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► **To cite this version:**

Fabio Lorenzi-Cioldi, Fabrice Buschini, Elodie Baerlocher, Florence Gross. Individuation in job offers as a function of the status of the occupation. *Social Science Information*, 2010, 49 (2), pp.267-281. <10.1177/0539018409359737>. <hal-03245291>

**HAL Id: hal-03245291**

**<https://hal.science/hal-03245291v1>**

Submitted on 20 Oct 2022

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Job Advertisements in Newspapers  
Individuation in Job Offers Depends on the Status of the Occupation

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(July 10, 2009)

RUNNING HEAD: INDIVIDUATION IN JOB OFFERS DEPENDS ON THE  
OCCUPATION STATUS

## Abstract

A sample of job offers ( $N = 4'727$ ) from daily French-language newspapers were content analyzed for their gender stereotypicality. It was first predicted that role names, as well as descriptions of the job and the applicant, would be predominantly non-sex-typed (Hypothesis 1). Hypothesis 2 predicted that generic role names would contain more masculine than feminine stereotypes, compared to gender-fair role names. It was further predicted that sex-typed role names and job descriptions would decrease as a function of the status of the job (Hypothesis 3), and that the amount of individuating information provided about the occupation and the applicant would increase as a function of status (Hypothesis 4). The findings provided overall support for the hypotheses, showing that gender stereotypes still pervade job advertising, but mostly at the lower levels of the occupational hierarchy.

*Keywords:* Job offers, Gender stereotypes, Social status, Individuation.

Offres d'emploi dans la presse.

L'individualisation dans les offres d'emploi dépend du statut du poste

Résumé

Un échantillon d'offres d'emploi (N = 4'727) provenant de la presse quotidienne francophone a été soumis à une analyse de contenu centrée sur la stéréotypie de genre. La première hypothèse prédit que la dénomination du poste, ainsi que les descriptions du poste et du candidat potentiel, sont majoritairement non typées sexuellement. L'Hypothèse 2 prédit que les dénominations épiciènes du poste, par opposition aux dénominations génériques, sont accompagnées de descriptions qui accordent une plus large place aux stéréotypes féminins. Les deux hypothèses principales concernent le rôle du statut social du poste. Elles prédisent d'une part que les postes de statut social élevé sont moins typés sexuellement que les postes de bas statut social (Hypothèse 3), et que les premiers contiennent davantage d'informations individualisantes concernant les exigences du poste et les caractéristiques souhaitées des candidats (Hypothèse 4). Les résultats apportent une confirmation de ces hypothèses, montrant que la stéréotypie de genre demeure bien présente dans les offres d'emploi, mais cela essentiellement pour les postes situés au bas de la hiérarchie socioprofessionnelle.

Mots-clés. Offres d'emploi - Stéréotypes de genre - Statut social - Individuation.

Job offers provide descriptions of work positions and of their potential applicants. The use of non-discriminating language in job offers has been of much concern in several countries, in particular regarding gender groups. Laws have been enforced to ban discrimination. In France, for example, since 1983 it is forbidden to mention the gender and the family situation of an applicant in a job offer. Job offers are supposed to ensure that women and men are equally suitable for the described position. To provide women with the feeling of being included in the job offer, organizations in charge of equality have recommended designing job offers in a gender blind, neutral language (to which we will further refer as "generic"), or in a gender-fair language that refers explicitly to both genders (*Ministère du travail, des relations sociales, de la famille et de la solidarité*, 2006). Several studies have examined the grammar used in job offers (*Federal bureau for gender equality*, 1992; Dayhoff, 1983; Marchal, Mellet, & Rieucan, 2005, 2007; Marchal & Rieucan, 2004; Marchal & Torny, 2003; Gygax & Gabriel, 2008). According to Marchal and Torny (2002), gender-typed (i.e. grammatically feminine or masculine) job offers have diminished from 34% in 1960 to 7% in 2000, while gender-fair job offers rose from 3% to 33%. This trend, which is consistent with the general law reinforcement, leads us to expect that gender-typing should be observed only marginally in contemporary job offers. More precisely, our first hypothesis predicts that there will be more non-sex-typed (gender-fair and generic) than sex-typed (feminine and masculine) job offers.

Marchal and Torny (2002) further showed that 60% of the job offers use a non-sex-typed generic style. The authors conveniently coined the category "undecidable" to classify them. As already mentioned, such generic language consists of gender-blind words that are intended to address both women and men. A body of research carried out in different countries has examined psychological implications of this generic style (e.g., Chatard, Guimond, &

Martinot, 2005; Gastil, 1990; Hamilton, 1991; Irmén & Rossberg, 2004; Lorenzi-Cioldi, 1997; Moulton, Robinson, & Elias, 1978; Stahlberg, Sczesny, & Braun, 2001). Results typically show that, contrary to its expected objective, generics evoke predominantly male rather than female associations. To illustrate, Heise (2000) asked students to tell a story about a person who was described either in generic or in gender-fair grammatical styles. Generics predominantly elicited masculine associations, while the gender-fairness allowed the inclusion of both genders in better proportions. Likewise, experiments by Rothmund and Scheele (2004), and Gygax and Gabriel (2008), showed that the use of generic pronouns in describing individuals, either involved in everyday behaviors or targeted in job offers, evokes more associations with men than with women. This bias disappeared when descriptions used gender-fair forms.

Stahlberg and Sczesny (2001) compared various applicants' designations, and showed that the fit of women is lower when using generics compared to any other grammatical form. Chatard, Guimond, and Martinot (2005) found that young women are more interested, and feel more competent for a high-status job when the occupation is described in a gender-fair style rather than a generic style. Typically, generics lead to a smaller number of female applicants in the way people describe ideal candidates for a job, compared to linguistic alternatives that comprise a feminine form, notably the gender-fair one. Therefore, Hypothesis 2 predicts that generic job offers should contain predominantly masculine stereotypes, while gender-fair job offers should contain both feminine and masculine stereotypes.

Research has provided evidence that social hierarchies influence the extent to which people express their individuality within a group (e.g., Lorenzi-Cioldi, 2006). Toward the top end of a status hierarchy, people typically perceive themselves, and are judged by others, as unique, differentiated persons, whereas toward the other pole of the status hierarchy people typically consider themselves, and are judged by others, as similar and interchangeable

persons (see Deschamps, 1982; Hurtig & Pichevin, 1990; Lorenzi-Cioldi, 1998, 2009; Snibbe & Markus, 2005; Stephens, Markus, & Townsend, 2007). Hence, the dominants come into view as collections of specific individuals, whereas the subordinates are primarily defined by the characteristics attributed to their groups. This phenomenon has likely implications regarding the use of gender-typed language, and therefore group-based stereotypes, in job descriptions. People who are expected to fill low-status positions are more easily seen as interchangeable and replaceable. Conversely, people who are expected to fill high-status positions are seen as possessing personal features that go beyond those conferred to them by their social groups. Thus, job offers for high-status positions should be targeted more openly to specific persons, rather than to people primarily defined by their group memberships. Descriptions of high-status occupations and of their potential applicants should make use of more individuating information, whereas descriptions of the lower status should make use of more group-based information. Accordingly, Hypothesis 3 predicts that high-status job offers should use less gender-typed language, either masculine or feminine, than low-status job offers. Sex-typed job offers should decrease in number, to the benefit of non-sex-typed job offers, with the rise of the hierarchical status of the occupation. Finally, our fourth hypothesis extends this reasoning by predicting that descriptions of high-status occupations ask for a greater richness of personality characteristics, and therefore more detailed and individualized descriptions, than descriptions of low-status occupations. In job offers, personality characteristics appear mainly through the depiction of the position's and the applicant's profiles. Overall, job offers should present applicant and position profiles more often as the job's status rises, and their descriptions should be of a richer content.

### Method

*Sample.* The weekly booklets for job advertisements of six French-language daily newspapers<sup>1</sup> were scanned for job offers during six weeks ( $N = 4'801$  job offers). However,

some job offers appeared more than once (1.5% of the sample). After exclusion of the 74 duplicate job offer, the sample consists of 4'727 job offers. Each job offer was coded for its size (dimensions), and then content analyzed for role name (the label of the occupation), job description (everything reported in the ad except for the label of the occupation), and job status (the hierarchical level of the occupation).

Role names were codified into one of four categories. A role name was coded as “masculine” when the job offer used only a masculine form, despite the existence of a feminine one in the French dictionary (Le Petit Robert, 2002). Analogously, the role name was coded as “feminine” when only a feminine form was used, despite the existence of the masculine version. A role name consisting of a single form relevant to both genders was coded as “generic”. Finally, a role name was coded as “gender-fair” when its wording included both the masculine and the feminine forms (see Table 1).

Job descriptions were examined using the same coding scheme, with the addition of a “presence of a description” category (see Figure 1, for an example). This category was further partitioned into the “position profile” (description of the post), and the “applicant profile” (description of the applicant targeted for the post). Job status was coded as “high”, “medium”, or “low”. The coding was performed by three judges, blind to the hypotheses. A few disagreements emerged when coding the job status into low and medium status, or into medium and high status. These disagreements were solved upon discussion. In addition to this coding scheme, the three judges classified all the traits (nouns, adjectives, expressions, etc.) included in the ads into three categories: stereotypically feminine, stereotypically masculine, and neutral with respect to gender. Traits appearing more than twice in the whole corpus were retained, producing 103 masculine, 79 feminine, and 93 neutral traits. In the few cases where there was disagreement, the three judges agreed to classify the traits in the neutral category<sup>2</sup>. Figure 1 shows an example of the coding scheme. The ad was coded as containing a

masculine trait, since it is seeking someone “independent”. However, it was also coded as containing a feminine trait, since it is looking for someone with “well developed communication skills”, and as containing a neutral trait, since it refers to “abilities in computer-aided design”.

## Results

In the present sample, the number of job offers increased as occupation status decreased. There were 527 high-status (11%), 1207 middle-status (26%), and 2993 low-status (63%) occupations,  $\chi^2(2, 4727) = 2059.10, p < .001$ . This status distribution mirrors the actual distribution of the occupations in most western countries. For instance, in France, the average figures for 2003-2007, are 16,02%, 25,04%, and 58,94%, for high-, medium-, and low-status, respectively (see INSEE, 2009).

Consistent with Hypothesis 1, role names in job offers were overall more often written in a non-sex-typed grammatical style (56%) than in a sex-typed one (44%),  $\chi^2(1, 4720) = 76.78; p < .001$ . Although masculine role names outnumbered feminine role names (28% and 16%, respectively,  $\chi^2(1, 2059) = 174.26, p < .001$ ), both of them were less frequent than gender-fair role names (for feminine role names,  $\chi^2(1, 2394) = 364.39, p < .001$ ; for masculine role names,  $\chi^2(1, 2993) = 37.50, p < .001$ ). These findings suggest that, beyond the traditional paucity of feminine job offers, the *Zeitgeist* is currently in favor of the simultaneous use of both gender forms in occupational naming. Avoidance of sex-typed wording was also apparent in the 4'090 job offers that comprised a job description. Grammatical styles were considerably unbalanced,  $\chi^2(3, 4090) = 1910.53, p < .001$ . The generic style (54% of all descriptions, regardless of the grammatical style of the role names) clearly outnumbered all the other styles (17% for gender-fair, 20% for masculine, and 9% for feminine). However, despite this predominance of the generic, there was a fairly good congruence of job

descriptions and role names,  $\chi^2(9, 4090) = 1985.49, p < .001$ . The grammatical style of job descriptions matched that of role names in a large proportion of the sample (36% of gender-fair role names, 59% of the generics, 40% of the masculine, and 44% of the feminine).

The following analyses aimed at assessing hypotheses 2-4. To perform statistical tests, it was necessary to weight the relevant dependent variable (e.g., number of role names) in order to counterbalance the unequal size of the categories of the independent variables (e.g., occupational status). Furthermore, tests were adjusted for all pairwise comparisons using the Bonferroni correction. Hypothesis 2 focused on non-sex-typed job offers (i.e., generic and gender-fair). It states that generic role names should be associated with more masculine than feminine stereotypes, whereas gender-fair role names should be associated with stereotypes of both genders. Overall, there was a predominance of neutral traits. Neutral traits surpassed the use of masculine stereotypes ( $\chi^2(1, 1080) = 78.76, p < .001$ , for generic role names;  $\chi^2(1, 1560) = 16.53, p < .001$ , for gender-fair role names), and the use of feminine stereotypes ( $\chi^2(1, 898) = 249.98, p < .001$ , for generic role names;  $\chi^2(1, 1394) = 76.76, p < .001$ , for gender-fair role names). Consistent with our hypothesis, job descriptions with generic role names used more masculine than feminine stereotypical traits,  $\chi^2(1, 606) = 54.71, p < .001$ . Unexpectedly, more masculine than feminine traits were present among gender-fair role names as well,  $\chi^2(1, 1233) = 22.48, p < .001$ . However, it is apparent from Figure 2 that gender-fair role names provided a better balance of the masculine and the feminine stereotypes. Both of them, especially the feminine ones, rose steadily among the gender-fair role names in comparison to generic role names (for masculine traits,  $\chi^2(1, 1094) = 85.47, p < .001$ ; for feminine traits,  $\chi^2(1, 745) = 138.55, p < .01$ ).

Hypothesis 3 predicted that the sex-typing of the job offers would be contingent on the occupation status. Based on the above-mentioned assumption that high-status groups are

represented as collections of distinct persons, and low-status groups are represented as aggregates of homogeneous and interchangeable persons, job offers for low-status positions were expected to be more tainted with group stereotypes than job offers for high-status positions. Specifically, role names and job descriptions written in a sex-typed style were expected to be prevalent among job offers portraying low-status occupations, as compared to job offers portraying medium-status occupations and, especially, high-status occupations. This hypothesis was examined for role names and job descriptions, separately. Occupational status impacted on the sex-typing of the role names,  $\chi^2(2, 4720) = 399.55, p < .001$ . In support of Hypothesis 3, sex-typed the role names diminished,  $\chi^2(2, 1631) = 261.45, p < .001$ , and non-sex-typed role names augmented,  $\chi^2(2, 3089) = 138.10, p < .001$ , as the status of the occupation rose. Figure 3 highlights that sex-typing gradually declined with the increase of occupation status. Actually, it was among low-status occupations, exclusively, that sex-typed and non-sex-typed role names did not differ significantly according to Bonferroni correction,  $\chi^2(1, 1573) = 4.01, p < .05$ . On the one hand, most of the augmentation of the non-sex-typed was due to the increase of gender-fair role names job offers,  $\chi^2(2, 2098) = 206.90, p < .001$ . Gender-fair role names appeared in 25% of the low-status, 51% of the medium status, and 58% of the high-status occupations, while generic role names did not show a comparable variation across the statuses,  $\chi^2(2, 990) = 18.89, p < .001$  (22% of the low-status, 17% of the medium status, and 24% of the high-status occupations). On the other hand, feminine role names,  $\chi^2(2, 522) = 219.79, p < .001$  (19% of the low-status, 12% of the medium status, and 2% of the high-status occupations) and masculine role names,  $\chi^2(2, 1110) = 100.32, p < .001$  (33%, 20%, and 17%, respectively) decreased with the increase of the occupation status. From

these figures we note, however, that masculine role names overall outnumbered the feminine ones, and that feminine role names were seldom, if ever used, among high-status occupations.

A similar analysis was conducted on the stereotypicality of job descriptions, comparing non-sex-typed and sex-typed descriptions. This analysis did not show any reliable differences according to the occupation status. Thus, contrary to expectations, descriptions of low-status occupations were not more sex-typed than the high-status ones.

Hypothesis 4 predicted that the richness of the descriptions provided in the job offers would be positively related to the hierarchical status of the occupation. This hypothesis was examined by considering different indicators: the physical size of the job offer, the presence of a position profile and/or an applicant profile in the job offer, and the number of words used in descriptions of the profile and the applicant.

The size of the job offer (its length multiplied by its height) is a straightforward indicator of the visibility of the advertised occupation. Occupation status impacted robustly on the job offer size,  $F(2, 4724) = 134.89, p < .001, \eta^2 = .054$ . In agreement with expectations, the size of the job offer increased from a mean of 7,563 square millimeters for low-status occupations, to 12,508 for medium-status occupations, and to 16,078 for high-status occupations (linear trend,  $F(1, 4724) = 267.65, p < .001$ ).

The analysis of the presence of either a position profile or an applicant profile in the job offer provided further support for our hypothesis. Position profile was mentioned in 30% of the low-status, 54% of the middle-status, and 72% of the high-status occupations,  $\chi^2(2, 4720) = 428.23, p < .001$ . Applicant profile was mentioned in 70%, 83%, and 93% of the corresponding occupation statuses,  $\chi^2(2, 4720) = 175.72, p < .001$ .

Finally, occupation status impacted on the number of feminine traits,  $\chi^2(2, 1296) = 209.67, p < .001$ , and masculine traits present in the job offers,  $\chi^2(2, 1923) = 280.81, p < .001$

(see Table 2). The higher the hierarchical status of the occupation, the more feminine traits (18%, 23%, and 26%, from low-status to high-status) as well as masculine traits (30%, 32%, and 39%, respectively) were used, to the detriment of neutral traits (51%, 45%, and 36%, respectively,  $\chi^2(2, 2332) = 80.68, p < .001$ ). Overall, consistent with expectations, the occupation status accounted for the richness of the job descriptions, revealing a greater individuation of the higher status job offers compared to the low-status ones.

### Discussion

The present research aimed at examining sex-stereotyping in the labor market by means of a content analysis of job offers in French-language newspapers. The first hypothesis, that non-sex-typed (i.e. gender-fair and generic) occupation names in job offers would prevail over sex-typed ones received ample support from the data. One reason that can be advocated for this trend is the increasing legal and normative pressures toward non-discriminatory practices in occupational role naming. Another reason is predicated upon Eagly's social role theory (Eagly, 1987). Gender roles reflect a society's allocation of men and women into specific roles (i.e. instrumental and communal). Insofar as women are increasingly entering the labor force in a variety of fields, gender roles are under pressure to evolve toward more egalitarian practices (see Eagly & Carli, 2007; Eagly, Wood, & Diekmann, 2000). However, despite this decline of sex-typed language, references to gender stereotypes were still far from absent in our analysis of the job offers.

Hypothesis 2 predicted that the use of a generic style would produce a male-centered representation of the occupation, compared to the use of a gender-fair style. In support of this hypothesis, our findings show the importance of distinguishing between gender-fair versus generic styles (that is, explicitly vs. implicitly non-sex-typed styles). The job offers associated with generic role names contained more masculine than feminine traits, whereas the job offers associated with gender-fair role names comprised a larger number of traits from both

stereotypes. Thus, in line with previous research, the use of generic role names clearly implies a male-centered or androcentric approach of the occupation and the applicant, whereas the use of gender-fair role names is likely to provide women with a better fit to the advertised occupation (see Sczesny, 2003). By suggesting the similar importance of men and women, gender-fair job offers convey a positive message about women's potential to achieve higher professional status (Bosak & Sczesny, 2008). Furthermore, in agreement with norm theory (Kahneman & Miller, 1986), gender-fair role naming practices help to overcome androcentric tendencies which consider men as the default category, and women as the category "to be explained" (see Hegarty, 2006; Hegarty Pratto, 2004).

The most stimulating findings of the present research pertain to the impact of occupation status upon the tendency to identify sex-typing in the job offers. In agreement with Hypothesis 3, non-sex-typing of the role names was more prevalent among high-status than low-status occupations. Sex-typed role names balanced non-sex-typed role names among low-status occupations, whereas non-sex-typed ones were the majority among middle- and high-status occupations. A further important finding concerned the presence of a position or an applicant profile. Consistent with Hypothesis 4, the presence of either profile was positively related to the occupation status. Thus, the occupation and the applicant descriptions appeared more frequently as the occupation status rose. Furthermore, job offers were of larger physical size, and occupations and the corresponding applicants were described at length, with the increase of the occupation status. That is, the higher the status of the position targeted by the job offer, the more surface space was awarded to the job advertisement, and the more personality traits were used to describe the occupation's requirements and the potential applicant. It thus appears that the richness of the job offers, and therefore its individuation, varies as a function of the hierarchical status of the occupation. Sex-stereotyping was more pervasive toward the lower levels of the occupational hierarchy, whereas more masculine *as*

*well as* feminine, if not androgynous, characteristics were much present at the top end of this hierarchy.

The finding that more precise and meticulous descriptions of the occupation and the applicant were found when the job offer is targeted to high-status positions is consistent with previous studies showing that members of high-status groups are often perceived as collections of disparate personalities, whereas members of low-status groups are most often conferred a collective, depersonalized social identity (e.g., Lorenzi-Cioldi, 1998, 2006, 2009; Stephens, Markus, & Townsend, 2007; Zweigenhaft, 1970). This finding also fits with recent system-justification approaches of intergroup relations (e.g., Glick & Fiske, 2001; Jost & Banaji, 1994; Jost, Banaji, & Nosek, 2004). In agreement with such perspectives, job offers mirror, and justify, existing social arrangements of occupations. However, in the present case, justification tendencies were more subtle than simply imparting men and women positions of, respectively, superior and inferior social status (e.g., Cejka & Eagly, 1999). Such justifications clearly encompass ideological principles, by suggesting that high-status positions can only be achieved on the basis of non-social, individualistic and meritocratic criteria, rather than on the basis of a fit between the features of one's group membership and the occupation's requirements. Conversely, group features appear to be presumably suitable to apply when advertising for lower-status positions. Our analysis clearly points to this asymmetry of expressed criteria, either personal or collective, according to the location of the occupation in the professional hierarchy. Thus, job advertising conveys the message that to move up the social ladder one needs to perceive of her/himself, and to perceive the social world, by means of finer and more numerous criteria than mere group membership. This reasoning is compatible with findings from other researchers, showing that men and women applying for high-status positions are most often judged on the basis of their personal characteristics rather than on the basis of their gender (Schmader, Whitehead, & Wysocki,

2007). In a sociological essay devoted to examining criteria that distinguish one social class from another, Fussell (1992) analogously claimed that "At the bottom, people tend to believe that class is defined by the amount of money you have. In the middle, people grant that money has something to do with it, but think education and the kind of work you do is almost equally important. Nearer the top, people perceive that taste, values, ideas, style, and behavior are indispensable criteria of class, regardless of money or occupation or education" (p. 16). In line with this suggestion, the ensuing magnification of an individualistic perception of high-status occupations manifests itself as a group phenomenon that may serve to secure, if not accentuate, status differences within the social hierarchy (see Jetten & Postmes, 2006).

A limitation of the present research pertains to the job offers' sample. This sample was confined to the daily press, with the exclusion of the Internet, which is becoming an increasingly common source of job advertising and job seekers (e.g., Cober, Brown, Keeping, & Levy, 2004). It should be verified that the present findings hold with this newer source in the labor market, which is known to possess its own language codes and practices. For instance, ads are clustered in a clearer way than in newspapers, which helps the readers, but prevents visual access to all offers (Marchal, Mellet, & Rieucan, 2007, Marchal, Rieucan, & Torny, 2003).

However, despite such limitations, the findings of the present research point to important features of hiring practices that fit with recent models of identity dynamics in status hierarchies. Overall, although non-sex-typing has become the norm in job offers nowadays, such non-discriminating practice tends to be more closely associated with the higher strata of the occupational hierarchy, as testified by the relatively absence of sex-typing, and the greater individuation, among among high status occupations.

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Footnotes

<sup>1</sup> The newspapers were: *Genève Home Information*, *La Tribune de Genève*, *Le Nouvelliste*, *Le Temps*, *24 heures* (all from Switzerland), and *Le Monde* (from France).

<sup>2</sup> Although we did not assess the intercoder agreement in the main analysis, we estimated the reliability of the coding scheme by asking two additional judges to code a random sample of 100 job offers for job status, and all 275 traits for stereotypicality. Cohen's kappa was used as a test of reliability. The overall reliability coefficient was .82 for the job-status coding and .77 for the coding of the traits, revealing substantial agreement

Table 1

*Coding Scheme for Role Names*

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Sex-typed	Masculine	Writing in a masculine grammatical style words that can also be written in a feminine form (Directeur - <i>Male</i> )
	Feminine	Writing in a feminine grammatical style words that can also be written in a masculine form (Directrice - <i>Female</i> )
Non sex-typed	Generic	Writing in a single grammatical style that is relevant for both genders (Juriste - <i>Person</i> )
	Gender-fair	Writing in a grammatical style that includes both masculine and feminine (Directeur/trice - <i>Male/Female</i> )

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Table 2

*Words Used in Job Descriptions According to Occupational Status*

	Low status	Middle status	High status
Neutral	573	886	873
	51%	45%	36%
Feminine	205	464	627
	18%	23%	26%
Masculine	341	641	941
	30%	32%	39%
Total	1118	1990	2440
	100%	100%	100%

Figure captions

*Figure 1.* Example of the Coding

*Figure 2.* Neutral, Stereotypical Feminine and Masculine Words Used in Descriptions  
Associated with Generic and Gender-Fair Role Names

*Figure 3.* Sex-typing of Role Names According to Occupational Status

Figure 1.

Job description	Coding	
Our branch in Geneva is seeking for a:		
Draughtsman / Draughtswoman	Role name: Gender-fair	
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• Bachelor degree</li> <li>• Well developed communication skills</li> <li>• Independent</li> <li>• Abilities in computer-aided design</li> </ul>	Applicant profile : Yes	Job description : Gender-fair
<ul style="list-style-type: none"> <li>• S/he will assists in developing new Top Down modeling standards &amp; design practices</li> <li>• Salary commensurate with experience</li> <li>• Employment: 80%</li> </ul>	Position profile : Yes	

*Note.* As for the status, this job offer was coded as referring to a middle status position.

Figure 2.

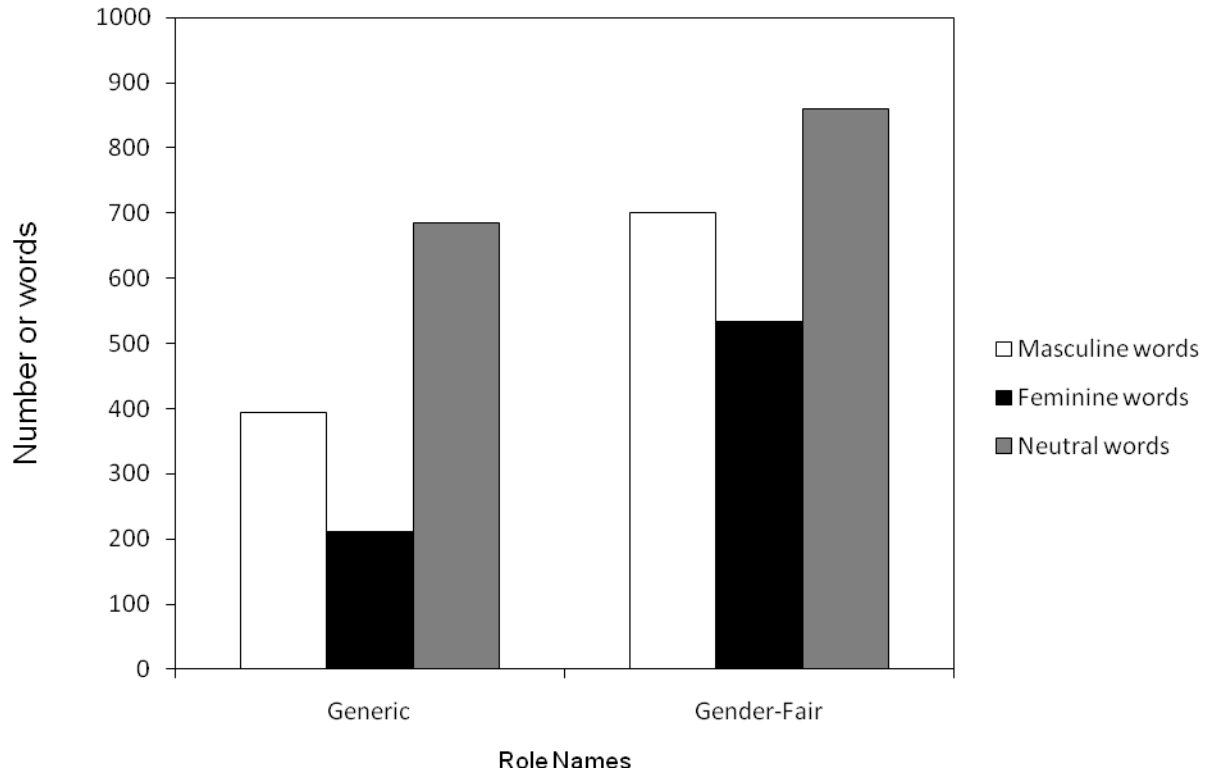
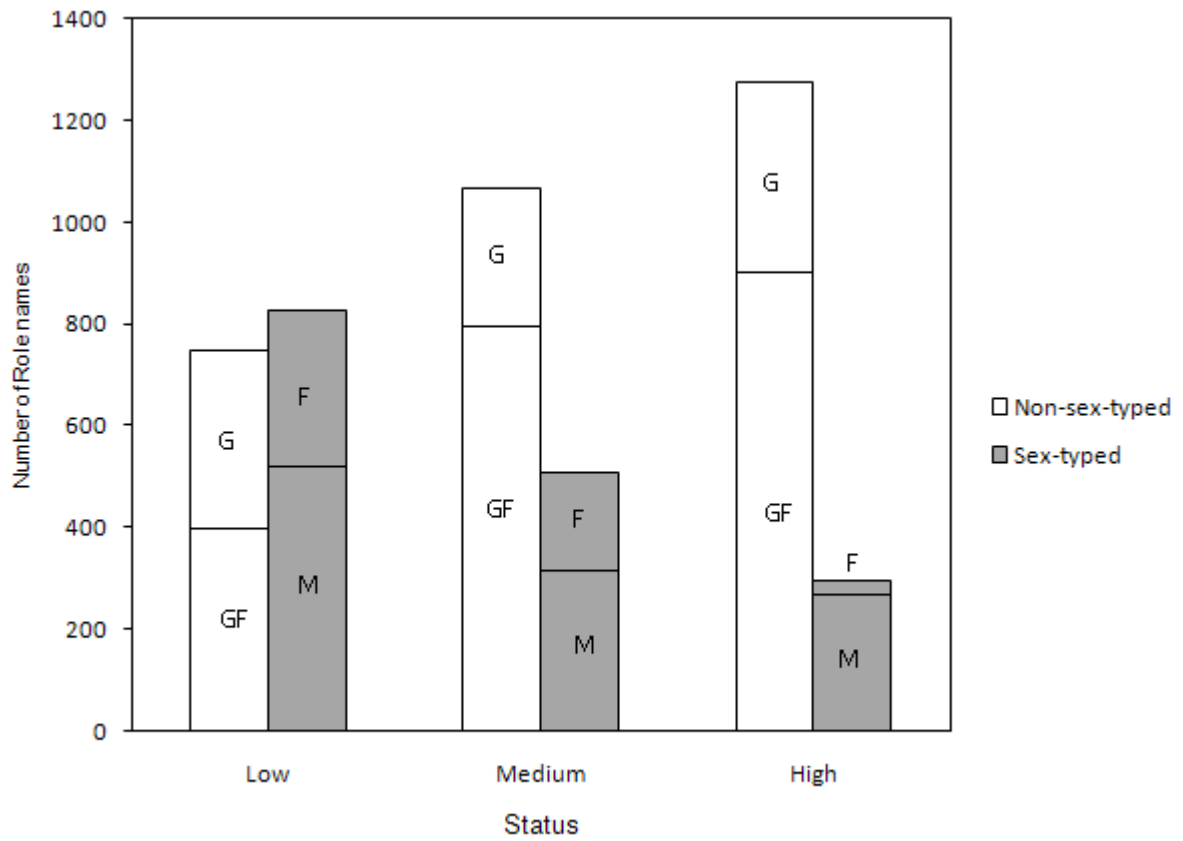


Figure 3.



Note. G = Generic; GF = Gender-fair; F = Feminine; M = Masculine.