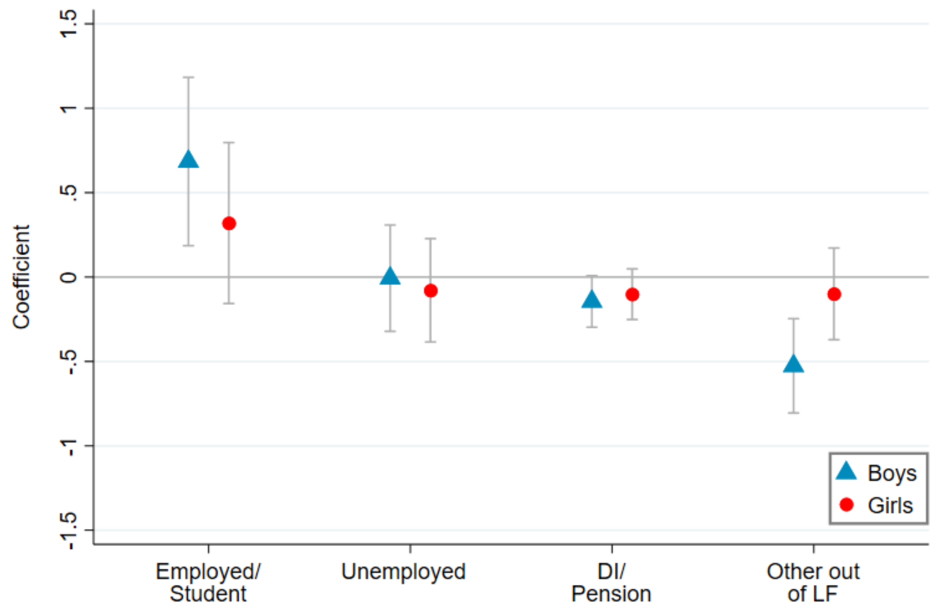
Note: Grade level estimation of pupil level first stage (c.f. Equation 11). Panel (a) estimates absolute coefficients for effect of retirements pupils experience in the quota and the post-quota period. Panel (b) depicts coefficients for the post-quota period *relative* to the quota period (i.e. it shows the difference between quota and post-quota estimates depicted in Panel (a)). Outcome is the average share of male teachers a pupil is exposed to during their time in primary school (Grades 1-6). Individual level controls are measured at age 7 and include gender, language (SE/FI/other), foreign origin, single parent HH, highest level of education in HH. Standard errors clustered at the municipality level. (back)

Figure 8

(a) Labor market outcomes at age 25



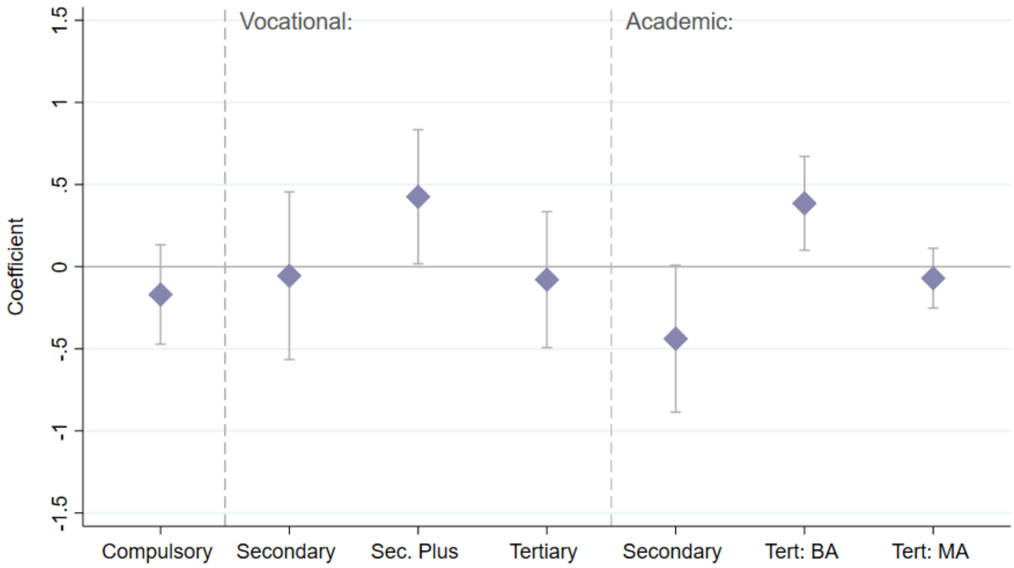
(b) By gender: Labor market outcomes at age 25



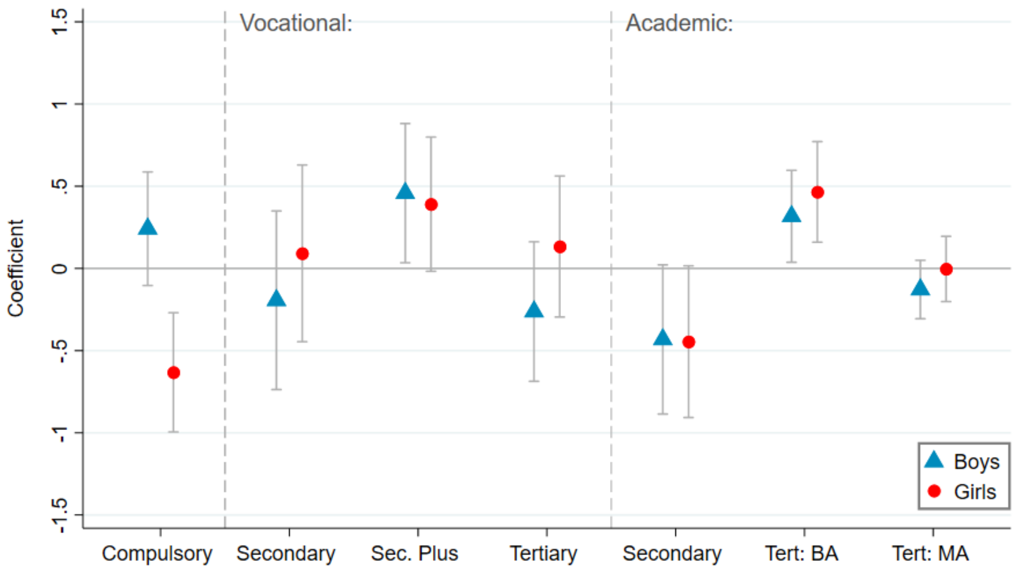
Note: IV estimates of Equation 10. Outcome: Mutually exclusive categories of labor market status in last week of the year in which pupils turn 25 years old. Individual level controls are measured at age 7 and include gender, language (SE/FI/other), foreign origin, single parent HH, highest level of education in HH. Standard errors clustered at the municipality level. (back)

Figure 9

(a) Highest degree achieved at age 25



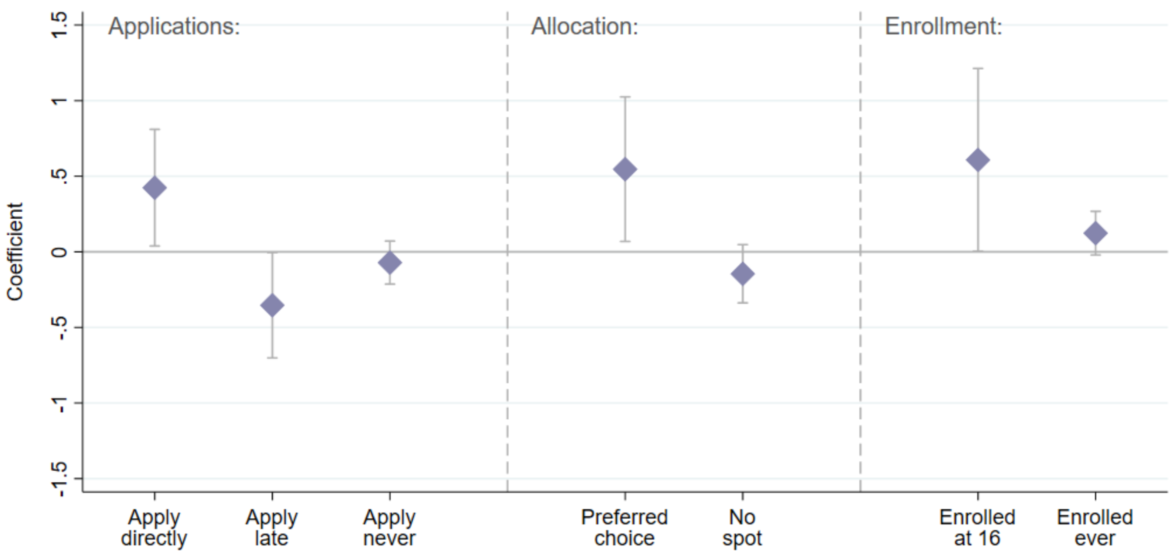
(b) By gender: Highest degree achieved at age 25



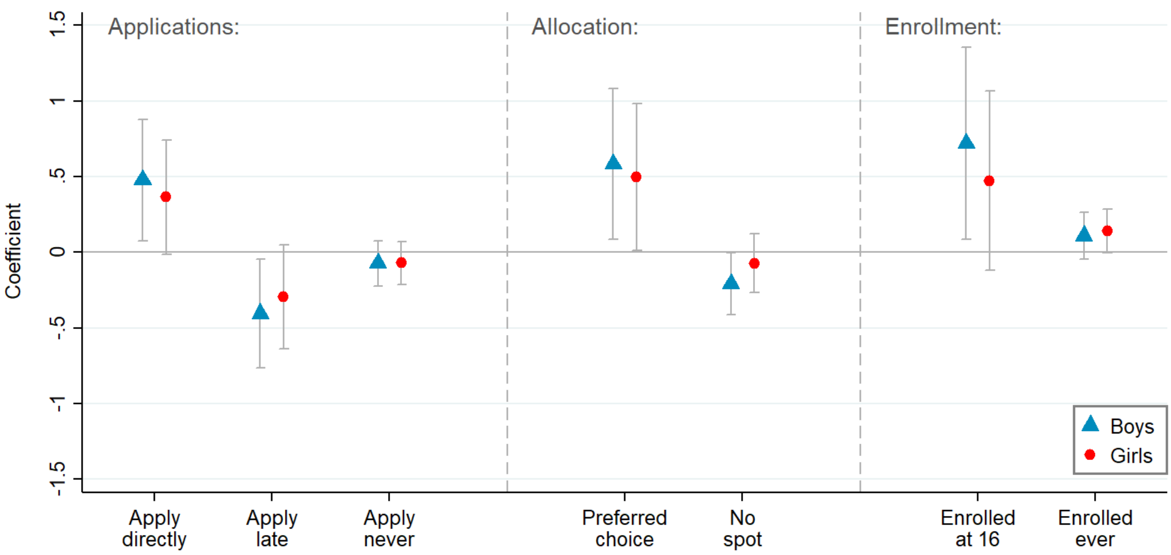
Note: IV estimates of Equation 10. Outcomes are mutually exclusive categories of pupils' highest degree achieved at age 25, from left to right: Having only Compulsory education. For the Vocational track: Having a basic three year secondary degree (Secondary), having additional qualifications or high school coursework beyond a basic degree (Sec. Plus), having a tertiary degree from a polytechnic (Tertiary). For the Academic track: Having a three year high school degree (Secondary), having a three year university BA degree (Tert: BA), having a two year university MA degree (Tert: MA) or higher. Individual level controls are measured at age 7 and include gender, language (SE/FI/other), foreign origin, single parent HH, highest level of education in HH. Standard errors clustered at the municipality level. (back)

Figure 10

(a) Applications and enrollment for post-compulsory education



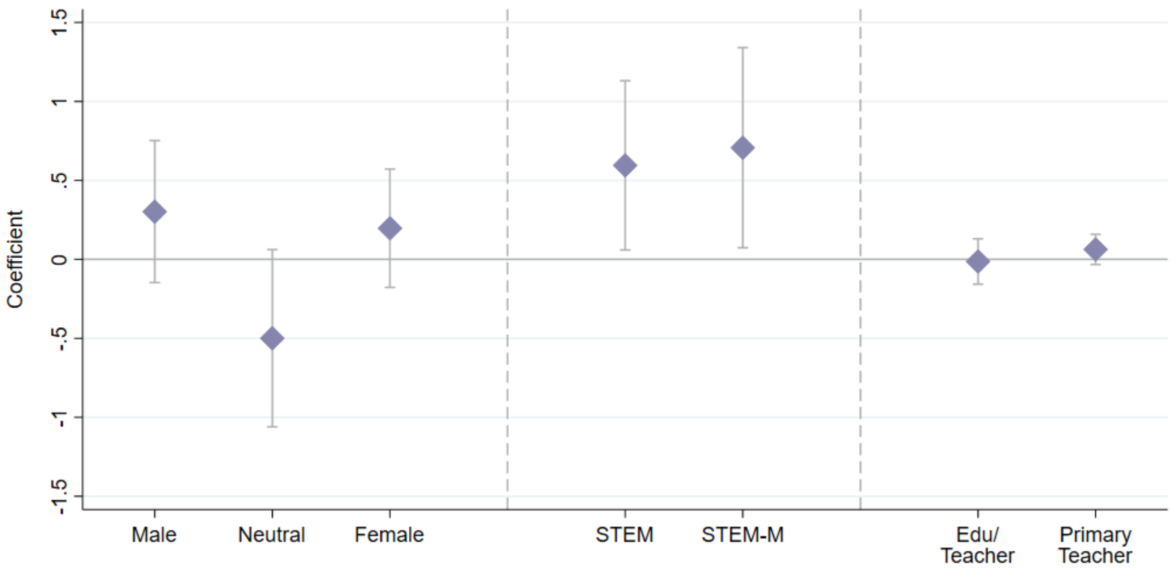
(b) By gender: Applications and enrollment for post-compulsory education



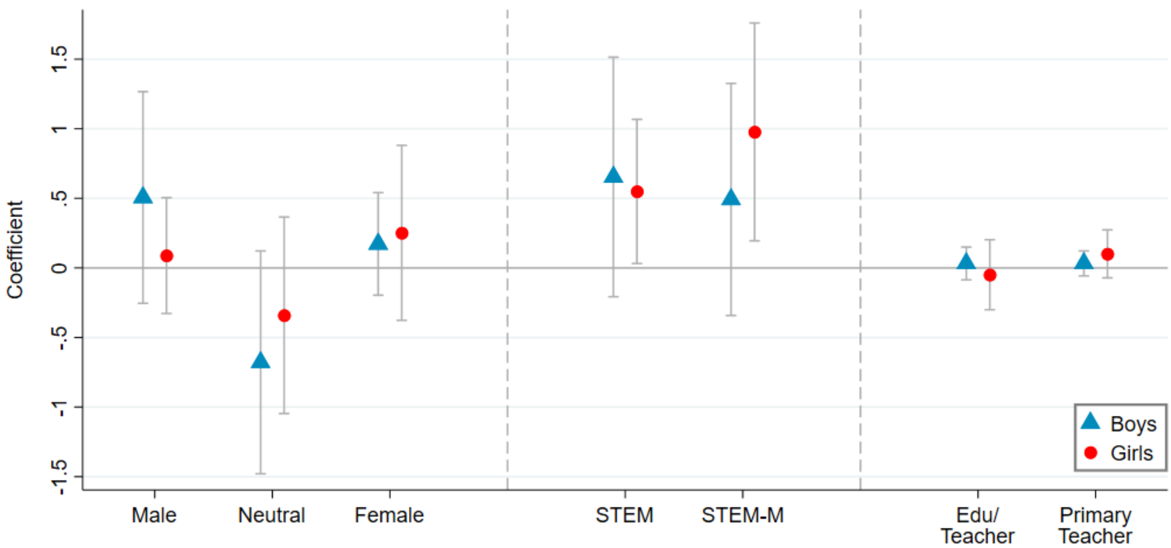
Note: IV estimates of Equation 10. Outcomes from left to right: "Applications" to upper secondary education (mutually exclusive categories): Pupils apply directly in spring of the year in which they turn 16 (Apply directly), they apply up to four years after they have turned 16 (Apply late), or they apply never or later than five years after having turned 16 (Apply never). "Allocation": Pupils obtain one of their first two preferred choices in the application (Preferred choice), or do not obtain a study slot (No spot). "Enrollment": Pupils are enrolled in upper secondary education in the fall of the year in which they turn 16 (Enrolled at age 16), and ever enrolled in upper secondary education up to age 25 (Ever enrolled). Individual level controls are measured at age 7 and include gender, language (SE/FI/other), foreign origin, single parent HH, highest level of education in HH. Standard errors clustered at the municipality level.
(back)

Figure 11

(a) Education field at age 25



(b) By gender: Education field at age 25



Note: IV estimates of Equation 10, separate regressions by gender. Outcomes from left to right: Field is 'Male' dominated (≥ 40% male), (gender) 'Neutral' or 'Female' dominated (≥ 40% female). Field is STEM or STEM + Medicine (STEM-M). Field is Education Science or Teacher. Field is Primary School Teacher. Individual level controls are measured at age 7 and include gender, language (SE/FI/other), foreign origin, single parent HH, highest level of education in HH. Standard errors clustered at the municipality level. (back)

Table 1: Summary statistics of teachers by gender

	Quota			Post Quota		
Variable	Female	Male	Difference	Female	Male	Difference
A) Background and current place of living						
Urban residence at birth	0.586	0.562	-0.023***	0.612	0.590	-0.022***
			(0.007)			(0.007)
Rural residence at birth	0.371	0.392	0.021**	0.358	0.376	0.018**
			(0.007)			(0.006)
Born on Russian territory	0.043	0.046	0.003	0.028	0.033	0.005*
			(0.003)			(0.002)
Finnish mother tongue	0.922	0.947	0.025***	0.916	0.940	0.024***
			(0.004)			(0.004)
Lives in region of birth	0.457	0.488	0.031***	0.473	0.496	0.023***
			(0.007)			(0.007)
Lives in municipality of birth	0.229	0.268	0.039***	0.249	0.277	0.028***
			(0.006)			(0.006)
B) Education path (born after 1952)						
High school degree	0.980	0.979	-0.002	0.983	0.980	-0.003
			(0.003)			(0.003)
Teaching degree	0.894	0.889	-0.005	0.920	0.910	-0.010
			(0.007)			(0.006)
Age at high school degree	19.25	19.47	0.23***	19.23	19.46	0.23***
			(0.02)			(0.02)
Age at teacher degree	25.54	26.50	0.96***	25.48	26.48	1.00***
			(0.09)			(0.09)
C) Academic performance (born after 1952)						
Matriculation exam	0.986	0.984	-0.003	0.982	0.976	-0.006**
			(0.003)			(0.004)
National percentile rank, first take	62.85	50.73	-12.12***	61.01	50.46	-10.54***
			(0.36)			(0.31)
National percentile rank, best take	63.86	52.40	-11.45***	62.00	52.05	-9.96***
			(0.34)			(0.30)
Mathematics exam	0.741	0.826	0.086***	0.768	0.842	0.074***
			(0.009)			(0.007)
Advanced mathematics exam	0.281	0.387	0.106***	0.268	0.390	0.122***
			(0.010)			(0.008)

Note: Characteristics of male and female primary school teachers who are active teachers for at least one year in the quota period (1990-93) or in the post quota period (1994-2000) and who are between 24 and 60 years old.(back)

Table 2: First stage at the municipal level

	First Differences				Fixed Effects		
Dependent variable	Δ male				share male		
Share 60	0.062	0.062	0.070*	0.072*			
	(0.038)	(0.039)	(0.041)	(0.039)			
Share 60 * post	−0.165***	−0.170***	−0.175***	−0.161***			
	(0.044)	(0.044)	(0.046)	(0.044)			
Cumul 60					0.068	0.099**	0.078*
					(0.043)	(0.045)	(0.043)
Cumul 60 * post					−0.218***	−0.243***	−0.194***
					(0.049)	(0.054)	(0.049)
M*Post FE					X	X	X
Y FE		X		X	X		X
R*Y FE			X			X	
M*Y controls				X			X
Adj. R^2	0.017	0.022	0.018	0.025	0.869	0.867	0.869
Obs	4448	4448	4448	4448	4443	4443	4443
Dep mean	.0007	.0007	.0007	.0007	.3601	.3601	.3601

Note: Estimates for Equation 9 (columns 1-4) and Equation 8 (columns 5-7). Standard errors clustered at the municipality level. Regressions weighted by population, means unweighted. Time-varying municipal controls include log population, log household income, share unemployed, share of adult population with compulsory, secondary and tertiary education, share of families in single parent HH. * p<0.1, ** p<0.05, *** p<0.01 (back)

Table 3: Pupil level first stage, reduced form and IV for being Employed/Student at age 25

	First stage			RF			IV		
	Avg share male			Employed or student			Employed or student		
Total share 60	0.034	0.034	0.044	0.031	0.032	0.042	0.021	0.019	0.020
	(0.036)	(0.036)	(0.037)	(0.028)	(0.028)	(0.029)	(0.026)	(0.027)	(0.027)
Total share 60 *	–0.177***	–0.177***	–0.168***	–0.053	–0.071**	–0.086***			
post	(0.042)	(0.042)	(0.043)	(0.033)	(0.032)	(0.033)			
Avg share male							0.297	0.403*	0.512**
							(0.215)	(0.216)	(0.243)
Municipal FE	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Cohort FE	X	X		X	X		X	X	
Region*Cohort FE			X			X			X
Ind. controls		X	X		X	X		X	X
MOP F^{eff}							17.96	17.94	15.37
Adj. R^2	0.916	0.916	0.921	0.008	0.025	0.025			
Obs	811,392	811,392	811,392	811,392	811,392	811,392	811,392	811,392	811,392
Dep mean	.3133	.3133	.3133	.8423	.8423	.8423	.8423	.8423	.8423

Note: Columns 1-3 show estimates for Equation 11 with the average share male teachers pupils are exposed to during primary school as the outcome. Columns 4-6 show reduced form estimates (corresponding to Equation 11), and Columns 7-9 show IV estimates of Equation 10 with being either employed or a student at age 25 as the outcome. Standard errors clustered at the municipality level. Individual level controls are measured at age 7 and include gender, language (SE/FI/other), foreign origin, single parent HH, highest level of education in HH. Standard errors clustered at the municipality level. MOP F^{eff} is Olea and Pflueger (2013) effective F-statistic. * p<0.1, ** p<0.05, *** p<0.01 (back)

Table 4: Labor market outcomes at age 25

	Employed/ Student	Un- employed	DI/ Pension	Other out of LF
Avg share male	0.512**	–0.038	–0.124	–0.327**
	(0.243)	(0.153)	(0.076)	(0.137)
Municipal FE	X	X	X	X
Region*Cohort FE	X	X	X	X
Ind. controls	X	X	X	X
MOP F^{eff}	15.37	15.37	15.37	15.37
Obs	811,392	811,392	811,392	811,392
Dep mean	.842	.086	.017	.053
Std effect	.089	-.009	-.061	-.093

Note: IV estimates of Equation 10. Outcomes are mutually exclusive categories of pupils' labor market status measured at age 25: Being in employment or a student, unemployed, on disability insurance (DI) or receiving pension payments, or being out of the labor force for other reasons. Individual level controls are measured at age 7 and include gender, language (SE/FI/other), foreign origin, single parent HH, highest level of education in HH. This table and all other labor market status results at age 25 do not report estimates for the separate category of "conscripts/community service" that contains a total of 1185 observations. Standard errors clustered at the municipality level. * p<0.1, ** p<0.05, *** p<0.01 (back)

Table 5: Highest degree achieved at age 25

	Compulsory	Vocational			Academic		
	schooling	Sec	Sec Plus	Tert	Sec	Tert: BA	Tert: MA
Avg share male	–0.169	–0.055	0.426**	–0.079	–0.438*	0.386***	–0.070
	(0.154)	(0.260)	(0.208)	(0.211)	(0.228)	(0.146)	(0.093)
Municipal FE	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Region*Cohort FE	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Ind. controls	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
MOP F^{eff}	15.36	15.36	15.36	15.36	15.36	15.36	15.36
Obs	810,065	810,065	810,065	810,065	810,065	810,065	810,065
Dep mean	.127	.316	.108	.146	.211	.054	.038
Std effect	-.032	-.008	.088	-.014	-.068	.108	-.023

Note: IV estimates of Equation 10. Outcomes are mutually exclusive categories of pupils' highest degree achieved at age 25: Having only Compulsory education. For the Vocational track: Having a basic three year secondary degree (Sec), having additional qualifications or high school coursework beyond a basic degree (Sec Plus), having a tertiary degree from a polytechnic (Tert). For the Academic track: Having a three year high school degree (Sec), having a three year university BA degree (Tert: BA), having a two year university MA degree (Tert: MA) or higher. Individual level controls are measured at age 7 and include gender, language (SE/FI/other), foreign origin, single parent HH, highest level of education in HH. Standard errors clustered at the municipality level. * p<0.1, ** p<0.05, *** p<0.01 (back)

Table 6: First stage, reduced form and IV: Applications for post-compulsory education

	First stage			RF			IV		
	Avg share male			Apply			Apply		
Total share 60	0.033	0.033	0.043	0.048**	0.048**	0.018	0.031	0.025	–0.001
	(0.036)	(0.036)	(0.037)	(0.020)	(0.021)	(0.021)	(0.025)	(0.027)	(0.020)
Total share 60 * post	–0.176***	–0.176***	–0.168***	–0.096***	–0.122***	–0.071***			
	(0.042)	(0.042)	(0.043)	(0.026)	(0.031)	(0.027)			
Avg share male							0.544***	0.696***	0.424**
							(0.202)	(0.234)	(0.197)
Municipal FE	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Cohort FE	X	X		X	X		X	X	
Region*Cohort FE			X			X			X
Ind. controls		X	X		X	X		X	X
MOP F^{eff}							17.66	17.64	15.28
Adj. R^2	0.916	0.916	0.922	0.038	0.069	0.070			
Obs	825,094	825,094	825,094	825,094	825,094	825,094	825,094	825,094	825,094
Dep mean	.313	.313	.313	.9106	.9106	.9106	.9106	.9106	.9106

Note: Columns 1-3 show estimates for Equation 11 with the average share male teachers pupils are exposed to during primary school as the outcome. Columns 4-6 show reduced form estimates (corresponding to Equation 11), and Columns 7-9 show IV estimates of Equation 10, with a pupil applying directly in the spring of the year they turn 16 (i.e. the last year of middle school) as the outcome. Individual level controls are measured at age 7 and include gender, language (SE/FI/other), foreign origin, single parent HH, highest level of education in HH. Standard errors clustered at the municipality level. * p<0.1, ** p<0.05, *** p<0.01 (back)

Table 7: Applications and enrollment for post-compulsory education

	Apply directly	Apply late	Apply never	Pref. choice	No spot	Enrolled at 16	Enrolled ever
Avg share male	0.424**	–0.353**	–0.071	0.547**	–0.145	0.608**	0.124*
	(0.197)	(0.178)	(0.073)	(0.244)	(0.098)	(0.309)	(0.074)
Municipal FE	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Region*Cohort FE	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Ind. controls	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
MOP F^{eff}	15.28	15.28	15.28	15.28	15.28	13.00	13.00
Obs	825,094	825,094	825,094	825,094	825,094	695,340	695,340
Dep mean	.911	.067	.022	.862	.04	.861	.98
Std effect	.095	-.09	-.031	.101	-.047	.11	.055

Note: IV estimates for Equation 10. Outcomes in columns 1-3 are mutually exclusive categories of applications to upper secondary education: Pupils apply directly in spring of the year in which they turn 16 (Apply directly), they apply up to four years after they have turned 16 (Apply late), or they apply never or later than five years after having turned 16 (Apply never). "Allocation" (columns 4-5): Pupils obtain one of their first two preferred choices in the application (Pref. choice), or do not obtain a study slot (No spot). "Enrollment" (columns 6-7): Pupils are enrolled in upper secondary education in the fall of the year in which they turn 16 (Enrolled at age 16), and ever enrolled in upper secondary education up to age 25 (Ever enrolled). Individual level controls are measured at age 7 and include gender, language (SE/FI/other), foreign origin, single parent HH, highest level of education in HH. Standard errors clustered at the municipality level. Standard errors clustered at the municipality level. * p<0.1, ** p<0.05, *** p<0.01 (back)

Table 8: All: Field of education at age 25

	Male	Neutral	Female	STEM	STEM-M	Education/ Teacher	Primary Teacher
Avg share male	0.302	–0.500*	0.197	0.595**	0.707**	–0.013	0.063
	(0.229)	(0.286)	(0.191)	(0.273)	(0.323)	(0.073)	(0.049)
Municipal FE	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Region*Cohort FE	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Ind. controls	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
MOP F^{eff}	15.37	15.37	15.37	15.37	15.37	15.37	15.37
Obs	811,392	811,392	811,392	811,392	811,392	811,392	811,392
Dep mean	.303	.433	.264	.264	.379	.023	.011
Std effect	.042	-.064	.028	.086	.093	-.006	.039

Note: IV estimates of Equation 10. Outcomes from left to right: Field is 'Male' dominated ($\geq$ 40% male), gender 'Neutral' or 'Female' dominated ($\geq$ 40% female), based on previous generation. Field is STEM or STEM + Medicine (STEM-M). Field is Education Science or Teacher. Field is Primary School Teacher. Individual level controls are measured at age 7 and include language (SE/FI), foreign origin, single parent HH, highest degree attained in HH. Standard errors clustered at the municipality level. * p<0.1, ** p<0.05, *** p<0.01 (back)

Table 9: Exit and hiring patterns in municipalities

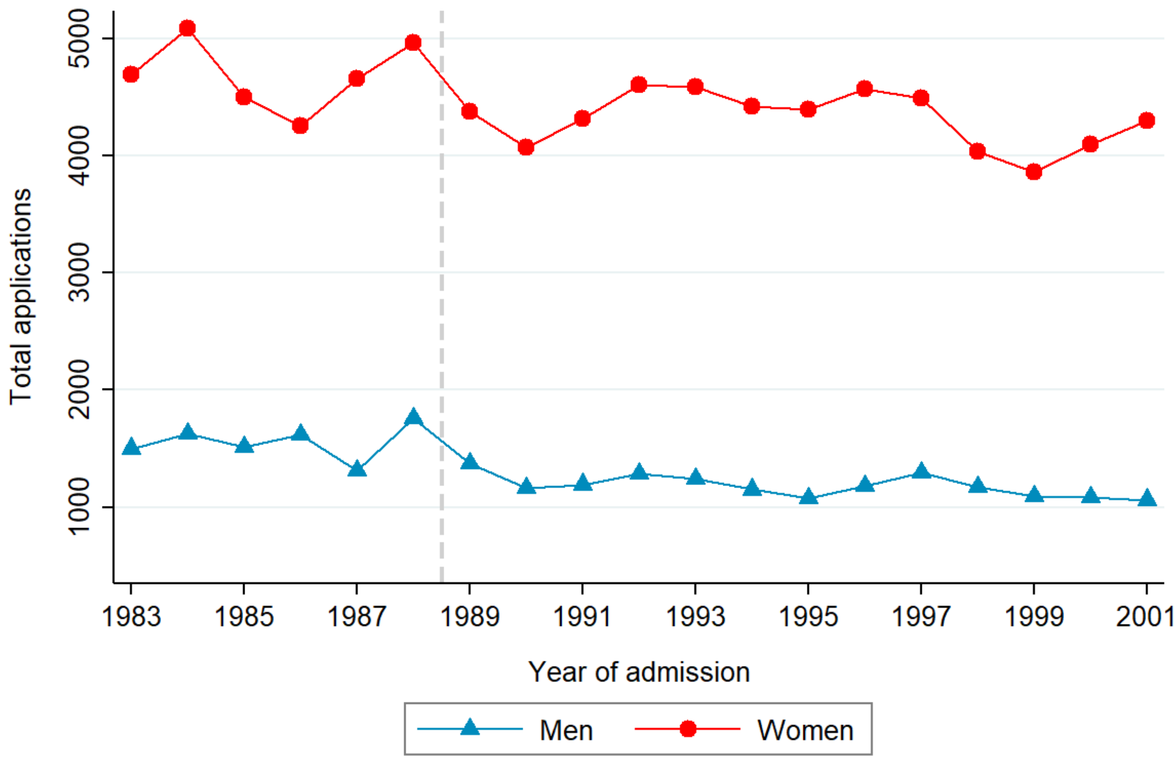
	Leave	Leave $\leq$ 55	Δ Age	Δ Time since degree	First entrants
Share 60	0.873***	–0.049	–16.088***	–15.599***	0.335
	(0.061)	(0.057)	(1.215)	(1.154)	(0.315)
Share 60 * post	0.041	–0.000	–1.300	–1.051	–0.043
	(0.067)	(0.063)	(1.387)	(1.323)	(0.375)
Y FE	X	X	X	X	X
Adj. R^2	0.176	0.011	0.222	0.211	0.038
Obs	4448	4448	4448	4448	3746
Dep mean	.1	.07	-.21	-.2	.35

Estimates for Equation 9. Outcomes from left to right are: Share of teachers exiting, share of teachers below age 55 exiting, year-on-year changes in average age of all local teachers (Δ Age), average time since obtaining a teaching degree of all local teachers (Δ Time since degree). The share of new teacher arriving that are first entrants defined as not having taught before and being below age 28 (column 5). Standard errors clustered at the municipality level. Regressions weighted by population, means unweighted. * p<0.1, ** p<0.05, *** p<0.01 (back)

Appendix Tables and Figures

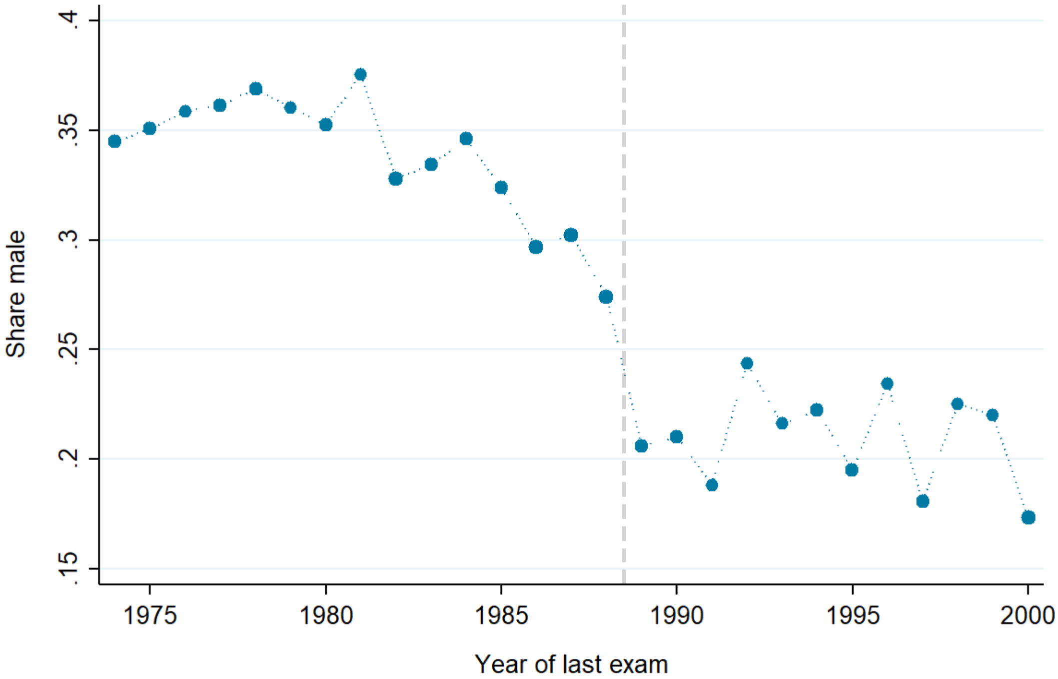
A Applications and graduates

Figure A1: Total applications by gender



Note: Total number of male and female applicants to primary teacher studies. *Source:* Liimatainen (2002). (back)

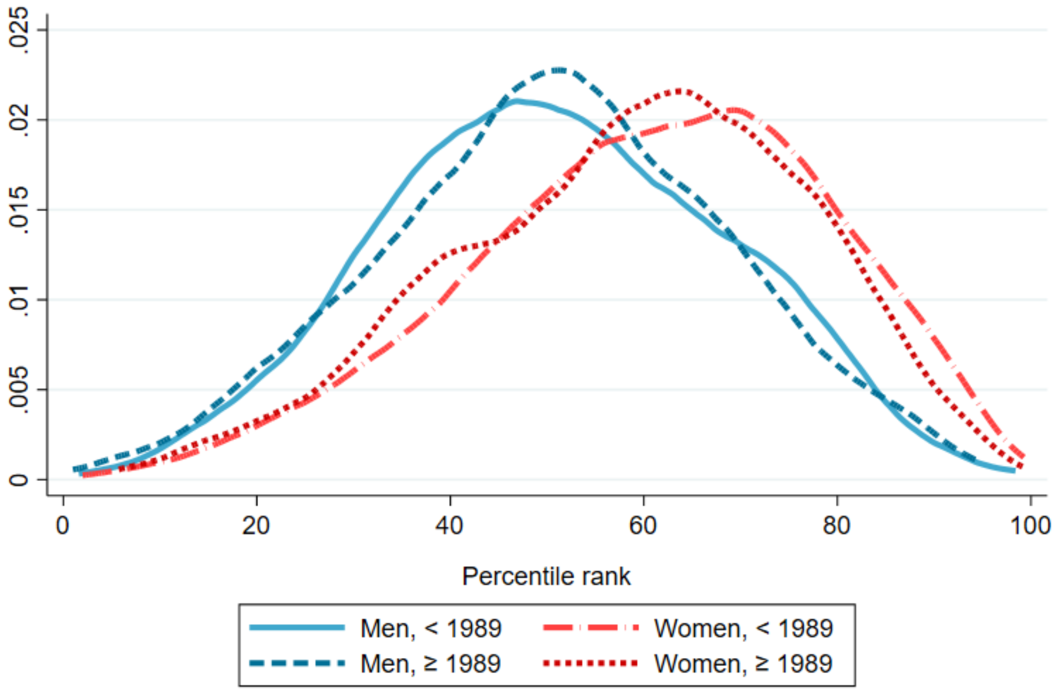
Figure A2: Share male among primary school teaching degree holders by year of last matriculation exam



Note: Share male among primary school teacher degree holders, by the last year in which they took the matriculation exam, which qualifies applicants for university admissions. Exam takers in 1989 (dashed grey line) and thereafter will have studied after the male quota was abolished. The gradual drop before 1989 is consistent with a setting in which students apply multiple years in a row. (back)

B Teacher's matriculation scores

Figure A3: Distribution of matriculation exam percentile rank by teacher gender



Note: Smoothed density of national percentile rank across all subjects in the matriculation exam among primary school teachers, by gender and year in which they took the matriculation exam (qualifies applicants for university admissions). Bundled into six cohorts of exam takers pre-1989, and six cohorts in 1989 and thereafter. Cohorts taking the exam in 1989 and thereafter will have studied after the male primary teacher quota was abolished. (back)

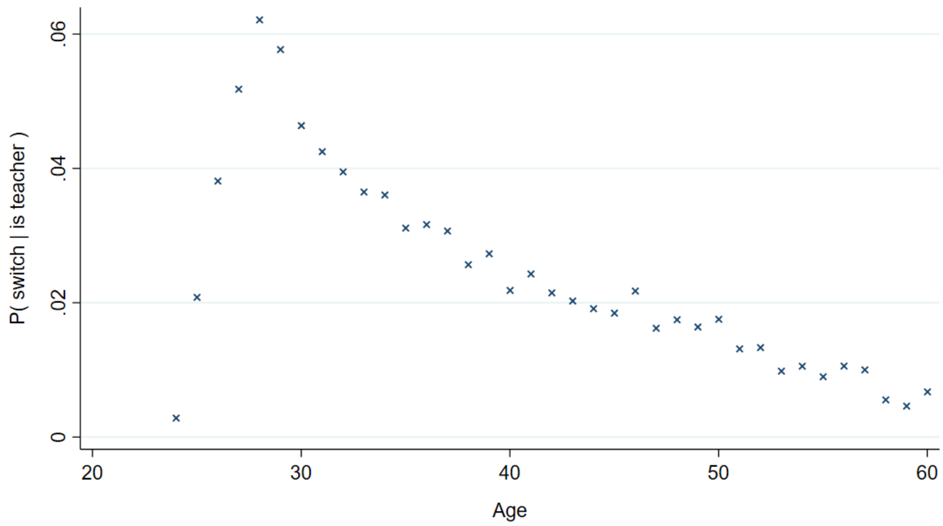
Table A1: Summary statistics of teachers by gender: Matriculation exam percentile scores

	Quota			Post Quota		
Variable	Female	Male	Difference	Female	Male	Difference
Scores by subject, first take (born after 1952)						
Mother tongue	68.19	55.59	-12.60***	66.77	54.81	-11.96***
			(0.53)			(0.44)
2nd national lang.	62.87	47.38	-15.50***	61.17	46.95	-14.22***
			(0.53)			(0.45)
Foreign language	60.94	49.52	-11.42***	57.85	48.82	-9.03***
			(0.52)			(0.45)
Standard math	59.02	51.72	-7.30***	58.38	52.66	-5.73***
			(0.88)			(0.72)
Advanced math	48.69	39.68	-9.01***	46.74	40.50	-6.24***
			(0.88)			(0.74)
Sciences	65.30	54.20	-11.09***	63.63	54.35	-9.29***
			(0.53)			(0.44)

Note: Characteristics of male and female primary school teachers who are active teachers for at least one year in the quota period (1990-93) or in the post quota period (1994-2000) and who are between 24 and 60 years old. * p<0.1, ** p<0.05, *** p<0.01 (back)

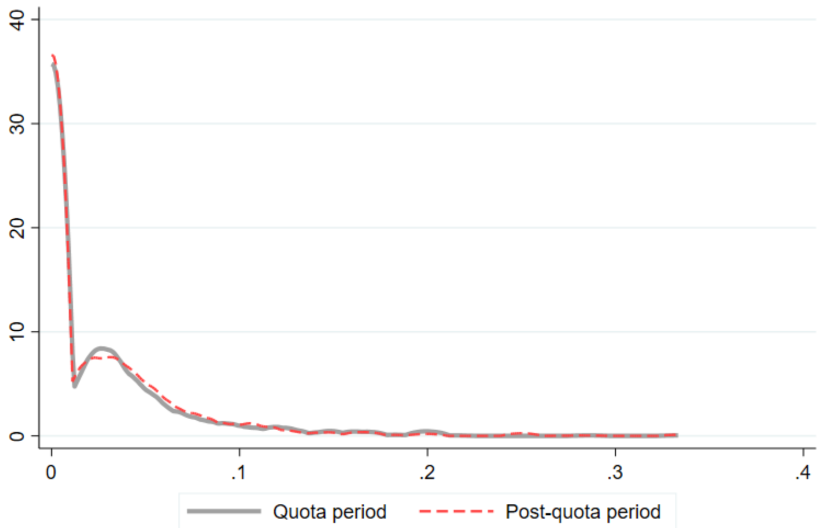
C Teacher switching and retirement

Figure A4: Probability of switching municipality of work for active teachers by age



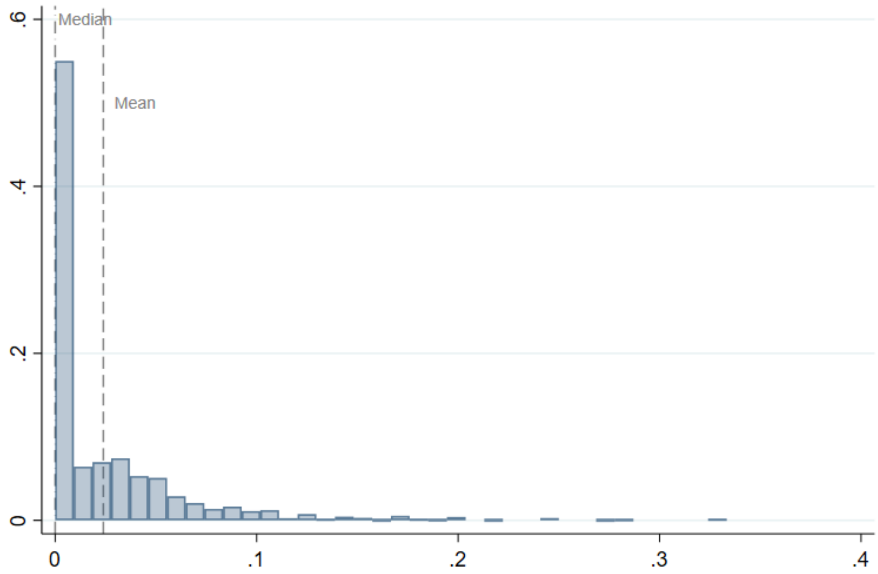
Note: Share of primary school teachers having switched the municipality in which they are working as a primary school teacher at a given age, conditional on having worked as a primary school teacher in the previous year. Data for all active primary school teachers in the years 1990-2000. (back)

Figure A5: Distribution of share primary teachers turning 60



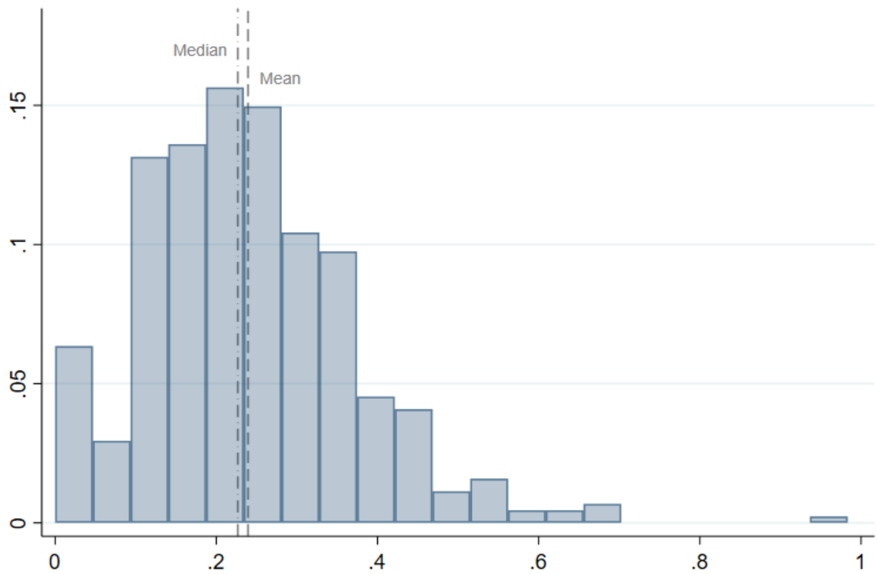
Note: Smoothed density of yearly municipal share of primary school teachers turning 60, separately by years in the quota period (1991-93) and post-quota period (1994-2000). (back)

Figure A6: Distribution of share primary teachers turning 60 (yearly)



Note: Histogram of yearly municipal share of primary school teachers turning 60. (back)

Figure A7: Distribution of total share primary teachers turning 60, 1991-2000



Note: Histogram of cumulative municipal share of primary school teachers turning 60 (adding up all retirements within municipality from 1991-2000). (back)

D First stage: Teacher test scores

Table A2: First stage: Teachers' matriculation exam scores

	Total	Language	Math	Science
Total share 60	–1.07	–4.27	–3.51	–1.09
	(4.25)	(5.09)	(7.67)	(5.45)
Total share 60 * post	1.25	3.02	1.28	1.95
	(4.70)	(5.68)	(8.55)	(6.08)
M*Post FE	X	X	X	X
Y FE	X	X	X	X
Adj. R^2	0.85	0.86	0.80	0.82
Obs	4329	4329	4314	4317
Dep mean	58.88	60.92	52.17	61.93

Note: Estimates for Equation 8 with average of local teachers' national percentile rank in first attempt of matriculation exam as the outcome. Language includes scores for mother tongue (FI/SE) and second national language (SE/FI). Science (Reaali) scores include the combined scores across subjects ranging from history and religion to chemistry and physics. Data available only for teacher cohorts born after 1952. Sample is restricted to municipalities where there is at least one teacher with observed score in 1991. Standard errors clustered at the municipality level. Regressions weighted by population. * p<0.1, ** p<0.05, *** p<0.01 (back)

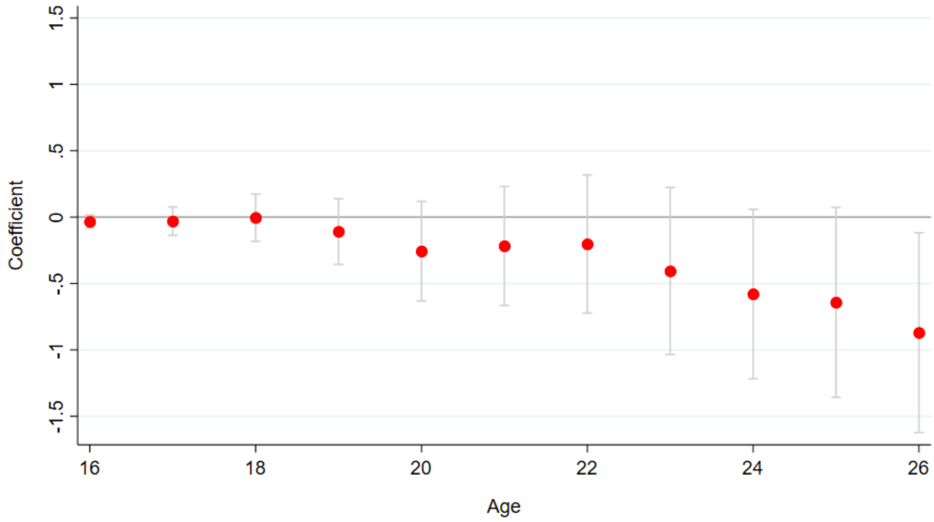
Table A3: First stage in teacher score sample

Total share 60	0.067
	(0.043)
Total share 60 * post	–0.223***
	(0.050)
M*Post FE	X
Y FE	
R*Y FE	X
M*Y controls	
Adj. R^2	0.870
Obs	4351
Dep mean	.34

Note: Estimates for Equation 8 for restricted sample of municipalities where at least one teacher test score is observable at baseline. Standard errors clustered at the municipality level. Regressions weighted by population, means unweighted. * p<0.1, ** p<0.05, *** p<0.01 (back)

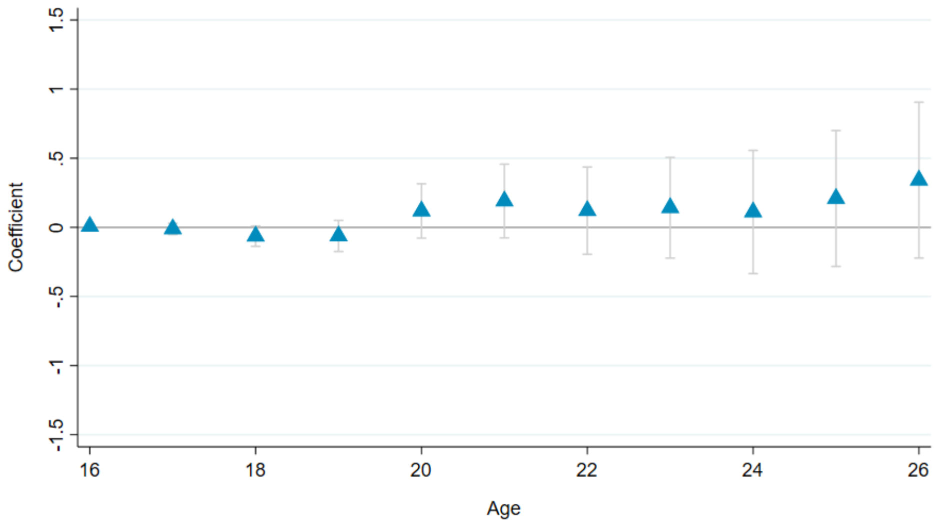
E Fertility

Figure A8: Female pupils: Probability of first birth having occurred by age



Note: IV estimates of Equation 10. Outcome: First birth having occurred by age. Individual level controls are measured at age 7 and include language (SE/FI/other), foreign origin, single parent HH, highest level of education in HH. Standard errors clustered at the municipality level. (back)

Figure A9: Male pupils: Probability of first birth having occurred by age



Note: IV estimates of Equation 10. Outcome: First birth having occurred by age. Individual level controls are measured at age 7 and include language (SE/FI/other), foreign origin, single parent HH, highest level of education in HH. Standard errors clustered at the municipality level. (back)

Table A4: Female pupils: Probability of first birth having occurred by age

	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26
Avg share male	–0.034	–0.031	–0.004	–0.109	–0.257	–0.217	–0.203	–0.406	–0.579*	–0.642*	–0.871**
	(0.026)	(0.055)	(0.091)	(0.126)	(0.191)	(0.229)	(0.266)	(0.321)	(0.326)	(0.365)	(0.384)
Municipal FE	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Region*Cohort FE	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Ind. controls	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
MOP F^{eff}	15.75	15.75	15.75	15.75	15.75	15.75	15.75	15.75	15.75	15.75	15.75
Obs	396,108	396,108	396,108	396,108	396,108	396,108	396,108	396,108	396,108	396,108	396,108
Dep mean	.001	.005	.013	.03	.056	.087	.119	.152	.188	.229	.273
Std effect	-.059	-.028	-.002	-.041	-.071	-.049	-.04	-.072	-.094	-.097	-.124

Table A5: Male pupils: Probability of first birth having occurred by age

	16	17	18	19	20	21	22	23	24	25	26
Avg share male	0.007	–0.011	–0.064*	–0.063	0.119	0.190	0.121	0.142	0.111	0.209	0.342
	(0.009)	(0.021)	(0.037)	(0.057)	(0.100)	(0.136)	(0.161)	(0.186)	(0.227)	(0.251)	(0.288)
Municipal FE	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Region*Cohort FE	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Ind. controls	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
MOP F^{eff}	14.92	14.92	14.92	14.92	14.92	14.92	14.92	14.92	14.92	14.92	14.92
Obs	415,679	415,679	415,679	415,679	415,679	415,679	415,679	415,679	415,679	415,679	415,679
Dep mean	0	.001	.003	.008	.018	.032	.052	.075	.101	.131	.165
Std effect	.027	-.023	-.076	-.045	.057	.069	.035	.034	.023	.039	.059

Note: IV estimates for Equation 10. Outcome is the likelihood of having had the first birth (for male pupils: becoming a father) by age, from 16 to 26. Individual level controls are measured at age 7 and include language (SE/FI/other), foreign origin, single parent HH, highest level of education in HH. Standard errors clustered at the municipality level. * p<0.1, ** p<0.05, *** p<0.01 (back)

F Reduced form

Table A6: Reduced Form: Labor market outcomes at age 25

	Employed/ Student	Un- employed	DI/ Pension	Other out of LF
Total share 60	0.042	–0.001	–0.005	–0.034**
	(0.029)	(0.022)	(0.009)	(0.015)
Total share 60 * post	–0.086***	0.006	0.021*	0.055***
	(0.033)	(0.026)	(0.011)	(0.018)
Municipal FE	X	X	X	X
Region*Cohort FE	X	X	X	X
Ind. controls	X	X	X	X
Obs	811,392	811,392	811,392	811,392
Dep mean	.842	.086	.017	.053

Note: Reduced Form estimates as in Equation 11. Outcomes are mutually exclusive categories of pupils' labor market status measured at age 25: Being in employment or a student, unemployed, on disability insurance (DI) or receiving pension payments, or being out of the labor force for other reasons. Individual level controls are measured at age 7 and include gender, language (SE/FI/other), foreign origin, single parent HH, highest level of education in HH. Standard errors clustered at the municipality level. * p<0.1, ** p<0.05, *** p<0.01 (back)

Table A7: Reduced Form: Highest degree achieved at age 25

	Compulsory schooling	Vocational			Academic		
		Sec	Sec Plus	Tert	Sec	Tert: BA	Tert: MA
Total share 60	–0.007	–0.005	0.029	–0.005	–0.034	0.027	–0.005
	(0.019)	(0.036)	(0.023)	(0.028)	(0.027)	(0.016)	(0.012)
Total share 60 *	0.029	0.009	–0.072**	0.013	0.074**	–0.065***	0.012
post	(0.024)	(0.044)	(0.029)	(0.036)	(0.034)	(0.022)	(0.015)
Municipal FE	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Region*Cohort FE	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Ind. controls	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Obs	810,065	810,065	810,065	810,065	810,065	810,065	810,065
Dep mean	.127	.316	.108	.146	.211	.054	.038

Note: Reduced Form estimates as in Equation 11. Outcomes are mutually exclusive categories of pupils' highest degree achieved at age 25: Having only Compulsory education. For the Vocational track: Having a basic three year secondary degree (Sec), having additional qualifications or high school coursework beyond a basic degree (Sec Plus), having a tertiary degree from a polytechnic (Tert). For the Academic track: Having a three year high school degree (Sec), having a three year university BA degree (Tert: BA), having a two year university MA degree (Tert: MA) or higher. Individual level controls are measured at age 7 and include gender, language (SE/FI/other), foreign origin, single parent HH, highest level of education in HH. Standard errors clustered at the municipality level. * p<0.1, ** p<0.05, *** p<0.01 (back)

Table A8: Reduced Form: Applications and enrollment for post-compulsory education

	Apply directly	Apply late	Apply never	Pref. choice	No spot	Enrolled at 16	Enrolled ever
Total share 60	0.018	–0.021	0.003	–0.010	0.002	0.026	0.005
	(0.021)	(0.019)	(0.009)	(0.027)	(0.014)	(0.028)	(0.008)
Total share 60 *	–0.071***	0.059**	0.012	–0.092***	0.024	–0.089**	–0.018*
post	(0.027)	(0.025)	(0.012)	(0.035)	(0.016)	(0.035)	(0.010)
Municipal FE	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Region*Cohort FE	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Ind. controls	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Obs	825,094	825,094	825,094	825,094	825,094	695,340	695,340
Dep mean	.911	.067	.022	.862	.04	.861	.98

Note: Reduced Form estimates as in Equation 11. Outcomes in columns 1-3 are mutually exclusive categories of applications to upper secondary education: Pupils apply directly in spring of the year in which they turn 16 (Apply directly), they apply up to four years after they have turned 16 (Apply late), or they apply never or later than five years after having turned 16 (Apply never). “Allocation” (columns 4-5): Pupils obtain one of their first two preferred choices in the application (Pref. choice), or do not obtain a study slot (No spot). “Enrollment” (columns 6-7): Pupils are enrolled in upper secondary education in the fall of the year in which they turn 16 (Enrolled at age 16), and ever enrolled in upper secondary education up to age 25 (Ever enrolled). Individual level controls are measured at age 7 and include gender, language (SE/FI/other), foreign origin, single parent HH, highest level of education in HH. Standard errors clustered at the municipality level. * p<0.1, ** p<0.05, *** p<0.01 (back)

G IV estimates by gender

Table A9: By gender: Labor market outcomes at age 25

	Employed/ Student	Un- employed	DI/ Pension	Other out of LF
Boys * avg share	0.685***	–0.007	–0.145*	–0.526***
male	(0.254)	(0.161)	(0.078)	(0.143)
Girls * avg	0.320	–0.079	–0.102	–0.099
share male	(0.243)	(0.156)	(0.077)	(0.139)
Municipal FE	X	X	X	X
Region*Cohort FE	X	X	X	X
Ind. controls	X	X	X	X
MOP F^{eff}	15.37	15.37	15.37	15.37
Obs	811,392	811,392	811,392	811,392
Boys: Dep mean	.84	.102	.019	.037
Girls: Dep mean	.845	.07	.015	.07
Boys: Std effect	.119	-.001	-.067	-.179
Girls: Std effect	.056	-.02	-.053	-.025

Note: IV estimates for Equation 10. Outcomes are mutually exclusive categories of pupils' labor market status measured at age 25: Being in employment or a student, unemployed, on disability insurance (DI) or receiving pension payments, or being out of the labor force for other reasons. Individual level controls are measured at age 7 and include gender, language (SE/FI/other), foreign origin, single parent HH, highest level of education in HH. Standard errors clustered at the municipality level. * p<0.1, ** p<0.05, *** p<0.01 (back)

Table A10: By gender: Highest degree achieved at age 25

	Compulsory	Vocational			Academic		
	schooling	Sec	Sec Plus	Tert	Sec	Tert: BA	Tert: MA
Boys * avg share	0.242	–0.194	0.458**	–0.262	–0.432*	0.317**	–0.128
male	(0.176)	(0.277)	(0.216)	(0.217)	(0.232)	(0.143)	(0.091)
Girls * avg	–0.632***	0.092	0.391*	0.133	–0.446*	0.465***	–0.003
share male	(0.185)	(0.274)	(0.208)	(0.219)	(0.236)	(0.156)	(0.101)
Municipal FE	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Region*Cohort FE	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Ind. controls	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
MOP F^{eff}	15.36	15.36	15.36	15.36	15.36	15.36	15.36
Obs	810,065	810,065	810,065	810,065	810,065	810,065	810,065
Boys: Dep mean	.152	.378	.081	.094	.231	.042	.022
Girls: Dep mean	.101	.251	.136	.201	.19	.067	.054
Boys: Std effect	.043	-.025	.107	-.057	-.065	.101	-.056
Girls: Std effect	-.133	.013	.073	.021	-.072	.118	-.001

Note: IV estimates for Equation 10. Outcomes are mutually exclusive categories of pupils' highest degree achieved at age 25: Having only Compulsory education. For the Vocational track: Having a basic three year secondary degree (Sec), having additional qualifications or high school coursework beyond a basic degree (Sec Plus), having a tertiary degree from a polytechnic (Tert). For the Academic track: Having a three year high school degree (Sec), having a three year university BA degree (Tert: BA), having a two year university MA degree (Tert: MA) or higher. Individual level controls are measured at age 7 and include gender, language (SE/FI/other), foreign origin, single parent HH, highest level of education in HH. Standard errors clustered at the municipality level. * p<0.1, ** p<0.05, *** p<0.01 (back)

Table A11: By gender: Applications and enrollment for post-compulsory education

	Apply directly	Apply late	Apply never	Pref. choice	No spot	Enrolled at 16	Enrolled ever
Boys * avg share	0.478**	−0.405**	−0.073	0.585**	−0.207**	0.720**	0.110
male	(0.205)	(0.184)	(0.076)	(0.254)	(0.104)	(0.323)	(0.079)
Girls * avg	0.364*	−0.294*	−0.070	0.498**	−0.073	0.474	0.141*
share male	(0.193)	(0.176)	(0.072)	(0.247)	(0.099)	(0.301)	(0.074)
Municipal FE	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Region*Cohort FE	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Ind. controls	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
MOP F^{eff}	15.28	15.28	15.28	15.28	15.28	13.00	13.00
Obs	825,094	825,094	825,094	825,094	825,094	695,340	695,340
Boys: Dep mean	.889	.086	.025	.857	.041	.845	.977
Girls: Dep mean	.933	.047	.02	.867	.039	.876	.982
Boys: Std effect	.097	-.092	-.03	.106	-.067	.124	.046
Girls: Std effect	.093	-.088	-.032	.093	-.024	.09	.066

Note: IV estimates for Equation 10. Outcomes in columns 1-3 are mutually exclusive categories of applications to upper secondary education: Pupils apply directly in spring of the year in which they turn 16 (Apply directly), they apply up to four years after they have turned 16 (Apply late), or they apply never or later than five years after having turned 16 (Apply never). "Allocation" (columns 4-5): Pupils obtain one of their first two preferred choices in the application (Pref. choice), or do not obtain a study slot (No spot). "Enrollment" (columns 6-7): Pupils are enrolled in upper secondary education in the fall of the year in which they turn 16 (Enrolled at age 16), and ever enrolled in upper secondary education up to age 25 (Ever enrolled). Individual level controls are measured at age 7 and include gender, language (SE/FI/other), foreign origin, single parent HH, highest level of education in HH. Standard errors clustered at the municipality level. * p<0.1, ** p<0.05, *** p<0.01 (back)

Table A12: By gender: Aspirations for post-compulsory education

	Apply never	Choose: any Voc	Choose: only Acad	Get: no spot	Get: Voc	Get: Acad
Boys * avg share male	–0.073	0.811**	–0.744**	–0.207**	0.263	0.017
	(0.076)	(0.381)	(0.375)	(0.104)	(0.324)	(0.350)
Girls * avg share male	–0.070	–0.367	0.431	–0.073	–0.820**	0.962***
	(0.072)	(0.402)	(0.395)	(0.099)	(0.348)	(0.371)
Municipal FE	X	X	X	X	X	X
Region*Cohort FE	X	X	X	X	X	X
Ind. controls	X	X	X	X	X	X
MOP F^{eff}	15.28	15.28	15.28	15.28	15.28	15.28
Obs	825,094	825,094	825,094	825,094	825,094	825,094
Boys: Dep mean	.025	.629	.346	.041	.501	.433
Girls: Dep mean	.02	.443	.537	.039	.329	.612
Boys: Std effect	-.03	.107	-.1	-.067	.034	.002
Girls: Std effect	-.032	-.047	.055	-.024	-.111	.126

Note: IV estimates for Equation 10. Outcomes are mutually exclusive categories for columns 1-3: Pupils ‘Apply Never’, pupils put in a vocational degree in any of five available choices (Choose any Voc), or pupils put in only academic track choices (Choose only Acad) (We don’t report an estimate for the separate category of 287 pupils who never put in a choice, but obtain a study slot nevertheless). Columns 1 and 4-6 are also mutually exclusive categories: Pupils ‘Apply never’, get allocated a spot in a vocational track (Voc), or get allocated a spot in the academic track (Acad). Individual level controls are measured at age 7 and include gender, language (SE/FI/other), foreign origin, single parent HH, highest level of education in HH. Standard errors clustered at the municipality level. * p<0.1, ** p<0.05, *** p<0.01 (back)

Table A13: Boys: Field of education at age 25

	Male	Neutral	Female	STEM	STEM-M	Education/ Teacher	Primary Teacher
Boys: Avg share male	0.506	–0.679*	0.172	0.653	0.492	0.032	0.032
	(0.388)	(0.408)	(0.188)	(0.439)	(0.425)	(0.060)	(0.046)
Municipal FE	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Region*Cohort FE	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Ind. controls	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
MOP F^{eff}	14.91	14.91	14.91	14.91	14.91	14.91	14.91
Obs	415,571	415,571	415,571	415,571	415,571	415,571	415,571
Dep mean	.526	.39	.084	.412	.446	.009	.005
Std effect	.065	-.089	.04	.085	.063	.022	.031

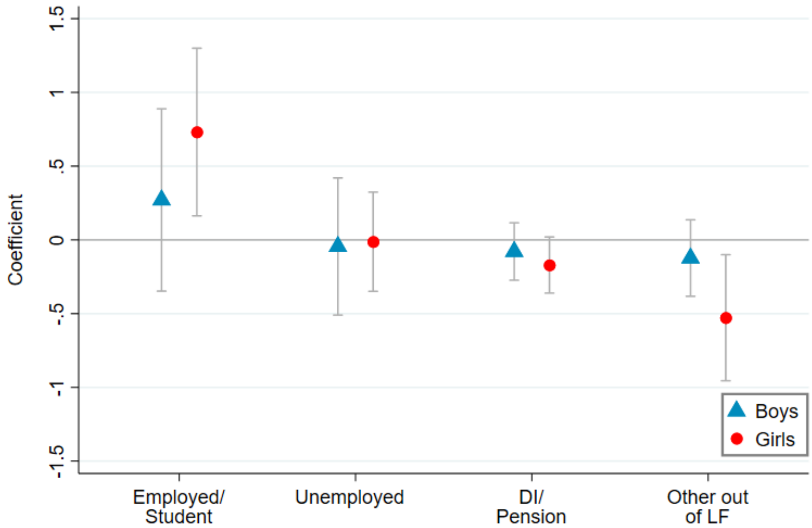
Table A14: Girls: Field of education at age 25

	Male	Neutral	Female	STEM	STEM-M	Education/ Teacher	Primary Teacher
Girls: Avg share male	0.089	–0.340	0.252	0.550**	0.977**	–0.049	0.101
	(0.212)	(0.360)	(0.321)	(0.264)	(0.399)	(0.128)	(0.088)
Municipal FE	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Region*Cohort FE	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Ind. controls	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
MOP F^{eff}	15.75	15.75	15.75	15.75	15.75	15.75	15.75
Obs	395,821	395,821	395,821	395,821	395,821	395,821	395,821
Dep mean	.069	.478	.453	.108	.309	.038	.017
Std effect	.022	-.043	.032	.113	.134	-.016	.05

Note: IV estimates for Equation 10, separate regressions by gender. Outcomes from left to right: Field is 'Male' dominated ($\geq$ 40% male), (gender) 'Neutral' or 'Female' dominated ($\geq$ 40% female), based on previous generation. Field is STEM or STEM + Medicine (STEM-M). Field is Education Science or Teacher. Field is Primary School Teacher. Individual level controls are measured at age 7 and include language (SE/FI), foreign origin, single parent HH, highest degree attained in HH. Standard errors clustered at the municipality level. * p<0.1, ** p<0.05, *** p<0.01 (back)

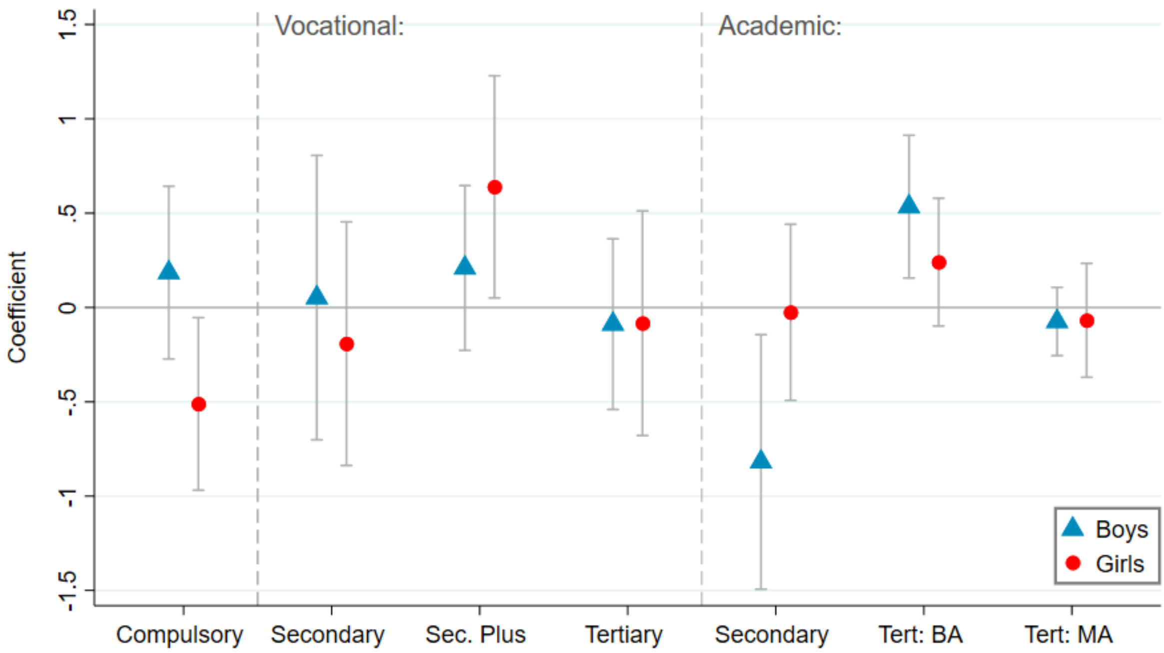
H Results by pupil gender: Split sample estimates

Figure A10: By gender: Labor market outcomes at age 25



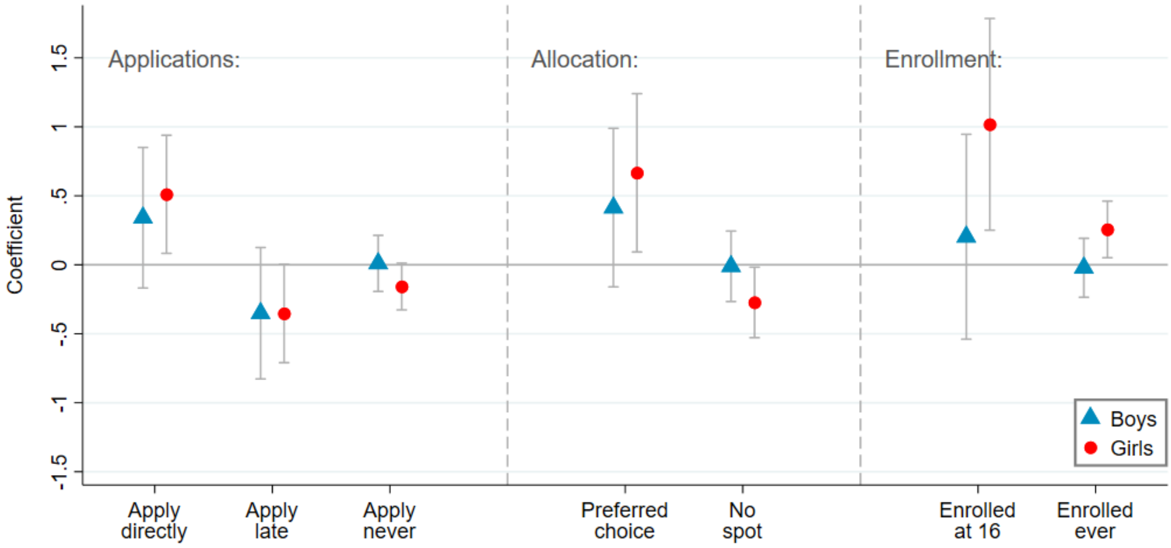
Note: IV estimates of Equation 10, split sample estimates by gender. See Figure 8b. (back)

Figure A11: By gender: Highest degree achieved at age 25



Note: IV estimates of Equation 10, split sample estimates by gender. See Figure 9b. (back)

Figure A12: By gender: Applications and enrollment for post-compulsory education



Note: IV estimates of Equation 10, split sample estimates by gender. See Figure 10b. (back)

I Results by single parent status

Table A15: By single parent status: Labor market outcomes at age 25

	Employed/ Student	Unemployed	DI/ Pension	Other out of LF
Both: Avg share	0.461*	–0.012	–0.107	–0.321**
male	(0.239)	(0.153)	(0.074)	(0.138)
Single: Avg	0.986***	–0.272	–0.315***	–0.354*
share male	(0.349)	(0.266)	(0.114)	(0.187)
Municipal FE	X	X	X	X
Region*Cohort FE	X	X	X	X
Ind. controls	X	X	X	X
MOP F^{eff}	15.32	15.32	15.32	15.32
Obs	804,799	804,799	804,799	804,799
Both: Dep mean	.854	.08	.016	.049
Single: Dep mean	.776	.125	.024	.075
Both: Std effect	.084	-.003	-.055	-.096
Single: Std effect	.138	-.048	-.121	-.079

Table A16: By single parent status: Highest degree achieved at age 25

	Compulsory		Vocational			Academic	
	schooling	Sec	Sec Plus	Tert	Sec	Tert: BA	Tert: MA
Both: Avg share	–0.226	0.025	0.384*	–0.093	–0.352	0.319**	–0.056
male	(0.155)	(0.263)	(0.205)	(0.211)	(0.228)	(0.145)	(0.093)
Single: Avg	0.233	–0.591	0.741***	0.077	–1.258***	1.027***	–0.229*
share male	(0.249)	(0.370)	(0.264)	(0.268)	(0.328)	(0.233)	(0.119)
Municipal FE	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Region*Cohort FE	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Ind. controls	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
MOP F^{eff}	15.31	15.31	15.31	15.31	15.31	15.31	15.31
Obs	803,494	803,494	803,494	803,494	803,494	803,494	803,494
Both: Dep mean	.11	.309	.11	.155	.217	.058	.041
Single: Dep mean	.227	.362	.097	.093	.171	.033	.018
Both: Std effect	-.047	.003	.079	-.017	-.055	.088	-.018
Single: Std effect	.032	-.072	.146	.015	-.195	.336	-.101

Note: IV estimates for Equation 10. Heterogeneity with respect to whether pupils live with two parents (Both) or a single parent (Single) at age 7. Outcomes are pupils' labor market status (see Table 4) and highest degree achieved (see Table 5). Individual level controls are measured at age 7 and include gender, language (SE/FI/other), foreign origin, single parent HH, highest level of education in HH. Standard errors clustered at the municipality level. * $p<0.1$, ** $p<0.05$, *** $p<0.01$ (back)

Table A17: By single parent status: Applications and enrollment for post-compulsory education

	Apply directly	Apply late	Apply never	Pref. choice	No spot	Enrolled at 16	Enrolled ever
Both: Avg share male	0.407**	–0.338*	–0.069	0.570**	–0.158	0.599*	0.154**
	(0.195)	(0.175)	(0.073)	(0.246)	(0.099)	(0.309)	(0.077)
Single: Avg share male	0.409	–0.277	–0.132	0.573*	–0.200	0.664	0.027
	(0.314)	(0.246)	(0.128)	(0.328)	(0.148)	(0.445)	(0.204)
Municipal FE	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Region*Cohort FE	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Ind. controls	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
MOP F^{eff}	15.23	15.23	15.23	15.23	15.23	12.94	12.94
Obs	818,112	818,112	818,112	818,112	818,112	689,105	689,105
Both: Dep mean	.922	.058	.02	.873	.035	.878	.984
Single: Dep mean	.849	.118	.034	.797	.072	.772	.962
Both: Std effect	.098	-.093	-.032	.11	-.055	.115	.077
Single: Std effect	.067	-.05	-.043	.083	-.045	.091	.008

Note: IV estimates for Equation 10. Heterogeneity with respect to whether pupils live with two parents (Both) or a single parent (Single) at age 7. Outcomes are pupils' applications to post-compulsory education (see Table 7). Individual level controls are measured at age 7 and include gender, language (SE/FI/other), foreign origin, single parent HH, highest level of education in HH. Standard errors clustered at the municipality level. * p<0.1, ** p<0.05, *** p<0.01 (back)

J Results controlling for teacher characteristics

Table A18: Applications for post-compulsory education

Apply	RF				IV			
Avg share male					0.424**	0.426**	0.432**	0.429**
					(0.197)	(0.194)	(0.199)	(0.195)
Total share 60	0.018	0.018	0.017	0.017	–0.001	–0.001	–0.001	–0.001
	(0.021)	(0.021)	(0.021)	(0.021)	(0.020)	(0.020)	(0.020)	(0.020)
Total share 60 * post	–0.071***	–0.072***	–0.072***	–0.072***				
	(0.027)	(0.027)	(0.027)	(0.027)				
Teacher testscores		–0.000		–0.000		0.001*		0.001*
		(0.000)		(0.000)		(0.001)		(0.001)
Teacher math background			0.000	0.000			–0.005	–0.008
			(0.015)	(0.015)			(0.020)	(0.020)
Municipal FE	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Cohort FE	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Region*Cohort FE	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Ind. controls	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
MOP F^{eff}					15.28	16.52	14.99	16.17
Adj. R^2	0.070	0.070	0.070	0.070				
Obs	825,094	825,032	825,032	825,032	825,094	825,032	825,032	825,032
Dep mean	.911	.911	.911	.911	.911	.911	.911	.911

Note: IV estimates for Equation 10. Outcome is a binary indicator if pupil applies to continued education at age 16 (see Table 7). Teacher testscores measures average percentile score of teacher body across a pupil's years in primary school. Teacher math background measures the average share of teachers who have taken mathematics in their matriculation exam across a pupil's years in primary school. Individual level controls are measured at age 7 and include gender, language (SE/FI/other), foreign origin, single parent HH, highest level of education in HH. Standard errors clustered at the municipality level. * p<0.1, ** p<0.05, *** p<0.01 (back)

Table A19: Employed/Student at age 25

Employed/Student	RF				IV			
Avg share male					0.512**	0.507**	0.507**	0.503**
					(0.243)	(0.237)	(0.244)	(0.238)
Total share 60	0.042	0.042	0.041	0.041	0.020	0.020	0.019	0.020
	(0.029)	(0.029)	(0.029)	(0.029)	(0.027)	(0.027)	(0.027)	(0.027)
Total share 60 * post	–0.086***	–0.086***	–0.085***	–0.085***				
	(0.033)	(0.033)	(0.033)	(0.033)				
Teacher testscores		0.000		0.000		0.001*		0.001*
		(0.000)		(0.000)		(0.001)		(0.001)
Teacher math background			0.021	0.021			0.014	0.011
			(0.016)	(0.016)			(0.022)	(0.022)
Municipal FE	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Cohort FE	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Region*Cohort FE	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Ind. controls	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
MOP F^{eff}					15.37	16.62	15.08	16.26
Adj. R^2	0.025	0.025	0.025	0.025				
Obs	811,392	811,331	811,331	811,331	811,392	811,331	811,331	811,331
Dep mean	.842	.842	.842	.842	.842	.842	.842	.842

Note: IV estimates for Equation 10. Outcome is a binary indicator if pupil is employed or a student at age 25 (see Table 4). Teacher testscores measures average percentile score of teacher body across years in primary school. Teacher math background measures the average share of teachers who have taken mathematics in their matriculation exam across years in primary school. Individual level controls are measured at age 7 and include gender, language (SE/FI/other), foreign origin, single parent HH, highest level of education in HH. Standard errors clustered at the municipality level.
* p<0.1, ** p<0.05, *** p<0.01 (back)

K Complementarities between male and female teachers

Table A20: Complementarities: Low share male - Main outcomes at age 25

	Employed/ Student	Un- employed	DI/ Pension	Other out of LF
Low: Avg share male	0.752	–0.149	–0.199	–0.344
	(0.599)	(0.342)	(0.197)	(0.294)
Municipal FE	X	X	X	X
Region*Cohort FE	X	X	X	X
Ind. controls	X	X	X	X
MOP F^{eff}	3.78	3.78	3.78	3.78
Obs	579,101	579,101	579,101	579,101
Dep mean	.846	.082	.017	.053
Std effect	.099	-.026	-.073	-.073

Table A21: Complementarities: High share male - Main outcomes at age 25

	Employed/ Student	Un- employed	DI/ Pension	Other out of LF
High: Avg share male	0.663	0.002	–0.208	–0.453
	(0.488)	(0.301)	(0.161)	(0.280)
Municipal FE	X	X	X	X
Region*Cohort FE	X	X	X	X
Ind. controls	X	X	X	X
MOP F^{eff}	5.00	5.00	5.00	5.00
Obs	226,794	226,794	226,794	226,794
Dep mean	.832	.097	.018	.052
Std effect	.098	0	-.088	-.113

Note: IV estimates for Equation 10, split sample by initial share male teachers in a municipality in 1990. Outcomes are pupils' labor market status (c.f. Table 5). Individual level controls are measured at age 7 and include gender, language (SE/FI/other), foreign origin, single parent HH, highest level of education in HH. Standard errors clustered at the municipality level. * p<0.1, ** p<0.05, *** p<0.01 (back)

L Maternity/Paternity of teachers

Table A22: Teachers having children in municipalities

	Birth total	Birth fem	Birth male	Maternity leave
Share 60	–0.127***	–0.109***	–0.018	–0.003
	(0.040)	(0.029)	(0.025)	(0.030)
Share 60 * post	0.075	0.036	0.039	–0.040
	(0.050)	(0.036)	(0.029)	(0.032)
Y FE	X	X	X	X
Adj. R^2	0.007	0.006	0.012	0.005
Obs	4448	4448	4448	4448
Dep mean	.06	.03	.02	.02

Note: Estimates for Equation 9. Outcomes from left to right: Share of teachers with the birth of a child, share of teachers who are female and have a birth (column 2), and who are male and have a birth (column 3), share of teachers who are female and on leave after birth (defined as not being an active teacher in the year subsequent to having given birth). Standard errors clustered at the municipality level. Regressions weighted by population, means unweighted. * p<0.1, ** p<0.05, *** p<0.01 (back)

Table A23: Effect on main outcomes of female teachers having a newborn child

	Employed/ Student	Un- employed	DI/ Pension	Other out of LF	Apply directly	Apply late	Apply never
Female teachers having a child	–0.003	–0.007	0.006*	0.003	–0.009	0.006	0.003
	(0.010)	(0.008)	(0.003)	(0.005)	(0.008)	(0.008)	(0.003)
Municipal FE	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Region*Cohort FE	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Ind. controls	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Obs	811,392	811,392	811,392	811,392	825,094	825,094	825,094
Dep mean	.842	.086	.017	.053	.911	.067	.022

Note: Specification equivalent to Equation 11, but estimating the effect of total exposure to female teachers having a newborn child while pupils are in primary school. Standard errors clustered at the municipality level. * p<0.1, ** p<0.05, *** p<0.01 (back)

Table A24: Effect on main outcomes of male teachers having a newborn child

	Employed/ Student	Un- employed	DI/ Pension	Other out of LF	Apply directly	Apply late	Apply never
Male teachers having a child	–0.021 (0.013)	0.009 (0.010)	–0.007* (0.004)	0.018** (0.007)	–0.008 (0.010)	0.006 (0.009)	0.002 (0.005)
Municipal FE	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Region*Cohort FE	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Ind. controls	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Obs	811,392	811,392	811,392	811,392	825,094	825,094	825,094
Dep mean	.842	.086	.017	.053	.911	.067	.022

Note: Specification equivalent to Equation 11, but estimating the effect of total exposure to male teachers having a newborn child while pupils are in primary school. Standard errors clustered at the municipality level. * $p<0.1$, ** $p<0.05$, *** $p<0.01$ (back)

M Further robustness and discussion of macro-economic shocks

Table A25: Selective sample attrition

	RF		IV	
	Left 16	Left 25	Left 16	Left 25
Avg share male			0.026	–0.019
			(0.029)	(0.051)
Total share 60	0.006	0.006	0.005	0.007
	(0.005)	(0.007)	(0.004)	(0.006)
Total share 60 * post	–0.004	0.003		
	(0.005)	(0.009)		
Municipal FE	X	X	X	X
Cohort FE	X	X	X	X
Region*Cohort FE	X	X	X	X
Ind. controls	X	X	X	X
MOP F^{eff}			15.28	15.28
Adj. R^2	0.042	0.049		
Obs	826,180	826,180	826,180	826,180
Dep mean	.005	.018	.005	.018

Note: Reduced form, and IV estimates for Equation 10. Outcomes are a binary indicator for pupils having left the sample at age 16 or age 25, excluding registered deaths. Pupils are defined as having left the sample if they do not appear in the register data at the respective age. Individual level controls are measured at age 7 and include gender, language (SE/FI/other), foreign origin, single parent HH, highest level of education in HH. Standard errors clustered at the municipality level. * p<0.1, ** p<0.05, *** p<0.01 (back)

Table A26: Robustness

	Emp/Student				Apply			
	Main	No capital	No cities	Parent UB	Main	No capital	No cities	Parent UB
Avg share male	0.512**	0.491**	0.503**	0.487**	0.424**	0.437**	0.458**	0.411**
	(0.243)	(0.237)	(0.255)	(0.238)	(0.197)	(0.198)	(0.214)	(0.195)
Municipal FE	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Region*Cohort F	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
Ind. controls	X	X	X	X	X	X	X	X
MOP F^{eff}	15.37	15.69	13.96	15.37	15.28	15.59	13.86	15.28
Obs	811,392	746,392	639,043	811,392	825,094	758,379	648,930	825,094
Dep mean	.842	.842	.842	.842	.911	.911	.911	.911

Note: IV estimates for Equation 10. Outcomes are pupils' labor market status (c.f. Table 4) in columns 1-4 and applications in the last year of middle school (c.f. Table 7), in turn examining the main specification for comparison (column 1 and 5), dropping Helsinki (column 2 and 6), dropping the five most populous municipalities based on place of living at age 7 (column 3 and 7), and controlling for parental unemployment status at age 7 (column 4 and 8). Individual level controls are measured at age 7 and include gender, language (SE/FI/other), foreign origin, single parent HH, highest level of education in HH. Standard errors clustered at the municipality level. * p<0.1, ** p<0.05, *** p<0.01 (back)

M.1 A brief note on marco-economic shocks

During the period of our study, two major macro-economic shocks warrant a brief mention: The depression in Finland during the early 1990s, as well as the financial crisis in 2008/09, initiating the global great recession. We study the cohorts born between 1981 - 1993, starting school between 1988 - 2000.

Finland experienced a 14% contraction of GDP from 1990-93, accompanied by a more permanent rise in unemployment. Region-by-cohort fixed effects in all of our specification allow for differential impacts of this shock across different parts of the country. In addition, we run our main specification controlling for parental unemployment status at age 7 in columns 4 and 8 of Appendix Table A26, with the main effects quantitatively unchanged.

Regarding the great recession, it is worth noting that our treatment assignment is based on the place where pupils live when they are age 7. Our study cohorts turn 25 years old in the years 2006-2018. It is thus the earlier and middle cohorts that are both more exposed to male quota teachers and turn 25 during the time of the financial crisis and subsequent recession.

N TWFE robustness

This section explores potential bias in $\hat{\beta}_{fe}$ from negative weights in TWFE estimation due to heterogeneous treatment effects in our setting. The main concern - outlined by the relevant literature - is that previously treated units exhibiting dynamic treatment effects over time are used as a control group for newly treated units. When treatment effects are e.g. increasing over time, the fixed effects difference out a change in the control group consisting of previously treated units that is "too large", leading to potential sign reversal in the estimator.

De Chaisemartin and d'Haultfoeuille (2020) decompose $\hat{\beta}_{fe}$ into a weighted sum of average treatment effects (ATE) for treated units, with weights proportional to the residual from a regression of the treatment variable on fixed effects. If treatment effects are heterogeneous, problems with sign reversal arise when treated observations receive a negative weight due to their *residualized* treatment value in a particular period being negative (intuitively, these negative weights arise because that particular observation serves as a control in that period). Negative weights by themselves are mechanically the product of any TWFE specification – it is in combination with heterogeneous treatment effects that problems with sign reversal may arise. While the literature to date has not offered diagnostic tools for our particular case where treatment is continuous and infinite, we can use the intuition developed in De Chaisemartin and d'Haultfoeuille (2020) (also highlighted by Jakiela, 2021) to probe for such issues in our setting.

First, the highlighted concern arises only when treatment effects are heterogeneous. The way in which treatment effect heterogeneity matters in our IV set-up is through the first stage relationship by using residualized treatment assignment to generate predicted values for the endogenous variable in the second stage. The first stage in our setting estimates a mechanical relationship between local retirements and teacher gender composition, with a clear ex-ante prior on sign and magnitude. While there is no direct test of assessing treatment effect heterogeneity, reporting sensitivity to particular groups or time periods may at least be partly illuminating about whether the first stage coefficients are driven by any particular group of observations. To this extent, leave-one-out estimation in the following section (Appendix O) reports coefficients that show no worrisome patterns.

A further probing for treatment effect heterogeneity consists in examining the relationship between the residualized outcome and residualized treatment variable. Under homogeneous treatment effects, this relationship should be linear and not differ by treatment assignment status. In the first stage of our setting, pupil cohorts that experience relatively more retirements in the post-quota period are 'treated' by being exposed to fewer male quota teachers, whereas pupils with relatively more retirements in the quota period serve as the 'control' group. Appendix Figures A13a and A13b plot the residualized share male against the residualized treatment variable both for the municipal and the pupil level first stage.[44] A test for differences in slopes between treatment and control observations shows that these are small and not significant.

[44] I.e. for the first stage equation 8 at the municipal level, residualized treatment corresponds to the residuals of the following specification:

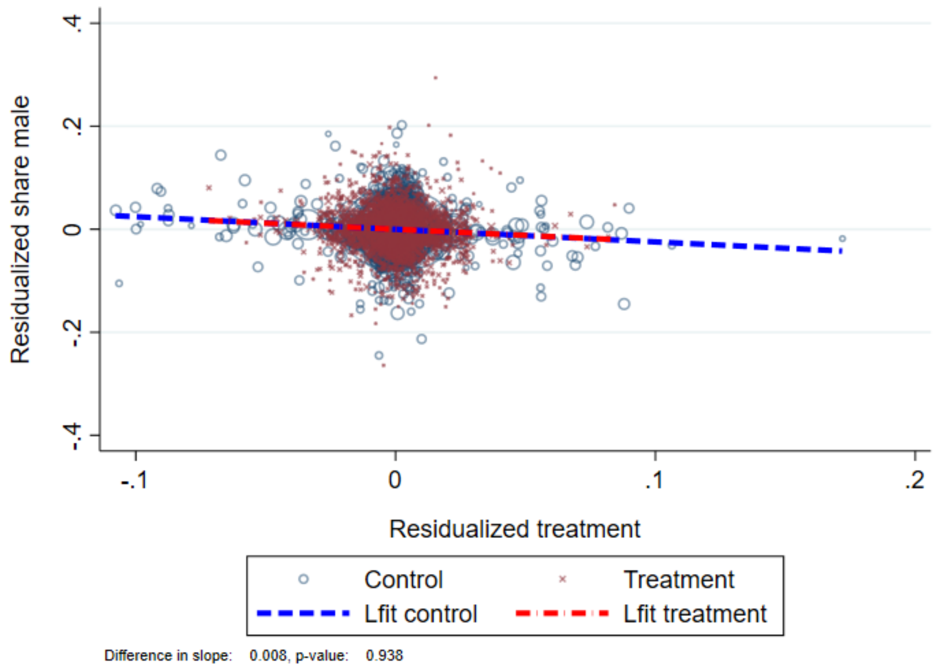
$$\textit{total share 60 post}_{mt} = \beta_0 + \beta_1 \textit{total share 60}_{mt} + \gamma_{mp} + \eta_t + \epsilon_{mt} \tag{13}$$

With *total share 60 post*$_{mt}$ the share of teachers turning 60 interacted with an indicator for the post period.

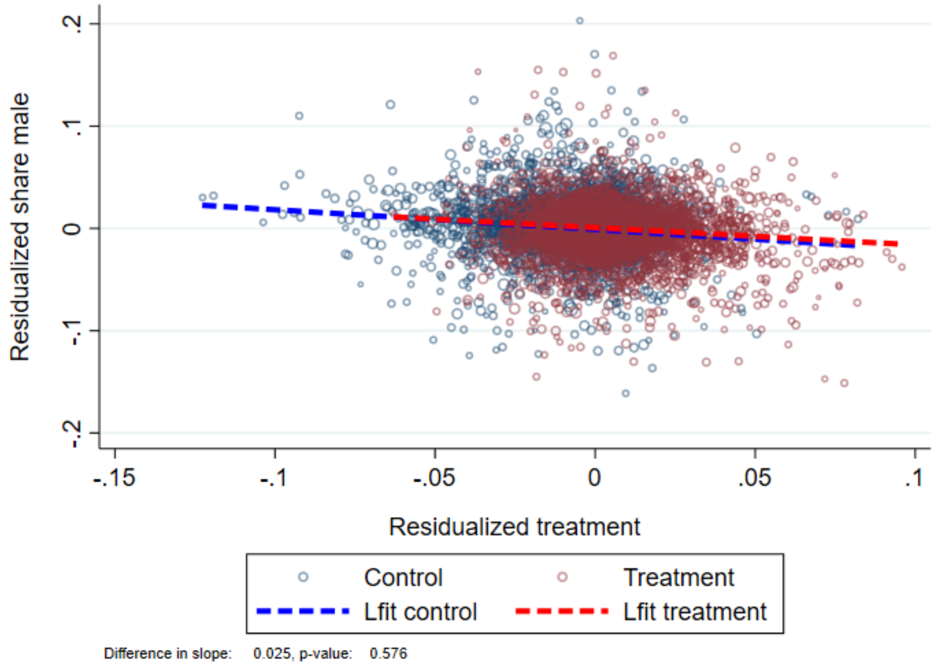
Second, following De Chaisemartin and d'Haultfoeuille (2020), we can examine the weights that observations receive. The focus here is to understand how treatment assignment based on actual treatment status maps into treatment assignment based on the *residualized* treatment variable. In our setting, municipality-by-year or municipality-by-cohort observations with more retirements in the quota relative to the post-quota period should serve as a control group based on actual treatment assignment, and thus receive a negative weight (i.e. exhibit a negative *residualized* treatment assignment). Appendix Figure A14 plots residualized treatment assignment against actual treatment assignment both for the municipal and the pupil panel separately. Reassuringly, the mapping between residualized and actual treatment assignment follows a clear pattern: observations with higher retirement in the quota period are those that exhibit on average a negative residualized treatment value (i.e. receive a negative weight).

Figure A13: Treatment effect heterogeneity

(a) Municipality level: Residuals of first stage



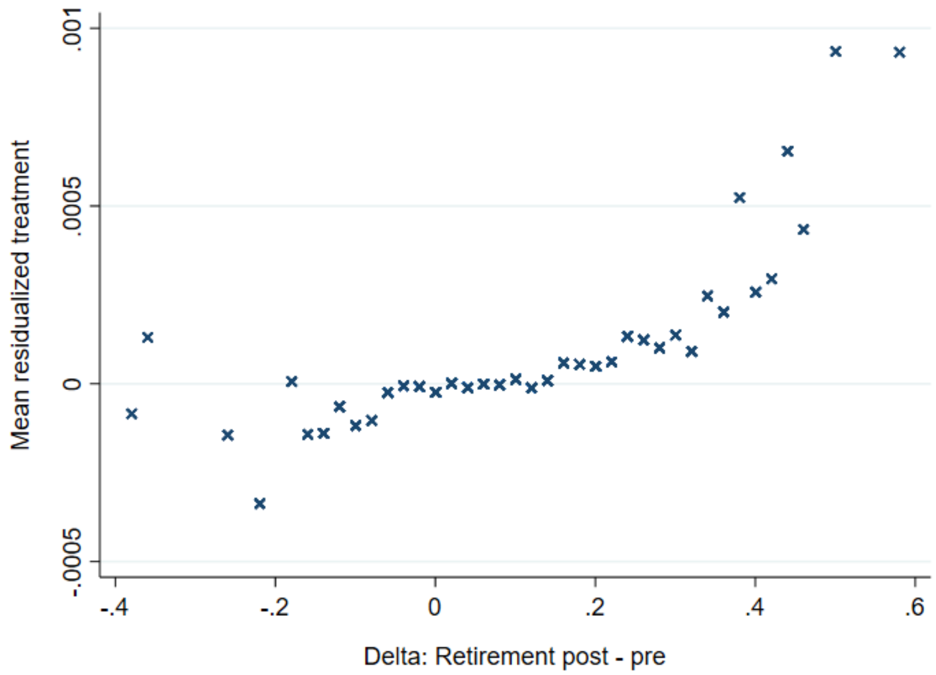
(b) Pupil level: Residuals of first stage



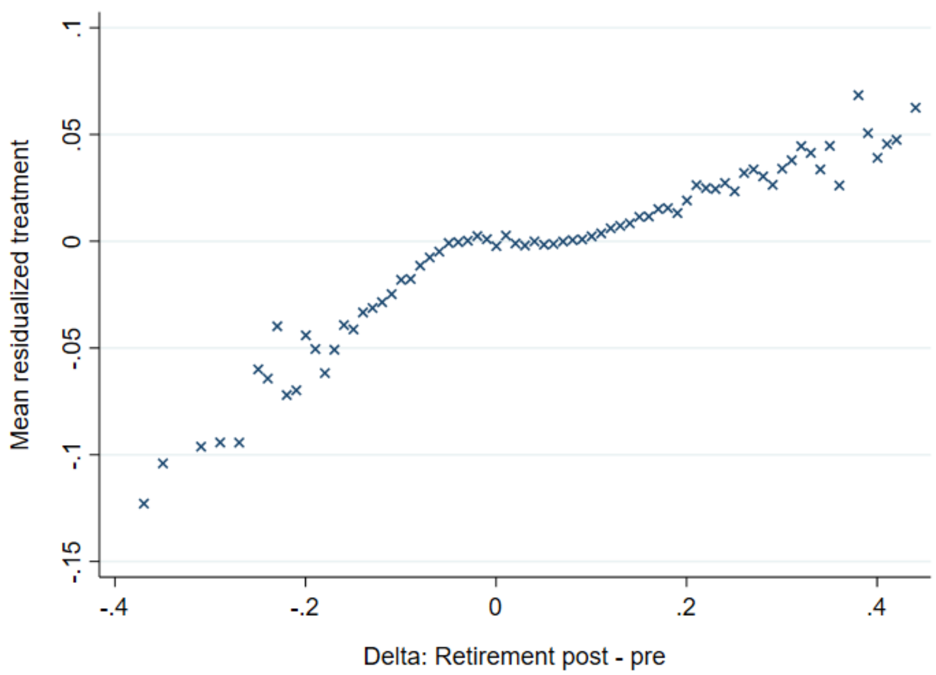
Note: Residualized share male against residualized treatment (see see Equation 13), at the municipal level (upper panel) and pupil level (lower panel). Weighted by number of observations. (back)

Figure A14: Residualized treatment

(a) Municipality level: Residualized treatment ("weights")



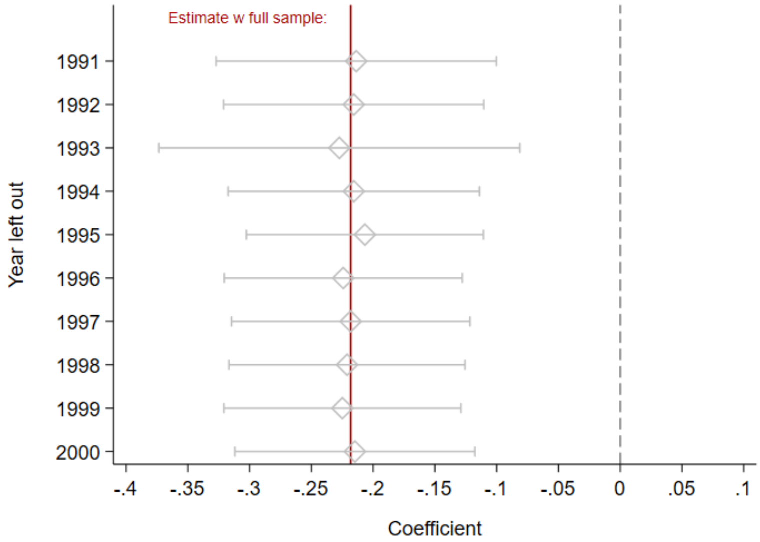
(b) Pupil level: Residualized treatment ("weights")



Note: Mean residualized treatment (see Equation 13) against actual treatment assignment (binned) at the municipal level (upper panel) and pupil level (lower panel). (back)

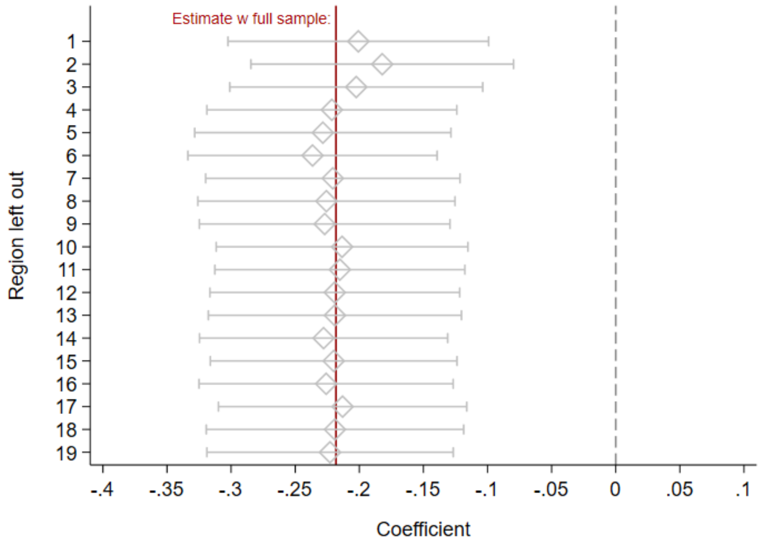
O Leave one out estimation

Figure A15: Municipality level: Leave one out - years



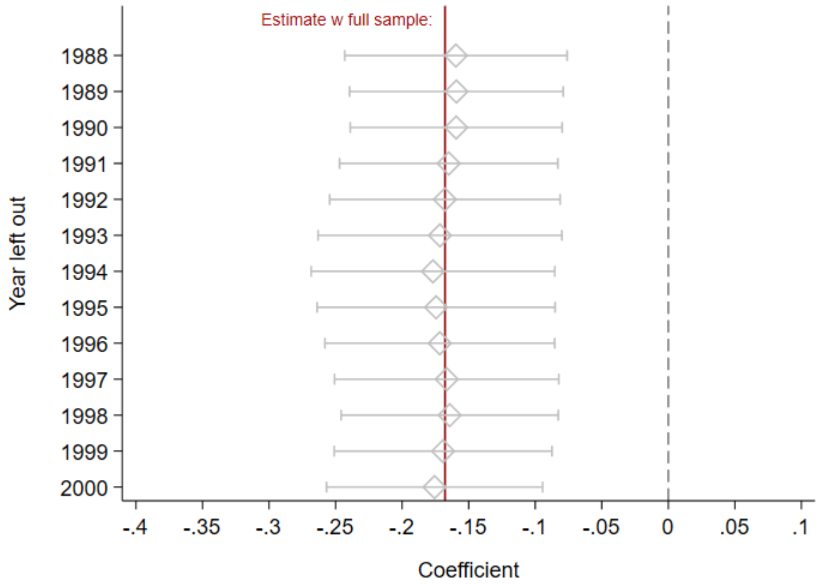
Note: Leave one out estimation of treatment coefficient in Equation 8 with respect to years. (back)

Figure A16: Municipality level: Leave one out - region



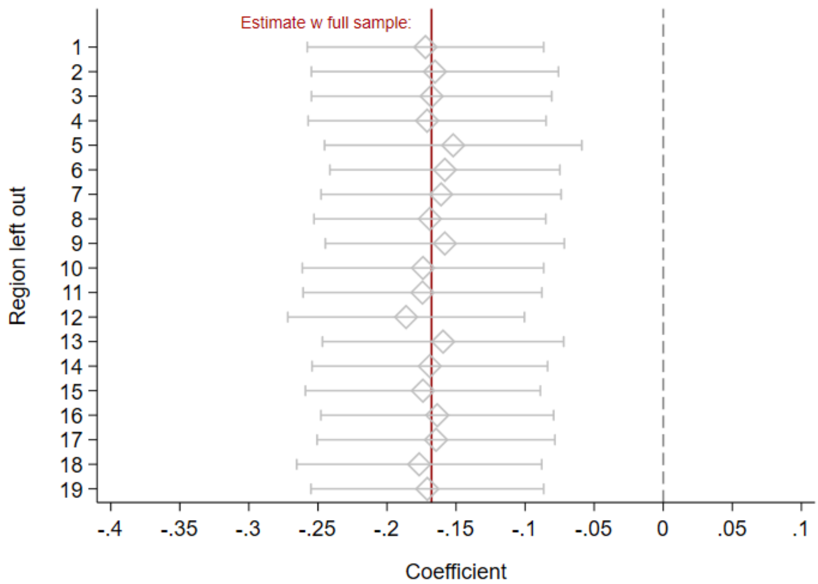
Note: Leave one out estimation of treatment coefficient in Equation 8 with respect to regions. (back)

Figure A17: Pupil level: Leave one out - cohort



Note: Leave one out estimation of treatment coefficient in Equation 11 with respect to cohorts.

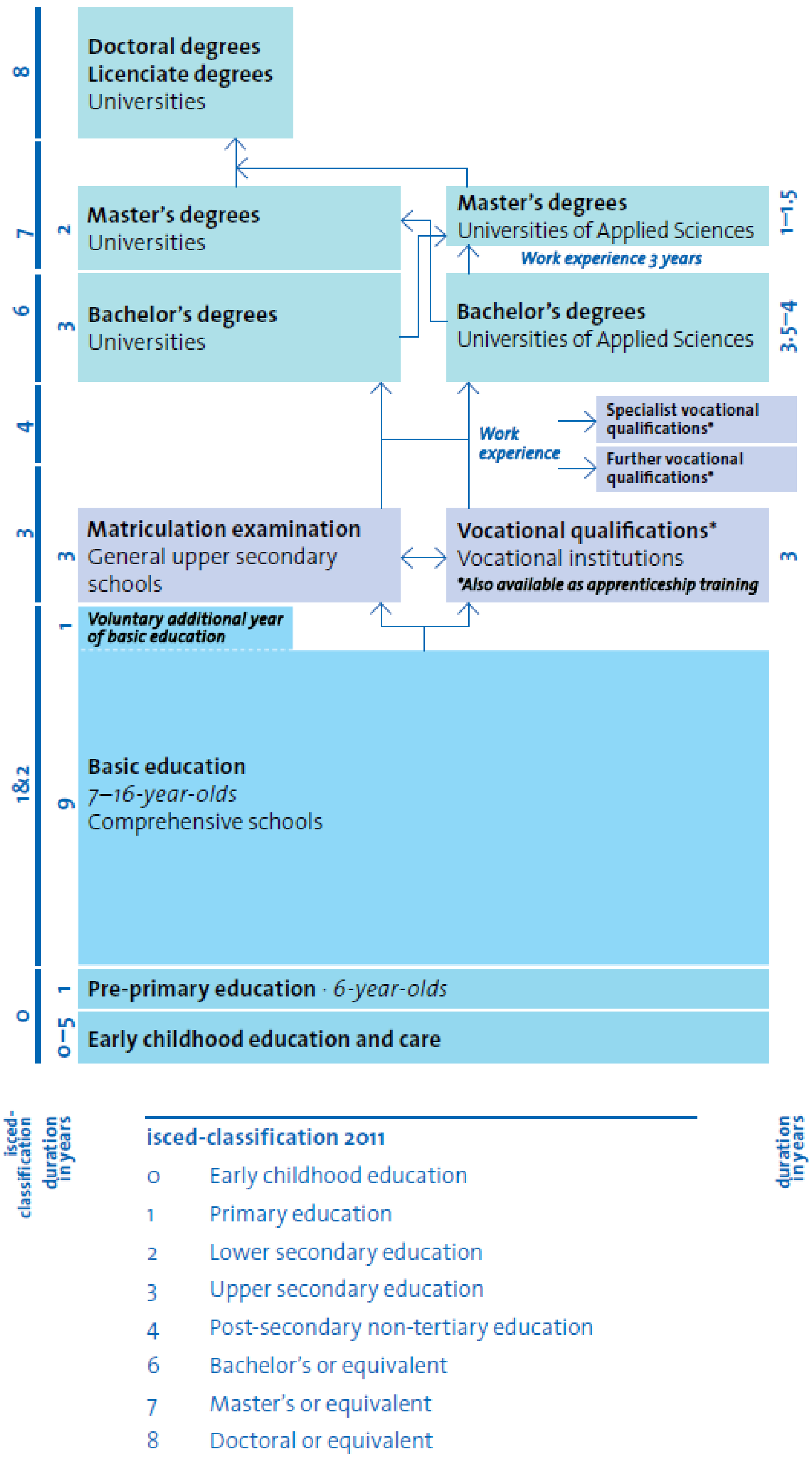
Figure A18: Pupil level: Leave one out - region



Note: Leave one out estimation of treatment coefficient in Equation 11 with respect to regions. (back)

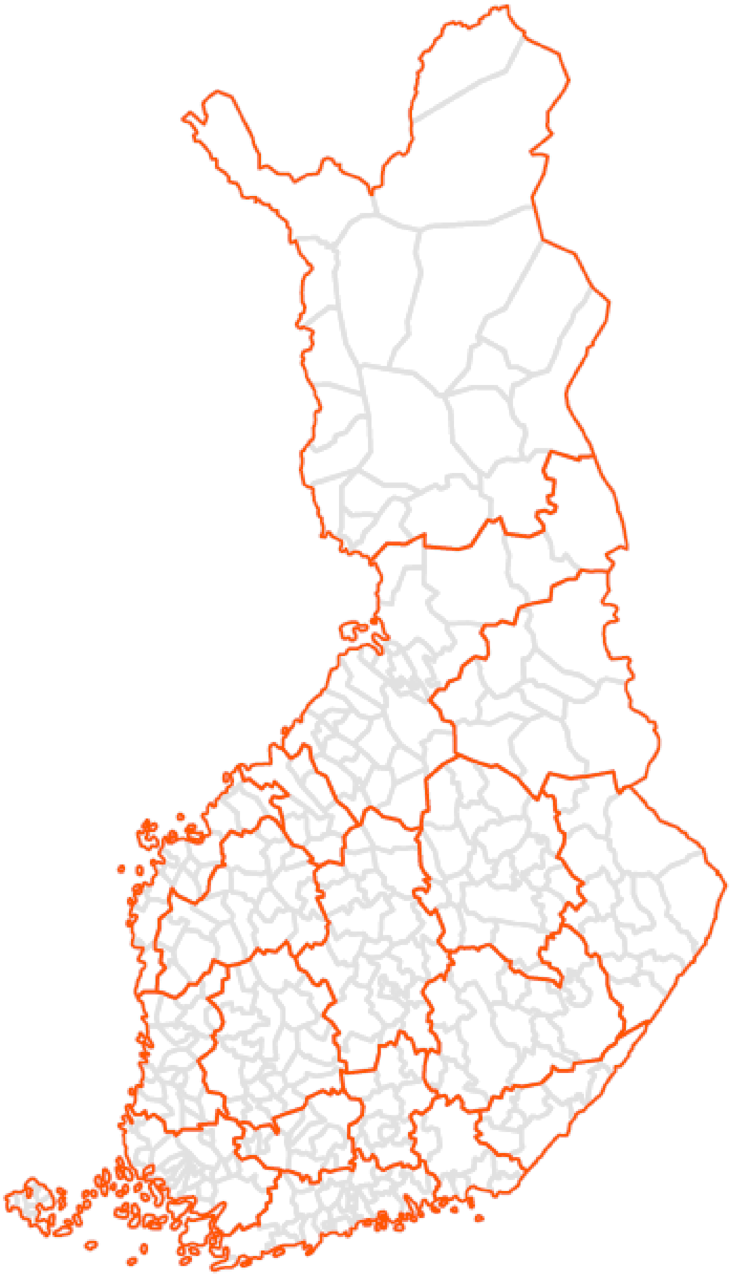
P Context

Figure A19: Finnish Education System



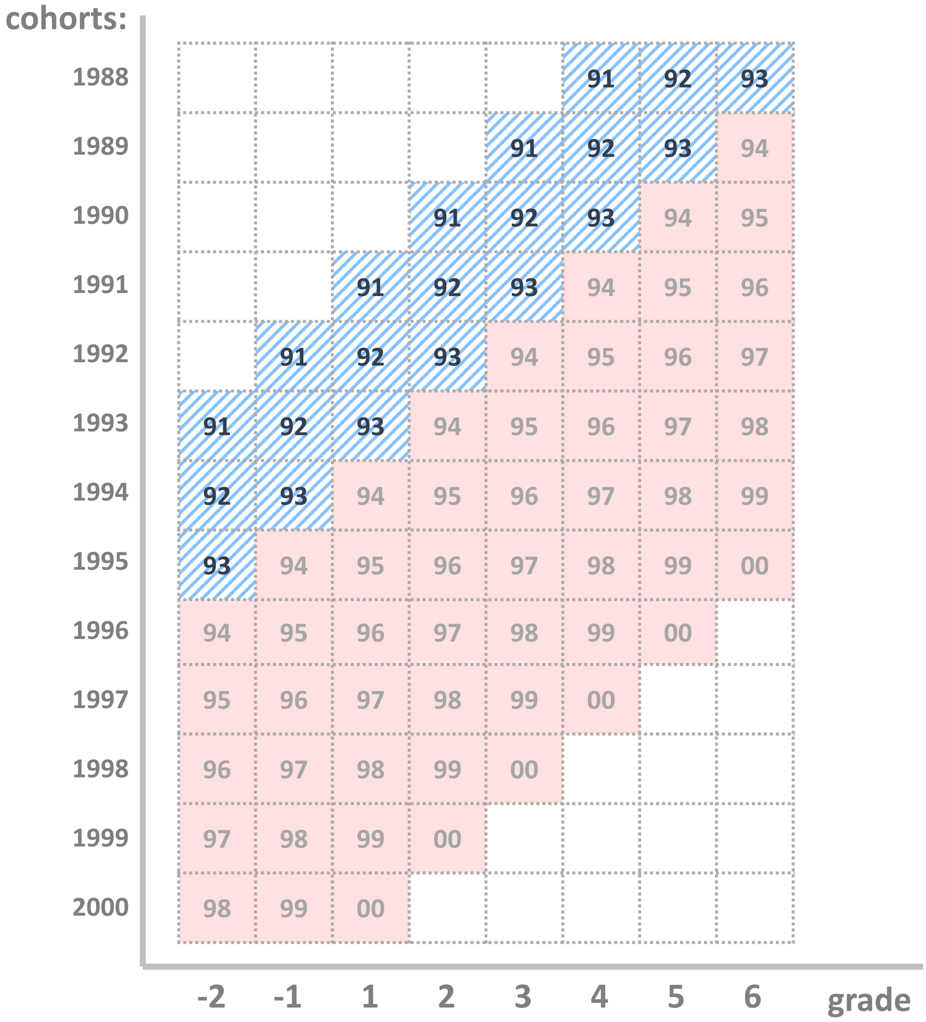
Note: Source: Ministry of Education, Finland. (back)

Figure A20: Region and municipality borders, Finland



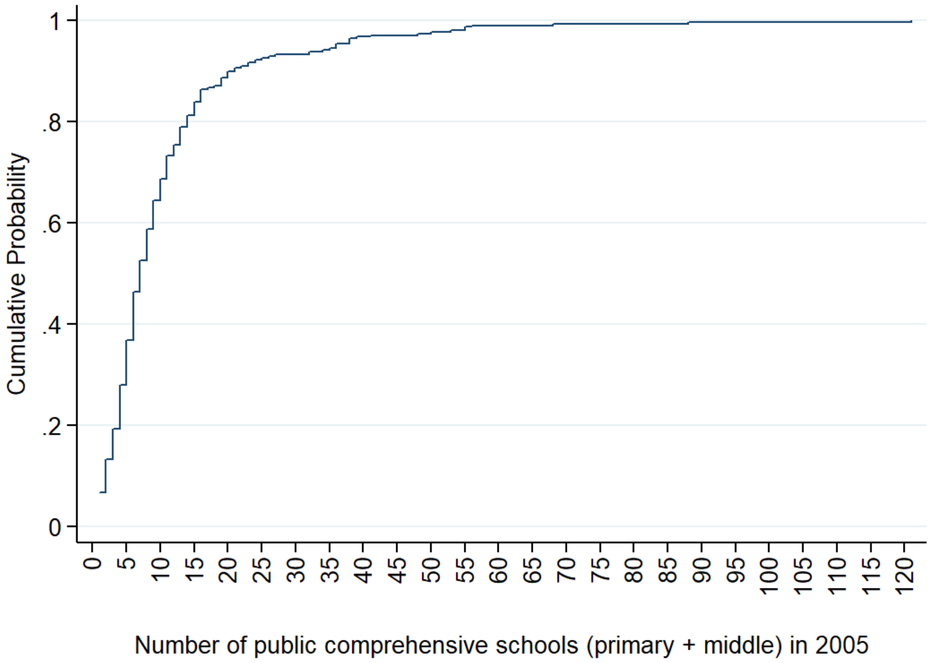
Note: Borders for 2019, shapefiles provided by Statistics Finland.

Figure A21: Pupil cohorts and exposure to quota period



Note: Figure shows cohorts by year in which they turn seven years old, and exposure to the quota by the grades which they spend in primary school. Years in which the quota was still in place colored in blue (with stripes), years in which the quota was abolished in red. (back)

Figure A22: CDF number of comprehensive (primary + middle) schools by municipality, 2005



Note: Figure shows CDF of number of total comprehensive schools by municipality. Not possible to differentiate by middle schools and primary schools. Data for 2005. (back)