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AN APPLICATION TO LABOR MARKET MISMATCH

Yi Chen
Hanming Fang
Yi Zhao
Zibo Zhao

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Recovering Overlooked Information in Categorical Variables with LLMs: An Application to Labor Market Mismatch

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ABSTRACT

Categorical variables have no intrinsic ordering, and researchers often adopt a fixed-effect (FE) approach in empirical analysis. However, this approach has two significant limitations: it overlooks textual labels associated with the categorical variables; and it produces unstable results when there are only limited observations in a category. In this paper, we propose a novel method that utilizes recent advances in large language models (LLMs) to recover overlooked information in categorical variables. We apply this method to investigate labor market mismatch. Specifically, we task LLMs with simulating the role of a human resources specialist to assess the suitability of an applicant with specific characteristics for a given job. Our main findings can be summarized in three parts. First, using comprehensive administrative data from an online job posting platform, we show that our new match quality measure is positively correlated with several traditional measures in the literature, and at the same time, we highlight the LLM's capability to provide additional information conditional on the traditional measures. Second, we demonstrate the broad applicability of the new method with a survey data containing significantly less information than the administrative data, which makes it impossible to compute most of the traditional match quality measures. Our LLM measure successfully replicates most of the salient patterns observed in a hard-to-access administrative dataset using easily accessible survey data. Third, we investigate the gender gap in match quality and explore whether there exists gender stereotypes in the hiring process. We simulate an audit study, examining whether revealing gender information to LLMs influences their assessment. We show that when gender information is disclosed to the GPT, the model deems females better suited for traditionally female-dominated roles.

Yi Chen
393 Middle Huaxia Road
ShanghaiTech University
School of Entrepreneurship and Management
Shanghai 201210
CHINA
chenyiecon@163.com

Yi Zhao
Tsinghua University
zhao-y21@mails.tsinghua.edu.cn

Zibo Zhao
ShanghaiTech University
AndrewZhao054@gmail.com

Hanming Fang
Department of Economics
Ronald O. Perelman Center
for Political Science and Economics
University of Pennsylvania
133 South 36th Street, Suite 150
Philadelphia, PA 19104
and NBER
hanming.fang@econ.upenn.edu

1 Introduction

Categorical variables, such as college majors and occupations, encompass two or more distinct categories. They are distinct from ordinal variables (e.g., self-rated health) or cardinal variables (e.g., temperature, income, or years of schooling) since there is no inherent ordering among these categories.¹ Researchers often overlook the valuable textual information contained in categorical variables. A conventional approach, recommended in classical econometric textbooks for addressing categorical variables, involves constructing a set of dummy variables for different categories, known as the fixed effect (FE) approach.²

However, the FE approach has two significant limitations. First, it disregards the information provided by the textual labels associated with categorical variables. For instance, consider three different occupation categories: “Software test engineer,” “Software R&D engineer,” and “Sales representative.” Intuitively, the first two categories are more similar to each other than “Sales representative.” Nonetheless, researchers typically construct three dummy variables for these categories, failing to capture subtle similarities among them. Another limitation is that analysis (such as computing sample average) based on categories with limited observations can be highly unstable. This limitation is particularly pronounced in survey data, which typically has a relatively small sample size. For example, in the 2016 and 2018 waves of the China Labor-Force Dynamic Survey (CLDS), the occupations of 3,022 workers are coded in 68 detailed categories. However, half of these detailed categories have less than 10 observations, and approximately 70 percent have fewer than 20 observations. Small number of observations can make the FE approach highly unstable for analyzing jobs at such a granular level.

The recent development of Large Language Models (LLMs) presents a novel approach to un-

¹See a detailed discussion on the differences between categorical, ordinal, and cardinal variables in <https://stats.oarc.ucla.edu/other/mult-pkg/whatstat/what-is-the-difference-between-categorical-ordinal-and-interval-variables/>.

²Take Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) as a concrete example. Let’s consider a categorical variable D_i representing race:

$$D_i = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if White} \\ 2 & \text{if African American} \\ 3 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

The first step is to run the following regression:

$$y_i = \beta_1 + \beta_2 D_{2i} + \beta_3 D_{3i} + \varepsilon_i,$$

where $D_{ji} = 1$ if $D_i = j$ (and equals zero otherwise). This approach effectively breaks a categorical variable (D_i) into a set of dummy variables (D_{1i} , D_{2i} , and D_{3i}).

covering overlooked information in categorical variables. LLMs are proficient at interpreting and analyzing textual content, allowing for direct examination of the textual labels of categories. We explore the application of LLMs in analyzing categorical variables, using the example of labor market mismatch, which encompasses various categorical variables such as college major, occupation, and industry. Specifically, we employ a prominent LLM, GPT-3.5-turbo developed by OpenAI, to simulate a human resource (HR) specialist tasked with assessing the match between workers and jobs. For example, we task the GPT with evaluating whether workers from a particular major can perform a specific job by inputting the titles of the major and the job into the prompt. We intentionally withhold information about other individual and job characteristics to mitigate potential confounding effects. By processing the textual labels of workers' jobs, the GPT enables us to capture similarities between "Software test engineer" and "Software R&D engineer." Moreover, since the GPT is pre-trained on extensive external datasets, this approach is not constrained by sample size (i.e., the GPT can assess the similarity between two categories even if each category has only one observation in the data).

Existing literature presents four *direct* measures of labor market mismatch.³ The *job switching* (JS) method examines workers' tendencies to switch jobs, assuming they are less likely to do so from a well-matched position (Kambourov and Manovskii, 2009; Sullivan, 2010). The *realized matches* (RM) method derives the match index from the actual distribution of educational or skill levels within occupations, assuming that workers self select into better-matched positions (Nieto et al., 2015; Sellami et al., 2018). This method requires a relatively large sample size for reliability. The *worker-assessment* (WA) method relies on individuals' personal opinions regarding their job match (Robst, 2007; Zhu, 2014). The *job analysis* (JA) method relies on evaluations by job analysts who define required education or skills for jobs (Guvenen et al., 2020; Lise and Postel-Vinay, 2020). Typically, this method relies on government efforts to recruit job analysts and provide job requirements. For instance, in 2021, the Ministry of Human Resources and Social Security in China hired job analysts to decide matched majors for all occupations listed in China's National Occupation Classification Code (CNOCC). Another example is the O*NET (Occupational Information Network) dataset in the United States.

³Indirect measurement relies on the model residual method, where "match quality" denotes an unobservable factor specific to the match, which determines productivity after accounting for the observable characteristics of the worker and the job. Examples of this approach include studies by Miller (1984), Moscarini (2001), Nagypál (2007), Hsieh and Klenow (2009), and Adamopoulos et al. (2022).

Our empirical analysis proceeds in three steps. First, we cross validate our GPT measure with various traditional measures and demonstrate its capacity to provide additional information. We utilize two complementary datasets for this purpose. The first dataset comprises application flow data from a leading online job board in China, consisting of 1,048,575 applications to 29,914 unique job postings. This data richness enables us to compute various traditional match quality measures. We investigate three dimensions of the match between workers and jobs: the match between workers’ most recent job and applied jobs in terms of occupations and industries (referred to as “occupation–occupation” and “industry–industry” matches) and the “major–occupation” match. Each of these three matches is measured using our GPT method and one of the traditional methods mentioned above. We employ the job switching method for the “occupation–occupation” and “industry–industry” matches (i.e., does the position belong to the same occupation or industry as the applicant previously worked in?), and the RM method for the “major–occupation” match (i.e., to what extent does an occupation receive a disproportionately large share of applicants from a specific major?). We document strong and positive correlations between the GPT match quality measures and the traditional measures. In addition, we find that, conditional on the applicants’ characteristics, the job characteristics, and the traditional match quality measures for the applicant–job pairs, our GPT measure can still strongly predict an applicant’s expected wage.

In the second step, we use the CLDS survey data to demonstrate the wide applicability of our GPT method. It’s important to note that the information in the CLDS data is not rich enough to implement the traditional match quality measures, the realized matches method in particular, because each category (occupation or major) contains too few observations. However, the GPT measure remains feasible because this language model is developed from a vast external textual database. We focus on measuring the most challenging “major–occupation” match. We find that our GPT measure successfully replicates the basic patterns observed in the job posting data despite the significantly smaller sample size of the CLDS.

In the third step, as an application of our GPT measure, we explore the gender differences in labor market match quality. We document that women are more likely to be mismatched than men and find suggestive evidence that marriage and the work-life balance contribute to these disparities. To evaluate the importance of gender stereotypes in the gender gap of mismatch, we utilize the GPT to simulate a classical audit studies (Goldin and Rouse, 2000), assuming that the training of GPT enables it to “think” like a human. We examine the gap in GPT’s responses

with two different prompts: one concealing gender information and the other revealing it. We observe that the gender gap in mismatch disappears and even slightly reverses once we reveal the gender information to GPT, particularly in those positions associated with femininity. This provides strong evidence of the existence of gender stereotypes in the data sets that were used to train the GPT, suggesting that finding a job matched to the major is viewed less important for women than men. To illustrate, consider a poorly matched “major–occupation” pair; the GPT, acting as a simulated HR, would consider it reasonable if it knows that the applicant is female.

This paper contributes to three strands of literature. The first explores the application of LLMs in economic research. The rapid advance of the various LLMs has led to a growing body of economic literature that utilizes them as research or teaching assistants (Cowen and Tabarrok, 2023; Korinek, 2023), natural language processors (Hansen and Kazinnik, 2023; Yang and Menczer, 2023; Lopez-Lira and Tang, 2023), and simulated agents (Argyle et al., 2023; Chen et al., 2023; Eloundou et al., 2023; Horton, 2023). We contribute to this literature by demonstrating two potential uses of GPT: serving as simulated HR specialists to evaluate the suitability of an applicant for a job, and simulating audit studies by concealing or revealing information. Our study is closely related to Eloundou et al. (2023), who assessed the potential effects of LLMs on the U.S. labor market by employing both humans and GPT-4 as annotators to evaluate job tasks’ exposure to LLMs. Our paper adds to the various roles that can be assigned to the GPT, specifically focusing on mismatches in the labor market and validates the GPT method in this novel application.

Our study also contributes to the literature on measuring labor market mismatches by proposing a novel method. Unlike the job switching and realized matches methods, our GPT method can recover the overlooked information in categorical variables by considering textual labels. Moreover, since GPT is pre-trained on vast datasets, our method isn’t limited by sample size. Unlike the worker-assessment method, ours doesn’t require data on self-assessed match quality. Compared to the job analysis method, our approach treating GPT as the job analyst is more cost-effective than employing humans, especially in developing countries. It significantly reduces researchers’ workload in processing text data, which is particularly valuable in developing countries where structured data on detailed job requirements (such as O*NET) are often unavailable.

The final strand of literature employs traditional textual analysis methods to study labor markets. Many studies utilize the bag-of-words or dictionary method to extract information from

job descriptions or titles (Deming and Kahn, 2018; Atalay et al., 2020; Deming and Noray, 2020; Marinescu and Wolthoff, 2020), or to measure similarities and differences between documents using techniques like k -means clustering, word2vec, or TF-IDF (Term Frequency-Inverse Document Frequency) (Biasi and Ma, 2022; Imbert et al., 2022). Our study leverages the capabilities of recently developed LLMs, which can capture contextual nuances, semantic relationships, and diverse language patterns, to explore their application in empirical economic research.

Before proceeding, we want to emphasize that we do not claim that our GPT measure outperforms traditional measures and can replace them. Instead, the GPT measure complements traditional measures by recovering the overlooked textual information. LLMs have their own limitations. For example, it is well-known that LLMs operate as black boxes and have hallucinations (Yao et al., 2023; Zhao et al., 2024), while traditional measures are based on rigorously defined mathematical equations. The black-box and hallucination nature of LLMs makes their results more challenging to interpret. This is also the reason why our first step is to validate the GPT measure with traditional match quality measures.

The remainder of the paper is organized as follows. In Section 2, we briefly introduce the development of LLMs and prominent functions of GPTs; in Section 3, we provide a detailed description of our data and how to construct traditional and GPT measures; in Section 4, we demonstrate the validity and wide applicability of our GPT method and explain why it can recover the overlooked information in categorical variables; in Section 5, we apply this method to explore gender differences in measured match quality and examine the role of gender stereotypes; finally, in Section 6 we conclude.

2 What is a Large Language Model?

A language model is an algorithm designed to understand and generate human language by predicting word sequences. The development of language models has advanced substantially in recent years, culminating in the emergence of Large Language Models (LLMs) (Kaplan et al., 2020). LLMs utilize extensive data and parameters, enabling them to excel in comprehending and generating natural language with unparalleled proficiency. For example, while OpenAI hasn't officially disclosed the parameter count in the LLM utilized in our study (GPT-3.5-turbo), its predecessor (GPT-3) boasts 175 billion parameters and is trained on a dataset containing around

500 billion tokens (Brown et al., 2020).⁴

A notable milestone in LLMs is the Generative Pre-trained Transformers Series (GPTs). GPTs employ the powerful Transformer architecture and leverage pre-training on vast multi-lingual datasets. During pre-training, GPT is exposed to a large corpus of text, such as books, articles, and websites. The model learns to predict the next token in a sentence based on the context of preceding words. For instance, given the prompt “The cat is on the,” GPT is trained to predict the most likely next word, like “roof” or “mat.” This pre-training process allows GPTs to capture the underlying structure of language, gaining a comprehensive understanding of grammar, semantics, and context. Consequently, GPTs can adeptly grasp intricate linguistic patterns and contextual nuances, thus positioning themselves to excel in various natural language processing tasks, including text generation, translation, and answering questions.

In this study, we choose GPT-3.5-turbo developed by OpenAI over the well-known ChatGPT. The reason is that, while ChatGPT is fine-tuned and tailored specifically for conversational applications, GPT-3.5-turbo demonstrates versatility for general purposes with minimal fine-tuning requirements and comparatively lower inference cost. GPT-3.5-turbo also outperforms LLMs from other companies or institutions developed prior to the release of GPT-4, showcasing exceptional performance across a diverse range of natural language processing tasks.^{5,6} However, utilizing LLMs in economic research presents several challenges. First, outcomes may vary across different models and prompts. Second, if the prompt is too simple, LLMs might function as black boxes, potentially limiting the explainability of results. The prompt should also not be overly complex, as it can lower the chance of encountering similar sequences in the training data and reduce the accuracy of the model-generated conditional probability distribution. We provide a comprehensive discussion in Appendix B on why using complex prompts can also cause issues.

⁴Tokens are typically on a sub-word level. LLMs often employ the “SentencePiece” tokenizer (available at <https://github.com/google/sentencepiece>). For instance, it would tokenize the word “Powerful” into [“power”, “ful”].

⁵Zheng et al. (2023) assess all available LLMs across various evaluation tasks and provide one of the most referenced metrics for LLM ranking. GPT-3.5-turbo consistently leads the leaderboard, only surpassed by models developed much later and with higher inference token costs. López Espejel et al. (2023) evaluated GPT-3.5-turbo, GPT-4, and BARD across inference and reasoning tasks. GPT-3.5-turbo achieved the highest score in deductive reasoning tasks without requiring sophisticated prompt engineering, which closely resembles the evaluation of applicant-job matching levels.

⁶Another advantage of GPT-3.5-turbo is that OpenAI provides versioned API access, ensuring consistency unaffected by future changes like those anticipated with GPT-4. This facilitates the replication of our results in the future.

3 Data and Measures of Match Quality

3.1 Data

To validate our new GPT measure for mismatch, we require a comprehensive dataset that allows the construction of traditional match quality measures. Our dataset comprises 1,048,575 applications to 29,914 unique job postings on Zhaopin.com in 2013. Zhaopin.com, the third largest online job board in China at that time, predominantly caters to young, highly educated workers seeking well-paid jobs in the private sector (Kuhn and Shen, 2013). The 29,914 job postings were sampled as follows. In collaboration with the job board, we initially selected a random sample of 61,674 job seekers who initiated new job search cycles in August 2013.⁷ We then tracked all their applications until November 30, 2013. Subsequently, from the pool of job postings they applied for, we sampled 29,914 unique postings (about 10%) and collected all applications submitted to those postings from January 1, 2013, to November 30, 2013. This application flow data contains a total of 1,048,575 applications from 693,748 applicants.

Each observation in our data is an applicant–posting pair and includes detailed information on both the job postings and the corresponding applicants. For each job posting, we know the job title, industry category, broad and detailed occupation category, the offered monthly wage range (if available),⁸ job location at the city level, number of persons to hire, education and experience requirements, and the size and ownership type of the hiring firms. Applicant characteristics include demographic information such as gender and age, educational background (education level and major), marital status, employment status, working experience, and the current city of residence. Additionally, applicants report their most recent job, including the monthly wage range, industry category, and broad and detailed occupation category. They also report their expectations about the next job, including the preferred job location and expected monthly wage range. We infer the monthly expected wage as the midpoint between the minimum and maximum of the range.⁹

The job postings in our dataset are classified into 50 industry categories and 588 detailed occupation categories nested within 58 broad occupation categories. The classification of industry

⁷Initiating a new job search cycle implies no job search activity on the platform in the past 30 days.

⁸Only 28% of applications contain information on the offered monthly wage range. This is common in online job posting data. For example, the dataset used in Kuhn and Shen (2013) comprises a total of 1,051,706 job ads, of which only 16% provide wage information.

⁹Approximately 20.31% of the applications lack information on the monthly wage of the expected job. We impute this information using the monthly wage from the applicant’s most recent job. Our results are robust if we exclude those samples.

and occupation categories is parallel; each industry category encompasses various occupation categories, and conversely, each occupation category spans different industries. For example, as illustrated in Appendix Table A1, four related positions—“Software test engineer,” “Game tester,” “Software R&D engineer,” and “Video algorithm engineer”—are grouped into two detailed occupation categories (“Software test engineer” and “Software R&D engineer”) within the broad occupation category of “Software personnel/Internet developer/System integration staff.” These positions fall within two industry categories: “Computer software” and “Internet business/E-commerce.” These industries also employ workers in occupation categories such as “Accountant” and “Administrative officer/Administrative assistant.”

In our analysis, we focus on applicants who hold a college degree or above because those without such qualifications typically lack a major or have majors incomparable to college graduates⁷. Additionally, applicants without any major information are excluded from our study. Consequently, the final sample consists of 847,801 applications, comprising 80.85% of the initial sample. Furthermore, majors are categorized into 92 detailed categories nested within 12 broad categories, based on “The Undergraduate Major Catalogue of Higher Institutions (2012)” published by China’s Ministry of Education.

We complement our Zhaopin.com data with the 2016 and 2018 waves of the China Labor-Force Dynamic Survey (CLDS), a national longitudinal social survey targeting the labor force in China.¹⁰ The CLDS data includes 37,623 respondents, of whom 2,891 are employed and hold a college degree or above with major information.

The CLDS data complements the Zhaopin.com data in three distinct ways. First, the CLDS data covers the entire labor market, while Zhaopin.com focuses exclusively on the online job market. Second, the CLDS data, like other survey data, presents realized job matches and corresponding wage outcomes, whereas the application submission data from Zhaopin.com centers on the search process and expected wages before actual matches. Third, while the Zhaopin.com data allows us to construct traditional match quality measures using job switching and realized matches methods, it does not support the job analysis method because Zhaopin.com uses a different occupation classification from the official one. Consequently, we cannot directly utilize the recommended major–occupation correspondence provided by the Ministry of Human Resources

¹⁰CLDS utilizes a rotating sample design where a proportion of the initial survey sample is dropped from each subsequent interview sweep and replaced with a fresh sample of equal size.

and Social Security in China. The CLDS data adheres to the official classification systems and enables a comparison between the job analysis method and our GPT method.

3.2 Traditional Measures of Match Quality

We introduce three traditional match quality measures constructed using the Zhaopin.com data and the CLDS data: the job switching (JS) method, the realized matches (RM) method, and the job analysis (JA) method. Unfortunately, we cannot use the worker-assessment method employed by Zhu (2014) and Jiang and Guo (2022) because our data lacks information on workers’ own feelings of fitness for the jobs.

We first examine the “occupation–occupation” and “industry–industry” matches using the JS method to understand the importance of occupational and industrial specificity of human capital in the labor market. Occupational experience, as discussed by Kambourov and Manovskii (2009), plays a crucial role in determining earnings, with each additional year of occupational tenure associated with a wage increase of 2.4% to 4%. Following Kambourov and Manovskii (2009) and Hagedorn and Manovskii (2013), we adopt the JS method to construct measures of match qualities. If a job seeker applies for a job within the same occupation/industry category as their most recent job, they are considered “matched” with the applied job. This rationale stems from the idea that experience in a specific occupation/industry category helps individuals handle jobs in the same category. Specifically, the measure of “occupation–occupation” (“industry–industry”, respectively) is defined as a dummy variable equal to one if the last job and the applied job belong to the same detailed occupation category (industry category, respectively). However, this method overlooks category labels’ information and fails to consider subtle similarities between different categories.

We then examine the “major–occupation” match using two different methods and datasets. With the Zhaopin.com data, we define the mismatch index using the RM method, which derives matched majors from the actual distribution of majors within occupations, following Altonji et al. (2016). Intuitively, if an occupation receives applications disproportionately from one specific major, the RM method considers this major–occupation pair a good match. Building upon the Duncan segregation index (Duncan and Duncan, 1955) and following Lemieux (2014),¹¹ we define

¹¹Using data from Canada, Lemieux (2014) demonstrated the method’s validity through a strong correlation between the Duncan index and workers’ self-reported relationship between major and occupation.

the Duncan major–occupation match index for detailed major category m and detailed occupation category o as:

$$\text{Duncan match}_{m,o} = \text{Milliles}(\theta_{m,o} - \theta_m),$$

where $\theta_{m,o}$ is the fraction of applicants from major category m in all applications to occupation category o , and θ_m represents the fraction of major category m in the entire sample. “Milliles” is a function that divides the ratio difference into 1,000 quantiles and further scales it from 0 to 1.¹²

However, the RM method has one significant limitation: it requires a large sample size. This is because if the sample size is small, the computed ratio (as well as the match index) may not be reliable. Thus, the RM method is not applicable to most survey data, including CLDS. For the same reason, even though our Zhaopin.com data has over 0.8 million observations, we cannot delve deeper beyond the detailed occupation category into the job title, thus missing important information contained in job titles, as highlighted by Marinescu and Wolthoff (2020). Later in this section, we will demonstrate how our GPT measure overcomes this limitation.

Using the CLDS data, we define an alternative “major–occupation” match measuring using the JA method, which relies on assessments by job analysts who determine appropriate majors for jobs. In 2021, the Ministry of Human Resources and Social Security in China employed job analysts to establish matched majors for all occupations listed in the official occupation classification (CNOCC).¹³ Jobs in the CLDS data are categorized according to the CNOCC, allowing us to utilize the JA method. Specifically, the “major–occupation” match measure, based on the JA method, indicates whether a worker’s major aligns with the recommended majors for their occupation as suggested by the job analysts. For instance, for the occupation “Human resources professionals,” there are three relevant majors: “Human resource management,” “Business management,” and “Administrative management.” Therefore, workers with one of these three majors are considered to be matched with the “Human resources professionals” occupation, while those other majors are not considered a match. This is referred to as the “JA major–occupation match.”

¹²Appendix Table A2 presents examples of two occupation categories (“Tour consultant” and “Mechanical designer”) and two major categories (“Mechanical” and “Tourism management”). These pairs, “Mechanical–Mechanical designer” and “Tourism management–Tour consultant,” are intuitively recognized as good matches. Our match indexes align with this recognition, revealing significantly larger ratio differences and match indexes for these pairs compared to others.

¹³See the comprehensive correspondence table between majors and occupations at <http://www.mohrss.gov.cn/SYrlzyhshbzb/zcfg/SYzhengqiuyijian/202106/W020210622638208743832.pdf>.

3.3 GPT Measure of Match Quality

In this section, we offer a detailed explanation of how we construct our GPT measure of match quality. The GPT method closely resembles the JA method, but instead of relying on real-world experts, it utilizes GPT as the job analyst. We designate GPT-3.5-turbo to simulate a human resource specialist for assessing the compatibility between workers and jobs. For instance, in assessing the “major–occupation” match, we employ the following prompt:

Pretend that you are an HR specialist. Based solely on the provided information (without considering any additional information or assumptions such as education level, working experience, previous jobs, on-the-job learning, or training), please assess whether the applicant graduated from [**major title**] *is capable of performing the* [**job title**]. *Please respond with “Definitely can” or “Probably can” or “Probably cannot” or “Definitely cannot.”*

It’s worth noting that we can extend our analysis beyond occupation categories to job titles because GPT can generate responses for any pair of applicant–posting pairs, regardless of the number of observations. Figure 1 provides an example of GPT responses when assessing match quality between the “Management” major and a job titled “Sales of automotive parts.” We define the GPT measure of the “major–occupation” match as an indicator of whether the response is “Definitely can” or “Probably can.”¹⁴ We use similar prompts to develop measures for the “occupation–occupation” and “industry–industry” matches by inputting the occupation and industry category labels of the most recent job and applied job, respectively. These measures are respectively denoted as “GPT major–title match,” “GPT occupation–occupation match,” and “GPT industry–industry match” to distinguish them from traditional measures.

We highlight two significant advantages of the GPT method. First, it allows us to capture often overlooked information from category labels in traditional measures. Compared to the job switching method, the GPT method excels in identifying similarities between different occupation/industry categories by leveraging category label information. As demonstrated in the first block of Table 1, when evaluating applied jobs within the “Software test engineer” occupation category, the same-occupation dummy only considers workers with their most recent job in the

¹⁴We utilize a dummy variable instead of an ordered variable to ease comparisons with traditional measures used in our study and existing literature. In a robustness check available upon request from the authors, we also employ an ordered variable, yielding similar results.

same occupation category as a good match. In contrast, GPT recognizes that individuals from the “Software R&D engineer” category probably can also perform jobs in the “Software test engineer” category, whereas those from the “Sales representative” category probably cannot. Applying the same logic, the second block of Table 1 illustrates that GPT can identify that the “Computer software” industry is more akin to “IT services” than the “Computer hardware” industry.

Second, the GPT method is applicable to any category, regardless of how few observations are in that category. This capability arises because GPT utilizes external textual information during the training phase of the model. When compared to the RM method for measuring the “major–occupation” match, the GPT method can account for differences in job titles within the same occupation. For example, the third block of Table 1 considers two jobs titled “Administration staff” and “Asset administrator” in the same occupation category “Administrative specialist,” with one applicant from the “Human resource management” major. Because the two jobs belong to the same occupation category, the two applicant–posting pairs have the same Duncan index by design. However, GPT can discern that this applicant is qualified for “Administration staff” but not “Asset administrator.” This feature of no-category-size requirement significantly broadens the scope of application of our GPT method. Because the GPT method does not impose any requirements on the sample size of categories, it is applicable to survey data with relatively small sizes, such as the CLDS data.

3.4 Descriptive Statistics

We present the descriptive statistics in Table 2. Consistent with Kuhn and Shen (2013), applicants in Zhaopin.com data are generally young and well-educated. The applicants are on average 27 years old and have 5.7 years of work experience. Over forty percent of the applicants hold a bachelor’s degree or higher, half are female, and over seventy percent are single and unemployed. The average expected wage is 4,709 RMB, slightly higher than the average wage of their most recent job, which is 4,457 RMB per month. Workers in the CLDS data are relatively older, with more work experience and a higher likelihood of being married.

Panel B of Table 2 displays the summary statistics of the match quality measures constructed from different methods and datasets. Specifically, 22% and 26% of applicants in the Zhaopin.com data applied for a job in the same occupation and industry category, respectively, as their most recent job, indicating a good match according to the JS method. Our GPT measures show a

higher incidence of match as the GPT captures similarities between different occupation (industry) categories: 55% (34%, respectively) of them “probably” or “definitely” can perform the applied jobs in an occupation (industry, respectively) category. Regarding the “major–occupation” match, the GPT measure indicates that in the Zhaopin.com data about 46% of the applicants have a major matched with the job they applied, and 43% of the workers in the CLDS data have a major matched with their current job. In comparison, the traditional JA measure indicates that a similar 33% of the workers have a major matched with their their occupation in the CLDS data.¹⁵

Considering that the Duncan major–occupation match index reflects the relative match quality across various major–occupation category pairs, direct comparisons with our GPT measure in terms of means may not be straightforward and informative. Instead, we separately rank the averages of the two measures by 12 broad major categories in Figure 2 and compare them to the ranking of the average Duncan major–occupation match index presented in Lemieux (2014).¹⁶ Both our Duncan and GPT measures show a similar ranking to Lemieux (2014). Workers with majors in “Medicine,” “Engineering,” and “Art” categories generally have higher match quality with their jobs, while those with majors in “History” and “Philosophy” categories tend to have lower match quality with their jobs.

4 Using the GPT to Construct Match Quality

4.1 Validating the GPT Method

We validate our GPT method from two perspectives. First, if the method is valid, the GPT measures should show positive correlations with traditional measures. Second, since the existing literature demonstrates a wage premium associated with the match between workers and jobs across all three dimensions,¹⁷ both the GPT measures and traditional measures should positively

¹⁵Note that the incidence of “major–occupation” match is lower than that reported in the previous literature using the JA method (e.g., 77–83% in Nordin et al. (2010) and 55–70% in Domadenik et al. (2013)). The primary reason for this difference is that those studies usually examine matches between broader major categories and occupation categories, leading to a higher rate of matches (Sellami et al., 2018). For example, Nordin et al. (2010) considers only 38 occupation categories, in contrast to 223 occupations in the CLDS data.

¹⁶In Lemieux (2014), there are only 9 broad major categories, which are not directly comparable to our 12 broad major categories. To align the two sets of categories, we establish a crosswalk, which may not be strictly one-to-one, using the titles of major categories. For example, the “Humanities” category in Lemieux (2014) corresponds to three categories in our study: “History,” “Philosophy,” and “Literature.”

¹⁷As highlighted by Sullivan (2010), workers in certain occupations experience a 14% (23%) increase in wages after five years of occupation (industry) specific experience. The “major–occupation” match has been associated with a wage premium of about 10% in the U.S. (Robst, 2007) and approximately 1% in China (Zhu, 2014).

correlate with individual wages.

Table 3 displays the pairwise correlations between the traditional and the GPT measures. Panel A shows the results for Zhaopin.com data. Two notable findings emerge: (1) All correlations are significantly positive; (2) The highest correlations are observed for corresponding traditional and GPT measures. For instance, the correlation between the Duncan major–occupation match index and the GPT major–title match index is 0.276, surpassing any pairwise correlation involving any of the two indexes. Similarly, we find a stronger correlation between the traditional and the GPT measures of “occupation–occupation” (“industry–industry”, respectively) match, reaching as high as 0.585 (0.880, respectively).

In the next step, We augment the standard Mincer wage regressions with match quality measures to further validate our GPT method—a standard procedure to evaluate the effectiveness of traditional match quality measures (e.g., Perry et al. (2014); Guvenen et al. (2020)). We set the expected wage equation for applicant i who applies to job j in city c as follows:

$$\ln w_{i,j,c} = \beta_1 \text{SD_Match}_{i,j} + X'_{i,j,c} \gamma + \varepsilon_{i,j,c}, \quad (1)$$

where $w_{i,j,c}$ is the monthly wage of expected job. We standardize all match quality measures to have a mean of zero and a standard deviation of one ($\text{SD_Match}_{i,j}$). This facilitates the comparison of coefficients in front of different match quality measures. $X_{i,j,c}$ incorporates applicant characteristics and job characteristics; $\varepsilon_{i,j,c}$ is the error term. Applicant characteristics consist of years of schooling, working experience (including the square term), gender, birth month dummies, type of school,¹⁸ marital status, employment status, and detailed major FEs. Job characteristics encompass education and experience requirements, firm ownership type,¹⁹ firm scale,²⁰ detailed occupation FEs, industry FEs, and city FEs of the applied job. For each dimension, we conduct three regressions. The first two regressions include the traditional measure and the GPT measure separately, while the third integrates both measures. Given the positive correlation between any

¹⁸We categorized schools into three groups based on the government’s classification of elite universities—known as “Project 985” and “Project 211”. “Project 985,” initiated in 1998, aims to establish a cohort of world-class universities in China. Under this initiative, significant resources were allocated to 39 universities to improve their infrastructure, faculty quality, and research capabilities. “Project 211,” launched in 1995, aims to strengthen approximately 100 key universities and disciplines nationwide. It is important to note that all universities classified under “Project 985” are also designated as “Project 211” universities.

¹⁹There are 9 ownership types, including state-owned enterprises (SOEs) and private firms.

²⁰The firm scale is categorized as follows: less than 20, 20-99, 100-499, 500-999, 1000-9999, and 10,000 and above employees.

two match quality measures in Zhaopin.com data, we run three additional regressions controlling for all traditional match measures, all GPT match measures, and all traditional and GPT match measures, respectively. Because some match quality measures are indicator variables (such as GPT major-title match indicator) and others are continuous variables (such as Duncan major-occupation match index), we standardize all measures to have a mean of zero and standard deviation (SD) of one to facilitate comparison of wage effects.²¹ Standard errors are clustered at the level of detailed occupation category of the applied jobs.

We present the results in Table 4. A wage premium is observed for each dimension of the match, whether assessed through the traditional methods or our GPT method. Each match quality measure, considered individually, demonstrates a statistically significant positive association with the monthly wage of the expected job, conditional on the applicant and job characteristics. For example, in column (1), a one-SD increase in the “occupation-occupation” match, indicated by the same-occupation dummy, is associated with a wage increase of 0.8 percent. However, our GPT occupation-occupation match indicator suggests a larger effect, increasing the wage by 2.2 percent for a one-SD increase in the indicator. For the “industry-industry” match, the coefficient in front of the traditional measure is close to that for the GPT measure, as shown in columns (4) and (5). The estimated wage effect is approximately equivalent to a 2 percent increase in wages for a one-SD increase in match measures. Regarding the “major-occupation” match, the coefficient in front of the Duncan major-occupation match index implies that the wage would increase by 0.7 percent with a one-SD increase in the match index. The GPT major-title match indicator implies a smaller effect (about 0.5 percent for a one-SD increase in the match measure) of the “major-occupation” match. When accounting for correlations between match quality measures across different dimensions, all coefficients shown in columns (10) and (11) remain statistically significant and positive.

4.2 Recovering the Overlooked Information in Categorical Variables

Another important insight from Table 4 is that the GPT measure can provide additional information. To quantify this, we measure the extra “information” associated with various match quality measures as the additional R -squared when introducing match quality measures alongside applicant and job characteristics (i.e., without applicant-job pair information in the regression).

²¹Note that we only standardize match quality measures for Mincer regression analysis.

For example, as shown in columns (1) and (3), the additional R -squared increases from 0.0282 to 0.1691 after introducing the GPT measure of the “occupation–occupation” match, representing approximately a sixfold increase. Regarding the “industry–industry” and “major–occupation” matches, both measures still exhibit statistically significant positive effects, as shown in columns (6) and (9), suggesting that the GPT measure complements traditional measures by capturing the overlooked textual information.

We then investigate specific sources of additional information provided by the GPT measure while controlling for all variations in the corresponding traditional measure. The traditional JS measure for the occupation–occupation (industry–industry, respectively) match is the same-occupation (industry, respectively) dummy. Therefore, the traditional JS measure cannot further distinguish occupations or industries once they don’t belong to the same category. This explains why, when conditional on applying for jobs in different occupation/industry categories, the coefficients of the JS measure cannot be estimated, as illustrated in columns (1) and (3) in Table 5. However, our GPT measures still demonstrate statistically significant positive effects on the wage. A one-SD increase in the GPT occupation–occupation match and industry–industry match indicators is associated with 2.7% and 0.6% increases in expected wage, respectively. Following a similar logic, the coefficient of the RM major–occupation match cannot be estimated once we control for the major–occupation category pair FEs (column (5) in Table 5). However, the GPT major–title match still depicts a positive coefficient because the GPT method has the capacity to delve beyond detailed occupation categories to the titles of the jobs. Furthermore, except for the industry–industry match, the magnitude of the coefficient for the GPT measure barely changes even when all traditional match quality measures are controlled, as indicated in columns (2) and (6). These findings suggest that the additional information contributed by GPT measure is orthogonal to other variations.

The results in Table 5 echo our discussions on the relative advantage of the GPT method over traditional methods in Section 3.3. When considering the occupation–occupation (industry–industry, respectively) match, the GPT measure captures label information associated with different occupation (industry, respectively) categories that may have been overlooked. When examining the major–occupation match, the GPT measure allows us to explore deeper into a category by directly assessing the match between majors and job titles. Specifically, the extra information provided by the GPT measure arises from the distinctions captured by the various job titles within

an occupation category for each major–occupation category pair.

4.3 The Wide Applicability of the GPT Method

We now utilize the CLDS data to demonstrate the broad applicability of our GPT method and offer supplementary evidence of its validity. Our focus is on assessing the most demanding major–occupation matches. The RM method, employed for Zhaopin.com data, cannot be used for CLDS data due to a small sample size. However, our GPT method does not impose any requirement on sample size. Additionally, since jobs in the CLDS data are categorized by the official occupation classification system, we can employ the JA method as a traditional measure of match for comparison with the GPT measure.

We find that our GPT measure successfully replicates the main patterns seen in Zhaopin.com data, despite the smaller sample size in CLDS. The two measures are highly positively correlated, with a correlation coefficient of 0.549, as demonstrated in Panel B of Table 3. The results of Mincer regressions are provided in Table 6.²² A one–SD increase in the major–occupation match measure based on the traditional JA method or the GPT method, is estimated to be approximately 3.8–6.1 percent of the monthly wage. This wage effect aligns with the findings of Robst (2007). These discrepancies can be attributed to differences in the two datasets and their respective contexts, as detailed in Section 3. When both measures are included in columns (3) and (6), the coefficient for the traditional JA measure decreases and becomes insignificant, while that for the GPT measure remains positive and similar. These findings once again validate our GPT measure and further indicate its broad applicability across various datasets and contexts.

Several advantages of our GPT method should be emphasized when compared to the traditional JA method. First and most important, the GPT method treats the GPT itself as the job analyst, which is much more cost-effective than the traditional JA method employing “real” job analysts. The traditional JA method often relies on government efforts to provide matched majors, fields of knowledge, or skills for occupations, such as the Ministry of Human Resources and Social

²²Due to the different data structure, the regressions differ slightly from those using Zhaopin.com data. The main difference is that we use the information of employees’ current job instead of applied job. Consequently, we don’t have the information of the job’s required education and experience in CLDS. In addition, the classification systems of occupations and industries are different with those in Zhaopin.com data. Given a relatively small sample size of the CLDS data, we only consider two types of firm’s ownership—SOEs and others.

Security in China, the O*NET in the U.S.,²³ and the European Commission.²⁴ Hence, our GPT method could be particularly valuable for comprehending labor market mismatches in developing countries, where employing an adequate number of experts can be either infeasible or too costly.

Second, the GPT method can significantly reduce the workload for researchers processing text data. In cases where the official major–occupation correspondence is unavailable, researchers using the JA method must take on the demanding task of acting as job analysts, introducing potential biases. For example, Nordin et al. (2010) and Domadenik et al. (2013) established the correspondence by comparing detailed descriptions of major categories with those of occupation categories in documents outlining standard classifications for majors and occupations. Even when such official correspondence is available, if the classification systems of majors and occupations used in the data are inconsistent with the official ones, as observed in our Zhaopin.com data, the JA method requires researchers to construct a crosswalk between these classification systems. This process is notoriously time-consuming and challenging. In contrast, the GPT method can be applied to any classification system, as demonstrated in the previous subsection.

5 Gender Difference in Match Quality

5.1 Gender Difference in Match Quality

In the previous section, we validated the GPT method for measuring labor market match quality. In this section, we explore the relationship between match quality and pre-determined individual characteristics, with a specific emphasis on gender differences. The regression model is set as follows:

$$\text{Match}_{i,j,c} = \beta_1 \text{Female}_{i,j,c} + \beta_2 \text{Married}_{i,j,c} + \beta_3 \text{Exp}_{i,j,c} + \beta_4 \text{Exp}_{i,j,c}^2 + \beta_5 \text{Edu}_{i,j,c} + X'_{i,j,c} \gamma + \varepsilon_{i,j,c}, \quad (2)$$

where $\text{Female}_{i,j,c}$ is an indicator for whether applicant i is female or not; $\text{Married}_{i,j,c}$ is a dummy variable indicating whether i is married or not; $\text{Exp}_{i,j,c}$ is the working experience; $\text{Edu}_{i,j,c}$ refers

²³The O*NET does not directly provide matched majors. Instead, it offers required fields of knowledge for occupations. Researchers interested in studying the “major–occupation” mismatch can follow Yakusheva (2010) to first construct cross-references between the majors and O*NET fields of knowledge, and then compare fields of knowledge acquired from the major to those required for the occupation.

²⁴See https://ec.europa.eu/eurostat/documents/7884615/8088533/Conversion+Table+ISCO_08_ISCED_13.pdf for the major–occupation correspondence table.

to years of schooling; $X_{i,j,c}$ includes other applicant characteristics and job characteristics controlled in equation (1) and $\varepsilon_{i,j,c}$ is the error term. We choose those pre-determined individual characteristics as those commonly used in the literature (Sellami et al., 2018).

The results presented in Table 7 using Zhaopin.com data reveal that women are more likely than men to be mismatched when applying for jobs.²⁵ Using both traditional and GPT match quality measures, we find that women have a 1.6% higher likelihood of applying for jobs in different industries from that of their previous job. Additionally, women tend to apply for positions that are less aligned with their major. Understanding the reasons behind these gender differences is crucial.²⁶ Phimister (2005) suggested that women, particularly married women, exhibit lower search mobility, leading to poorer labor market outcomes. We find supporting evidence for gender differences in job search behaviors, in that women show a higher tendency to apply for jobs in their current city, as indicated in column (10) of Table 7.

Coefficients associated with variables other than gender also reveal intriguing patterns. First, married job seekers tend to stay within similar occupation and industry categories, resulting in a higher probability (0.6–1.6%) of applying for a job in the same occupation or industry as the previous job. However, marital status is not statistically associated with major–occupation match quality. Second, unemployment is negatively correlated with the match quality between workers and jobs across all three dimensions, consistent with findings in Lachowska et al. (2020), which suggests that unemployed job seekers have fewer options compared to those searching while employed. Third, job seekers with higher education levels (those with some graduate education) are more inclined to apply for jobs in occupations that align well with their qualifications, which is perhaps unsurprising as post-graduate studies provide individuals with more major-specific knowledge.

5.2 Gender Stereotypes of the GPT

A substantial body of literature highlights the role of gender stereotypes in shaping gender disparities in labor market outcomes (for an extensive review, see Blau and Kahn (2017)). To

²⁵Our discussion primarily focuses on the results using the Zhaopin.com data. Corresponding results using the CLDS data are presented in Appendix Table A3.

²⁶Numerous studies have identified various factors explaining gender differences in labor market outcomes, including occupational segregation, variations in human capital accumulation, demand for flexibility, and differences in personality and individual preferences (Goldin, 2014; Card et al., 2016; Olivetti and Petrongolo, 2016; Cortés et al., 2023).

assess the significance of gender stereotypes in the gender mismatch gap, we employ GPT in a simulated classical audit study (Goldin and Rouse, 2000). We assume that GPT’s training enables it to simulate human thought processes. We investigate the disparity in GPT’s responses using two different prompts: one concealing gender information (used in our primary analysis) and the other revealing it. If GPT lacks gender stereotypes in its decision-making, its responses should remain consistent regardless of whether gender information is disclosed to the GPT. However, upon revealing the gender information, we find that GPT is more likely to perceive female applicants as suitable matches for their applied positions. Columns (7)–(9) of Table 7 present the gender mismatch gap in GPT measures based on Zhaopin.com data when gender information is disclosed. We note that the gender gap in the major–occupation match dissipates and even slightly reverses once gender information is revealed to GPT. The coefficient of being female on the major–occupation match increases from -1.8% to 1%, as depicted in columns (6) and (9).

Why does GPT perceive a female applicant as a better fit for a job once it knows her gender? We posit that gender stereotypes play a significant role. Another interpretation of our finding is that GPT believes women are suited to a wider range of occupations based on their major, or that a strong major–occupation match is less crucial for women. Our discovery aligns with the positive bias towards hiring female workers identified by Chan and Wang (2018). Their research, utilizing both non-experimental and experimental data from an online labor platform, unveiled a greater likelihood of women being hired. They further demonstrate that women are preferred in feminine-typed occupations, while men do not experience higher hiring probabilities in masculine-typed occupations, consistent with the gender stereotype hypothesis. Similarly, Carlsson (2011) find that women in Sweden have a somewhat higher callback rate for interviews in female-dominated occupations, whereas in male-dominated occupations, there is no evidence of gender disparity.

Table 8 investigates whether our findings from the simulated audit study can be attributed to gender stereotypes. Specifically, it examines whether women would be perceived as “matched” to certain jobs traditionally associated with femininity, regardless of their major. We regress the disparity between the GPT measures with and without gender information on gender and the interactions of gender with standardized proportions of females in occupation, industry, and major categories. Utilizing the Zhaopin.com data, Table 8 finds that gender stereotypes are more evident in occupations or majors categorized as more feminine for the major–occupation and industry–industry matches. As indicated in columns (2) and (3), a 10% increase in the proportion

of females in the occupation (major, respectively) category increases the probability of a major–occupation match by 0.41% (0.97%, respectively) more for women than for men; a 10% increase in the proportion of females in the occupation (industry, respectively) category increases the probability of an industry–industry match by 0.07% (0.21%, respectively) more for women than for men. Similar findings are observed for the CLDS data, as depicted in column (4) of Appendix Table A3.

In summary, our findings indicate that GPT can effectively replicate the behaviors of real employers in labor markets and demonstrate gender stereotypes. Therefore, employers considering the utilization of GPT for recruitment, such as resume screening, should exercise caution.²⁷ For researchers, its advanced natural language processing capabilities and adaptability make it a promising tool for simulating audit studies to investigate potential biases or stereotype across various contexts.²⁸

6 Conclusion and Discussion

The recent development in artificial intelligence, highlighted by large language models, enables economists to uncover textual information that was previously challenging to capture. One such example is the textual information in categorical variables. Traditional econometric methods typically use a fixed-effect approach to handle categorical variables, overlooking the textual label information associated with different categories that could capture “similarities” among them. The emergence of LLMs provides a viable approach to address this issue.

We employ LLMs in the context of labor market mismatch. Specifically, we task a large language model with simulating the role of an HR specialist to assess the suitability of an applicant with specific characteristics for a given job. Our empirical analysis, utilizing both administrative data from an online job posting platform and typical survey data, justifies the GPT as a potential measure of match quality and highlights its advantage over traditional measures of match quality. We emphasize three main findings. First, our GPT measure correlates highly with traditional

²⁷Employers in the real world are beginning to consider LLMs for recruitment. For example, an article in Forbes (<https://www.forbes.com/sites/bernardmarr/2023/03/07/the-7-best-examples-of-how-chatgpt-can-be-used-in-human-resources-hr/?sh=448412a94a82>) discusses how ChatGPT can be used in recruitment.

²⁸Note that although LLMs have shown impressive potential in simulating human behavior, conducting LLM-simulated experiments still encounters challenges of endogeneity. Please refer to Gui and Toubia (2023) for technical details.

approaches to defining match quality, including the job switching method, the realized matches method, and the job analysis method. Second, the GPT approach can provide additional information beyond the traditional methods by utilizing the textual information in the category labels. For example, while the job switching method only considers whether the previous job and the applied job belong to the same occupation/industry, the GPT method takes into account the “similarity” between the two jobs. Last, the GPT method is easy and inexpensive to apply. Unlike the job switching method and the realized method, which require either high-quality panel data or large-sample administrative data, our GPT method is applicable to survey data (e.g., CLDS) with only 2,891 observations. Unlike the job analysis method, which traditionally employs real-world human experts and is usually too expensive for researchers, the GPT method employs large language models as simulated experts and is significantly more affordable.

We apply the GPT method to investigate gender differences in labor match quality. The results indicate that women in the Zhaopin.com data are more likely to experience mismatches, possibly due to factors like marriage and gender disparities in job search scope. Next, we use GPT to simulate an audit study by revealing gender information to the large language model. We discover that many major–occupation pairs previously considered poorly matched become well matched once GPT is aware that the applicant is female. Assuming the LLM mimics human language in the real world, this gap provides strong evidence of gender stereotype suggesting that finding a well-matched job is perceived as less important for females. We find this phenomenon to be more prevalent in female-dominated majors, industries or occupations.

In summary, by utilizing GPT to analyze labor market mismatches, we effectively overcome several limitations associated with traditional measures. GPT’s ability to process and interpret textual data allows for more nuanced labor market analysis, which is particularly relevant in developing economies with limited access to detailed datasets or informative official documents on the labor market. Our research marks an initial step in integrating AI technology with economic analysis, opening possibilities for future research to refine and expand upon our methodology. This integration of GPT into labor market analysis not only demonstrates its usefulness in handling complex datasets and categorical variables but also highlights its potential to provide new insights into other economic inquiries.

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Figure 1: An Example of Constructing the “Major-occupation” Match Measure using GPT

[User]
假设你是一名 HR, 请你仅基于提供给你的信息 (不要考虑其他的信息或假设, 如学历、经验、以往工作内容在职学习、培训), 判断求职者是否能够从事该岗位?

职位名称: 汽车零部件销售
求职者专业: 管理学

请仔细思考再从 [‘一定是’, ‘大概是’, ‘大概不是’, ‘一定不是’] 中选择一个答案

[User]
Pretend that you are an HR specialist. Based solely on the provided information (without considering any additional information or assumptions such as education level, working experience, previous jobs, on-the-job learning, or training), please assess whether the applicant graduated from [major title] is capable of performing the [job title].

Job title: Sales of automotive part
Major title: Management Science

Please carefully analyze and then choose an answer from [“Definitely can”, “Probably can”, “Probably cannot”, “Definitely cannot”].

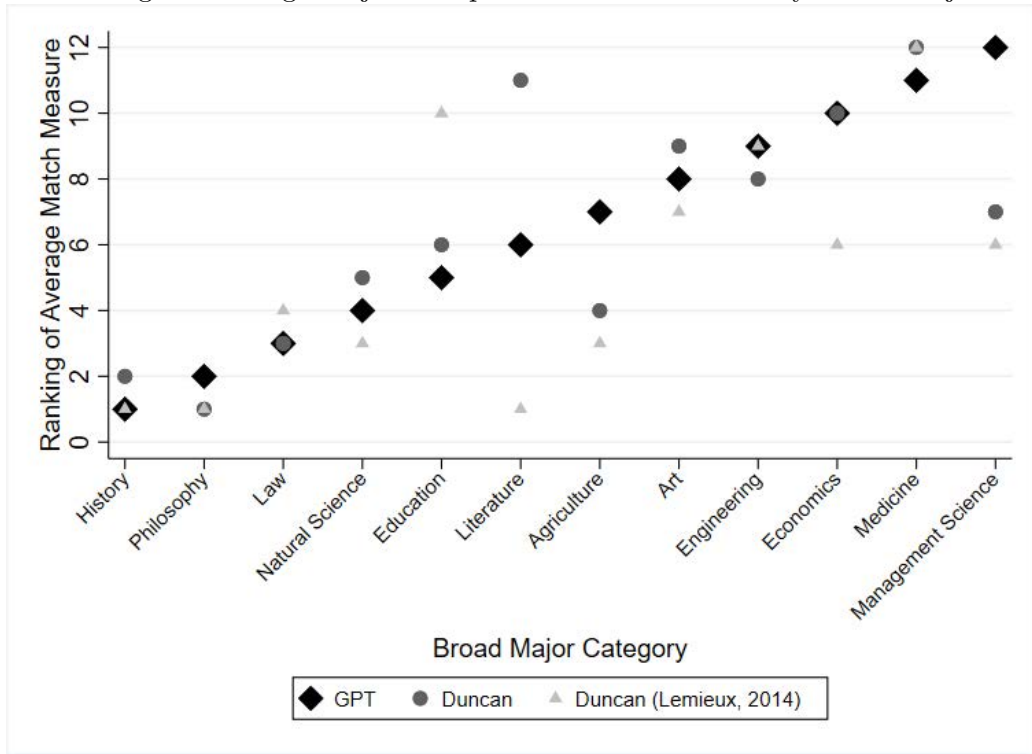
(a) Prompt of the Question

[GPT]
根据提供的信息, 我会选择答案为“大概不是”。因为求职者的专业是管理学, 与汽车零部件销售的领域相关性较低, 通常这个岗位需要一定的汽车相关知识和技能。然而, 这只是一个初步的判断, 实际上求职者是否适合这个岗位还需要考虑其他因素, 如他们的经验、销售技能和适应能力等。

[GPT]
Based on the information provided, I would choose the answer to be “probably not”. This is because the job seeker's major is management, which is less relevant to the field of automotive parts sales. Typically, this position requires a certain level of automotive related knowledge and skills. However, this is only a preliminary judgment, and in fact, whether the job seeker is suitable for this position also needs to consider other factors, such as their experience, sales skills, and adaptability.

(b) Answer

Figure 2: Rankings of Average Major–occupation Match Measures by Broad Major Categories



Notes: We separately rank the averages of traditional and GPT measures by 12 broad major categories and compare them to the ranking of average Duncan major–occupation match index presented in Lemieux (2014). In Lemieux (2014), there are only 9 broad major categories, which are not directly comparable to our 12 broad major categories. To align the two sets of categories, we first establish a crosswalk, which may not be strictly one-to-one, using the titles of major categories. For example, the “Humanities” category in Lemieux (2014) corresponds to three categories in our study: “History,” “Philosophy,” and “Literature.” We then rescale the 1–9 ranking in Lemieux (2014) to 1–12.

Table 1: Comparisons Between Traditional and GPT Measures (Zhaopin.com Data)

Detailed Occupation Category of Applied Job	Detailed Occupation Category of Current Job	Same-occupation Dummy	GPT Response	GPT Occupation-occupation Match
Software test engineer	Software test engineer	1	Probably can	1
	Software R&D Engineer	0	Probably can	1
	Sales representative	0	Probably cannot	0
Industry Category of Applied Job	Industry Category of Current Job	Same-industry Dummy	GPT Response	GPT Industry-industry Match
IT services	IT services	1	Probably can	1
	Computer software	0	Probably can	1
	Computer hardware	0	Probably cannot	0
Applied Job Title (Detailed Occupation Category)	Major (Detailed Major Category)	Duncan Major-occupation Match	GPT Response	GPT Major-title Match
Administration staff (Administrative specialist/assistant)	Human resource management (Business management)	0.918	Probably can	1
Asset administrator (Administrative specialist/assistant)	Human resource management (Business management)	0.918	Probably cannot	0

Table 2: Summary Statistics

Data	Zhaopin.com			CLDS Data		
	Mean (1)	S.D. (2)	Obs. (3)	Mean (4)	S.D. (5)	Obs. (6)
Panel A: Individual Characteristics						
Female	0.48	0.50	847,801	0.50	0.50	2,891
Age	27	4.70	847,801	36	9.70	2,887
Married	0.28	0.45	847,801	0.71	0.45	2,891
Bachelor degree or above	0.44	0.50	847,801	0.51	0.50	2,891
Years of schooling	15.53	0.76	847,801	16	0.88	2,891
Working experience	5.70	3.60	847,801	20	9.8	2,887
Monthly wage of the most recent job	4,457	3,076	846,535	4,848	4,829	2,858
Monthly wage of expected job	4,709	3,243	846,740			
Unemployed	0.73	0.44	847,801			
Panel B: Match Measures						
Same-occupation dummy	0.22	0.42	847,801			
GPT occupation–occupation match	0.55	0.50	626,168			
Same-industry dummy	0.26	0.44	847,801			
GPT industry–industry match	0.34	0.47	770,039			
Duncan major–occupation match	0.711	0.333	816,161			
JA major–occupation match				0.33	0.47	2,911
GPT major–title match	0.46	0.50	638,414	0.43	0.50	2,885

Notes: Panels A and B present the means and standard deviations of individual characteristics and match quality measures, respectively. Columns (1)–(3) and columns (4)–(6) show the results for the Zhaopin.com data and the CLDS data, respectively.

Table 3: Pairwise Correlations between the Traditional and GPT Measures

Panel A: Zhaopin.com Data	Same-occupation dummy (1)	GPT occupation-occupation match (2)	Same-industry dummy (3)	GPT industry-industry match (4)	Duncan major-occupation match (5)	GPT major-title match (6)
Same-occupation dummy	1					
GPT occupation-occupation match	0.585***	1				
Same-industry dummy	0.130***	0.094***	1			
GPT industry-industry match	0.125***	0.103***	0.880***	1		
Duncan major-occupation match	0.103***	0.122***	0.075***	0.086***	1	
GPT major-title match	0.075***	0.102***	0.003***	0.024***	0.276***	1
<hr/>						
Panel B: CLDS Data	JA major-occupation match	GPT major-title match				
JA major-occupation match	1					
GPT major-title match	0.549***	1				

Table 4: Wage Premium of the Applicant–Posting Match (Zhaopin.com Data)

Dependent Variable	Monthly Wage of Expected Job (Log)											
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)	(9)	(10)	(11)	(12)
Same-occupation dummy	0.008** (0.003)		-0.005 (0.005)							0.007* (0.004)		-0.005 (0.005)
GPT occupation–occupation match		0.022*** (0.004)	0.025*** (0.006)								0.020*** (0.004)	0.023*** (0.005)
Same-industry dummy				0.021*** (0.002)		0.014*** (0.002)				0.016*** (0.002)		0.012*** (0.003)
GPT industry–industry match					0.020*** (0.002)	0.008*** (0.002)					0.014*** (0.002)	0.003 (0.003)
Duncan major–occupation match							0.007*** (0.002)		0.006*** (0.002)	0.005** (0.002)		0.003* (0.002)
GPT major–title match								0.005** (0.002)	0.003* (0.002)		0.004* (0.002)	0.003 (0.002)
Basic control	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Major category FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Occupation category of applied job FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Industry category of applied job FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
City of applied job FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Observations	602,009	602,009	602,009	740,250	740,250	740,250	621,991	621,991	621,991	432,304	432,304	432,304
Additional R-squared for controlling match measure (%)	0.0282	0.1611	0.1691	0.1361	0.1254	0.1410	0.0149	0.0062	0.0178	0.1174	0.2181	0.2410

Notes: This table presents the wage premium of the applicant–posting match index across all three dimensions for Zhaopin.com data: the “occupation–occupation” match, “industry–industry” match, and “major–occupation” match. For each dimension, we conduct three Mincer regressions. The first two regressions include the traditional measure and the GPT measure separately, while the last one incorporates both measures. Given the positive correlation between any two match quality measures in Zhaopin.com data, we run three additional regressions in columns (10)–(12) controlling for all traditional measures, all GPT measures, and all traditional and GPT measures, respectively. The baseline control variables comprise individual characteristics (gender, dummies for birth month, years of schooling, type of school, marital status, employment status, working experience, and its square term) and posting characteristics (education and experience requirements, and ownership type and scale of the hiring firms). Standard errors are clustered at the detailed occupation category level. * significant at 10%; ** significant at 5%; *** significant at 1%.

Table 5: Sources of the Extra Information of the GPT Measures (Zhaopin.com Data)

Dependent Variable	Monthly Wage of Expected Job (Log)					
	Applied Job in a Different Occupation Category		Applied Job in a Different Industry Category		Adding Major-occupation Category Pair FEs	
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
Regressions Conditional on:						
Same-occupation dummy	Omitted	Omitted		-0.007 (0.005)		-0.006 (0.005)
GPT occupation–occupation match	0.027*** (0.005)	0.024*** (0.005)		0.024*** (0.005)		0.024*** (0.005)
Same-industry dummy		0.016*** (0.003)	Omitted	Omitted		0.012*** (0.003)
GPT industry–industry match		0.004 (0.003)	0.006*** (0.002)	0.001 (0.003)		0.004 (0.003)
Duncan major–occupation match		0.002 (0.002)		0.005*** (0.002)	Omitted	Omitted
GPT major–title match		0.003 (0.002)		0.002 (0.002)	0.004* (0.002)	0.004 (0.002)
Basic control	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Major category FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Occupation category of applied job FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	No	No
Major category×Occupation category of applied job FE	No	No	No	No	Yes	Yes
Industry category of applied job FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
City of applied job FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Observations	422,545	297,280	527,556	296,121	618,011	429,704

Notes: This table investigates whether the GPT measure can still provide extra information when controlling for traditional measures by imposing various restrictions. Columns (1) and (2) ((3) and (4), respectively) focus on a subsample that apply to jobs in a different occupation (industry, respectively) category as the previous one. Columns (5) and (6) additionally controls for major–occupation pair dummies. The baseline control variables comprise individual characteristics (gender, dummies for birth month, years of schooling, type of school, marital status, employment status, working experience, and working experience squared) and posting characteristics (education and experience requirements, and ownership type and scale of the hiring firms). Standard errors are clustered at the detailed occupation category level. * significant at 10%; ** significant at 5%; *** significant at 1%.

Table 6: Wage Premium of the “Major–Occupation” Match (CLDS Data)

Dependent Variable	Monthly Wage of Current Job (Log)					
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)
JA major-occupation match	0.034** (0.015)		0.005 (0.015)	0.036** (0.017)		0.020 (0.016)
GPT major-title match		0.061*** (0.019)	0.056*** (0.020)		0.052** (0.020)	0.041** (0.021)
Basic control	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Survey year FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
City FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Major category FE	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
Occupation category FE	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
Industry category FE	No	No	No	Yes	Yes	Yes
Observations	2,504	2,459	2,366	2,492	2,444	2,353
R-squared	0.282	0.279	0.283	0.347	0.348	0.356

Notes: This table shows the wage premium of the “major–occupation” match measured by the traditional JA and GPT methods using the CLDS data. In addition to years of schooling, working experience (including the square term), the basic control variables includes gender, dummies for month of birth, marital status, type of school, and firm’s scale and ownership type of the current job. We also control fixed effects for cities and survey years. Columns (4)–(6) additionally control the fixed effects for major categories, occupation categories, and industry categories. Standard errors are clustered at the detailed occupation category level. * significant at 10%; ** significant at 5%; *** significant at 1%.

Table 7: Gender Differences in Match Quality (Zhaopin.com Data)

Dependent Variable	Traditional Match Measures			GPT Match Measures without Gender Info			GPT Match Measures with Gender Info			Job Search Scope
	Same-occupation dummy (1)	Same-industry dummy (2)	Duncan major-occupation match (3)	GPT occupation-occupation match (4)	GPT industry-industry match (5)	GPT major-title match (6)	GPT occupation-occupation match (7)	GPT industry-industry match (8)	GPT major-title match (9)	Apply for a Job in Current City (10)
Female	0.003 (0.010)	-0.016*** (0.003)	-0.018*** (0.005)	-0.023 (0.016)	-0.016*** (0.003)	-0.018*** (0.004)	-0.001 (0.014)	-0.017*** (0.003)	0.010* (0.005)	0.026*** (0.002)
Married	0.006* (0.003)	0.006* (0.003)	-0.002 (0.002)	0.016*** (0.003)	0.006* (0.003)	0.002 (0.002)	0.015*** (0.003)	0.006** (0.003)	-0.000 (0.002)	0.022*** (0.002)
Unemployed	-0.007 (0.006)	-0.025*** (0.003)	-0.007*** (0.001)	-0.013** (0.005)	-0.027*** (0.003)	-0.003 (0.002)	-0.011** (0.005)	-0.027*** (0.003)	-0.003 (0.002)	0.049*** (0.003)
Experience	0.014*** (0.005)	0.012*** (0.002)	-0.009*** (0.002)	0.031*** (0.003)	0.014*** (0.002)	-0.005** (0.002)	0.028*** (0.004)	0.014*** (0.002)	-0.004** (0.002)	0.014*** (0.001)
Experience ²	-0.001*** (0.000)	-0.001*** (0.000)	0.000*** (0.000)	-0.001*** (0.000)	-0.001*** (0.000)	0.000 (0.000)	-0.001*** (0.000)	-0.001*** (0.000)	0.000 (0.000)	-0.001*** (0.000)
Years of schooling	-0.007* (0.004)	-0.009*** (0.002)	0.011*** (0.002)	0.001 (0.004)	-0.010*** (0.002)	0.017*** (0.003)	0.001 (0.004)	-0.009*** (0.002)	0.016*** (0.004)	-0.015*** (0.001)
Basic control	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Major category FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Occupation category of applied job FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Industry category of applied job FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
City of applied job FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Observations	602,704	741,229	622,946	602,704	741,229	622,946	602,704	741,229	622,946	816,154
R-squared	0.139	0.262	0.227	0.171	0.227	0.273	0.252	0.152	0.240	0.067

Notes: This table examines the determinants of the match between workers and applied jobs, with a particular focus on gender. Columns (1)–(3) and (4)–(6) present the results for traditional and GPT measures, respectively. To understand the important of gender stereotype, we construct corresponding GPT measures when workers' gender information is revealed in the prompt, and present the results in columns (7)–(9). Column (10) shows gender differences in the scope of job search. The baseline control variables comprise dummies for birth month, education and experience requirements of applied jobs, and ownership type and scale of the hiring firms. Standard errors are clustered at the detailed occupation category level. * significant at 10%; ** significant at 5%; *** significant at 1%.

Table 8: Female Share in Industry/Occupation/Major and Gender Stereotype of the GPT (Zhaopin.com Data)

Dependent Variable	Diff in GPT Measures w and w/o Gender Info		
	GPT occupation- occupation match (1)	GPT industry- industry match (2)	GPT major- title match (3)
Female	0.018*** (0.007)	-0.002* (0.001)	0.016*** (0.003)
Female×Female% occupation category	0.042 (0.028)	0.007* (0.004)	0.041** (0.018)
Female×Female% by industry category	0.017 (0.020)	0.021* (0.012)	-0.011 (0.022)
Female×Female% by major category	0.008 (0.011)	0.007 (0.005)	0.097*** (0.021)
Basic control	Yes	Yes	Yes
Major category FE	Yes	Yes	Yes
Occupation category of applied job FE	Yes	Yes	Yes
Industry category of applied job FE	Yes	Yes	Yes
City of applied job FE	Yes	Yes	Yes
Observations	602,704	741,229	622,946
R-squared	0.085	0.104	0.065

Notes: This table presents further evidence of the existence of gender stereotype using Zhaopin.com data. The baseline control variables are the same as Table 7. Standard errors are clustered at the detailed occupation category level. * significant at 10%; ** significant at 5%; *** significant at 1%.

Appendix A: Additional Tables and Figures

Appendix Table A1: Illustrating the Industrial and Occupational Classification Systems in the Zhaopin.com Data

Job Title	Detailed Occupation Category	Broad Occupation Category	Industry Category
Software test engineer	Software test engineer	Software personnel/Internet developer/ System integration staff	Computer software
Game tester	Software test engineer	Software personnel/Internet developer/ System integration staff	Internet business/E-commerce
Software R&D engineer	Software R&D engineer	Software personnel/Internet developer/ System integration staff	Computer software
Video algorithm engineer	Software R&D engineer	Software personnel/Internet developer/ System integration staff	Internet business/E-commerce
Accountant	Accountant	Financial personnel/Auditors/ Taxation staff	Computer software
Human resources specialist	Administrative officer/ Administrative assistant	Administrative staff /Logistics personnel/ Secretarial staff	Computer software
Accountant	Accountant	Financial personnel/Auditors/ Taxation staff	Internet business/E-commerce
Human resources specialist	Administrative officer/ Administrative assistant	Administrative staff /Logistics personnel/ Secretarial staff	Internet business/E-commerce

Appendix Table A2: Examples of Duncan Major-occupation Match Index

Detailed Occupation Category	Detailed Major Category (Proportion of Applicants in Major Category in the Data, %)	Proportion of Applicants in Major Category within Occupation Category (%)	Proportion difference (%)	Duncan Index
Tour consultant	Mechanical (9.17)	2.11	-7.06	0.016
Tour consultant	Tourism management (2.38)	30.56	28.18	0.99
Mechanical designer	Mechanical (9.17)	82.85	73.68	1
Mechanical designer	Tourism management (2.38)	0.04	-2.33	0.082

Notes: This table presents examples of the Duncan major-occupation match index for two occupation categories (“Tour consultant” and “Mechanical designer”) and two major categories (“Mechanical” and “Tourism management”).

Appendix Table A3: Gender Differences in Match Quality and Gender Stereotype of the GPT (CLDS Data)

Dependent Variable	JA Major-occupation Match	GPT Major-title Match without Gender Info	GPT Major-title Match with Gender Info	Diff in GPT Major-title Match w and w/o Gender Info
	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)
Female	-0.021 (0.021)	0.010 (0.018)	-0.027* (0.014)	-0.063*** (0.017)
Female×Female% by occupation category				0.167* (0.087)
Female×Female% by industry category				-0.015 (0.087)
Female×Female% by major category				0.232*** (0.082)
Married	-0.032** (0.015)	-0.050* (0.029)	-0.006 (0.023)	0.044** (0.018)
Experience	0.002 (0.003)	0.002 (0.005)	-0.004 (0.004)	-0.006** (0.003)
Experience ²	-0.000 (0.000)	0.000 (0.000)	0.000* (0.000)	0.000 (0.000)
Years of schooling	-0.006 (0.012)	0.008 (0.013)	0.003 (0.013)	-0.001 (0.006)
Basic control	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Survey year FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
City FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Major category FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Occupation category FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Industry category FE	Yes	Yes	Yes	Yes
Observations	2,733	2,677	2,700	2,590
R-squared	0.433	0.300	0.306	0.140

Notes: This table presents further evidence of the existence of gender stereotype using the CLDS data. The baseline control variables are the same as Table 6. Standard errors are clustered at the detailed occupation category level. * significant at 10%; ** significant at 5%; *** significant at 1%.

Appendix B: Discussion on the Prompt

In our main analysis, we employ a relatively simple prompt to produce different matching measures, akin to approaches used in existing literature (e.g., Eloundou et al. (2023)). We refrain from using more complex prompting strategies, like multivariable prompting and Chain of Thought (CoT) prompting, due to the tendency of Language Models (LLMs) to either focus solely on one dimension or demonstrate indiscriminate agreement with more complex prompts (Huang et al., 2023).

Complex prompting strategies appear to encourage the GPT to think more comprehensively in ways akin to humans. However, they may introduce biases into the GPT’s responses. Multivariable prompting involves incorporating additional information about individual characteristics (such as work experience, education level) and job characteristics (such as industry category, occupation category, ownership type of hiring firms) into the prompt. Providing more detailed information about workers and jobs helps humans obtain more accurate answers. Nonetheless, we have observed that in our experiment, the GPT tends to generate responses heavily reliant on a single dimension, particularly working experience.

CoT prompting is an approach aimed at opening the black box of LLMs by requiring the GPT to address questions step by step. In Appendix Figure B1, we illustrate an example of constructing the major–occupation match measure using CoT prompting. Before offering an answer regarding whether a worker who graduated in “Management science” is capable of performing the job “Sales of automotive parts,” the GPT is prompted to first complete specific job applicant characteristics from the worker’s major and job description from the job title. The GPT concludes that the worker “probably cannot” be capable for that job because the knowledge from the management science major is only partially related to automotive parts sales. In this example, CoT prompting demonstrates effectiveness. However, we have found that the GPT tends to provide inconsistent answers in very similar scenarios. This inconsistency arises because CoT prompts the GPT to first generate a multivariable setting (e.g., adding information on possible knowledge an applicant might possess), which consequently leads to inconsistent answers because of the same reason as multivariable prompting.

Using a conceptual framework of how LLMs work as a generating forward-looking sequences, we illustrate potential issues associated with complex prompting strategies. When evaluating the match between workers and jobs, the GPT predicts the likelihood of a word or sequence of words appearing in a given context, drawing from a vast corpus of text data. We conceptualize a sequence in the latent space as an ordered array $[x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k]$, originating from a learned concept set X_1, \dots, X_n . Within this framework, the core function of a model is to predict the subsequent token x_{k+1} , based on a prior sequence $[x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k]$. This prediction mechanism is quantitatively expressed as estimating the probability

$$P(x_{k+1} = X_i | x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k).$$

A generative model’s training aims to minimize the vector distance between the empirically observed distribution $\hat{P}(x_{k+1} = X_i | x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k)$ and the model’s generated distribution $P(x_{k+1} = X_i | x_1, x_2, \dots, x_k)$. An efficient model under this framework excels at minimizing this distance, thus proficiently generating tasks where inference sequences resemble those encountered in its training. Conversely, the model’s effectiveness tends to diminish when faced with scenarios where the inference sequences significantly deviate from the training data. The first task is named as

“interpolation tasks,” and the second as “extrapolation tasks.”¹

The framework’s architecture justifies our decision to avoid complex prompting strategies such as multivariable prompting or CoT prompting. Introducing additional conditioning elements, whether through CoT prompts or augmented conditioning variables, potentially reduces the likelihood of encountering analogous sequences in the training data. This increases the risk of the model being applied to extrapolation tasks rather than interpolation tasks, thereby impairing the precision of the model-generated conditional probability distribution. Adding more conditions may lead to a decrease in model performance since the data used by the model for generating $P(x_3 = X_i|x_1, x_2)$ is likely to be smaller than the data used for generating $P(x_3 = X_i|x_1)$ and $P(x_3 = X_i|x_2)$. Therefore, it would be preferable for us to calculate $P(x_3 = X_i|x_1, x_2)$ with additional constraints using the generated $P(x_3 = X_i|x_1)$ and $P(x_3 = X_i|x_2)$, rather than directly eliciting $P(x_3 = X_i|x_1, x_2)$ from the model. Note that the structure of neural autoregressive generative models does not inherently imply that they compute $P(x_3 = X_i|x_1, x_2)$ by using information from $P(x_3 = X_i|x_1)$ and $P(x_3 = X_i|x_2)$. Instead, their generated $P(x_3 = X_i|x_1, x_2)$ results from minimizing the distance between the predicted $\hat{P}(x_3 = X_i|x_k)$ and the label $P(x_3 = X_i|x_k)$ during training.

Additional References

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Huang, L., W. Yu, W. Ma, W. Zhong, Z. Feng, H. Wang, Q. Chen, W. Peng, X. Feng, B. Qin, and T. Liu (2023). A survey on hallucination in Large Language Models: Principles, taxonomy, challenges, and open questions.

¹In the setting of LLMs, the distinction between interpolation and extrapolation tasks remains implicit. The lack of a concrete method to measure task similarity from the perspective of generative models adds complexity to this differentiation. Nevertheless, heuristic methods can be utilized to establish priors that differentiate interpolation tasks from extrapolation tasks, thereby facilitating the segmentation of extrapolation tasks into smaller, more manageable interpolation tasks.

Appendix Figure B1: An Example of Constructing the “Major-occupation” Match Measure Using GPT with CoT Prompting

[User]
假设你是一名 HR, 请你仅基于提供给你的信息 (不要考虑其他的信息或假设, 如学历、经验、以往工作内容、在职学习、培训), 判断求职者是否能够从事该岗位?

职位名称: 汽车零部件销售
求职者专业: 管理学

请逐步思考补充与职位对应的职位描述和求职者特征, 仔细分析再从 [‘一定是’, ‘大概是’, ‘大概不是’, ‘一定不是’] 中选择一个答案

[User]
Pretend that you are an HR specialist. Based solely on the provided information (without considering any additional information or assumptions such as education level, working experience, previous jobs, on-the-job learning, or training), please assess whether the applicant graduated from [major title] is capable of performing the [job title].

Job title: Sales of automotive part
Major title: Management Science

Please gradually consider completing job applicant characteristics and the job description, carefully analyze and then choose an answer from [“Definitely can”, “Probably can”, “Probably cannot”, “Definitely cannot”].

(a) Prompt of the Question

[GPT]
根据提供的信息, 我将逐步思考补充与汽车零部件销售职位对应的职位描述和求职者特征然后从 [‘一定是’, ‘大概是’, ‘大概不是’, ‘一定不是’] 中选择一个答案。

1. 职位描述:

- 职位描述可能包括与客户互动, 推销汽车零部件, 了解客户需求, 提供解决方案, 与销售团队合作等。

2. 求职者特征:

- 求职者的专业是管理学, 这意味着他们可能具备一些管理和组织方面的知识和技能, 但这与汽车零部件销售直接相关的内容有限。
- 管理学专业通常涵盖领导力、组织管理、决策制定等方面的知识, 这些对管理职位更为相关。

基于提供的信息, 我会选择“大概不是”。虽然求职者的管理学专业可能使他们具备一些管理和组织方面的知识, 但这些知识与汽车零部件销售直接相关的技能和经验相比较有限。因此, 需要进一步的面试和评估来确定是否适合该销售职位,

[GPT]
Based on the information provided, I will gradually consider completing the job description and job applicant characteristics corresponding to the automotive parts sales position, and then choose an answer from [“Definitely can”, “Probably can”, “Probably cannot”, “Definitely cannot”].

1. Job Description

- **Job description may include interacting with customers, promoting automotive parts, understanding customer needs, providing solutions, and collaborating with sales teams.**

2. Job seeker characteristics.

- **The job seeker's major is management, which means they may have some knowledge and skills in management and organizational aspects, but the content directly related to automotive parts sales is limited.**
- **Management majors typically cover knowledge in areas such as leadership, organizational management, and decision-making, which are more relevant to management positions**

Based on the information provided, I would choose ‘probably cannot’. Although the management major may equip them with some management and organizational knowledge, these knowledge are only partly related to automotive parts sales. Therefore, further interviews and evaluations are needed to determine whether they are suitable for the sales position.

(b) Answer