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The Effects of Gender Differences in Networking on Pay Equity and Leadership Opportunities

By

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An Honors Thesis in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree Bachelor of Science in Business Administration in Finance

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INTRODUCTION

Brief History of Gender Equality in the United States

The rights of women in society have been disputed in the United States for more than two hundred years. The first discussions about the role of women date back to the 1800's when women could neither vote nor own property. During this time women were kept almost exclusively in traditional gender roles in the home and they were valued for their ability to manage the home, their commitment to religion, their submissiveness, and their purity (Lavender 1). Women were encouraged to focus on unpaid work within the home so their male counterparts could focus on earning a living outside the home (Lavender 1). As some women began to question these traditional gender roles, they met fierce resistance from a school of thought known as the Cult of Domesticity to its opponents and the Cult of True Womanhood to its supporters. This group existed to enforce gender stereotypes and roles, and held that "true women" had a duty to uphold values of piety, purity, domesticity, and submissiveness (Lavender 1). The group preached that women possessed a special propensity for religion that they could use to turn the home into a safe haven for their husbands and children from the evils of the world (Lavender 2, Fitts 116). The group used the smaller stature of women was biological evidence of their place in the safer, less stressful home (Lavender 4).

However, it was precisely the type of thinking of the Cult of Domesticity that spurned women to begin fighting for their rights in earnest. In the 1830's many women were actively campaigning as abolitionists. Women wrote articles for abolitionist newspapers, distributed abolitionist literature, signed and supported abolitionist petitions to Congress, and even spoke publicly to mixed gender crowds (Gupta and Mayo II). These actions were considered very radical at this time, and despite the fact that women were campaigning for an honorable cause, the church and the Cult of Domesticity condemned their actions alike (Gupta and Mayo II). The oppression of female abolitionists by the Cult of Domesticity reached a boiling point when Elizabeth Cady Stanton and Lucretia Mott were refused seats at the World Anti-Slavery Convention in 1840 because they were women and as a result, they decided that a discussion of women's rights was necessary (Gupta and Mayo II). Eight years later in 1848 the first women's rights convention was held in Seneca Falls, New York (Woman Suffrage Timeline (1840-1920)). At this meeting, sixty-eight women and thirty-two men organized, penned, and signed a Declaration of Sentiments to outline both their grievances and a timeline for the women's rights movement (Imbornoni). The group adopted twelve resolutions demanding equal treatment of the sexes under the law and voting rights for women (Imbornoni). The Seneca Falls Convention represented the first real step toward gender equality, and it was here that supporters united with the goal of women's suffrage and set the agenda of the women's rights movement for the following decades.

Following the Declaration of Sentiments, suffragists fought for gender equality and voting rights in varying ways. Some chose to strive for the implementation of voting rights in individual states with petitions (Imbornoni), while others challenged the legality of male-only voting laws in court (Barber). These efforts in part led the territory of Wyoming to pass the first women's suffrage law in 1869 (Woman Suffrage Timeline (1840-1920)). Suffragists also organized into various women's rights groups, including the National Association of Colored Women, the National Women's Trade Union League, the National Women's Party and the National American Woman Suffrage Association, better known as NAWSA, which brought

together groups founded by notable suffragists Susan B. Anthony, Elizabeth Cady Stanton, Lucy Stone, and Henry Blackwell (Barber). Other more radical supporters organized parades, hunger strikes, and vigils (*Our Documents*. U.S. National Archives and Records Administration). Members of the National Women's party went of hunger strike after being placed in jail for picketing the White House, and women across the country were arrested after showing up to polling places and demanding to vote (Woman Suffrage Timeline (1840-1920)).

In 1878, exactly thirty years after the first women's rights convention in Seneca Falls, New York, the Constitutional amendment to provide voting rights to women was first introduced into Congress (Barber). While the amendment sat with Congress various states and territories adopted resolutions to provide women with the right to vote: Colorado in 1893; Utah and Idaho in 1896; Washington in 1910; California in 1911; Oregon, Kansas and Arizona in 1912; Montana and Nevada in 1914; New York in 1917; and Michigan, South Dakota, and Oklahoma in 1918(Woman Suffrage Timeline (1840-1920)). The fervor began after New York granted women suffrage in 1917 (Woman Suffrage Timeline (1840-1920)). Finally in 1919, forty-one years after it was first submitted, both Houses of Congress passed the Nineteenth amendment, and it was forwarded to the states for ratification (Woman Suffrage Timeline (1840-1920)). In August of 1920, Tennessee became the thirty-sixth state to ratify the amendment by a single vote, and women in the United States earned the right to vote by constitutional amendment (Gupta and Mayo XIV). Following the ratification, women's rights efforts shifted to ensuring the female right to vote was effectively utilized, and to urging for total equality of the sexes under the law (Gupta and Mayo XV). The National American Woman Suffrage Association became the League of Women Voters, and the National Women's Party quickly introduced to Congress the Equal Rights Amendment in an effort to prevent any discrimination on the basis of sex (Gupta and Mayo XV).

As these efforts began, the pace of political change for women in the United States drastically increased. The Nineteenth amendment took around seventy-two years from the time it's ideals were first conceptualized until it was adopted, but in the ninety-five years following the decision women have gained protection under the Equal Pay Act, the Civil Rights Act, Title 9 of the education reforms, and the Pregnancy Discrimination Act, while entering the workforce in numbers almost equal to men and graduating college in numbers surpassing men (Hess et. al. 132).

However, these advances were undoubtedly spurred at least in part by economic necessity. In 1941 the United States declared war on Japan following the bombing of Pearl Harbor (American Women in World War II: On the Home Front and Beyond). The commitment to total war involved utilizing all of America's assets, and men were deployed in droves while women, who were not active in the military, stayed on the home front. When America most needed to manufacture supplies for the war, many factories were left understaffed by the men who left to fight. Out of necessity, women were brought into defense manufacturers and many other traditionally male roles to supply the United States war effort. The iconic Rosie the Riveter arose during this time period to inspire women to buckle down and support the war effort in the absence of men. Women were also busy supporting the war abroad in military clerical jobs and as military nurses in order to release men to fight (American Women in World War II: On the Home Front and Beyond). As women entered these roles for the first time they learned countless valuable skills like how to manage their finances, how to fix their cars at home, how to build war materials, and how to drive public transportation (American Women in World War II: On the Home Front and Beyond. The National WWII Museum). These opportunities, despite

arising out of necessity, gave women the tools to function more independently and the potential to pursue paying careers beyond the home and other traditional female roles.

Unfortunately, women were no longer needed to fill vacant positions when the war concluded in 1945 and many women were forced out of jobs to accommodate returning veterans despite expressing a desire to continue working (American Women in World War II: On the Home Front and Beyond). Female veterans were also denied benefits awarded to male veterans under legislation like the G.I. Bill (American Women in World War II: On the Home Front and Beyond). Fortunately for women, the end of the war also signified the beginning of a long period of economic growth in the United States that created the jobs that women desired, and the amount of women in the workforce was higher than ever.

After the war the 1950's brought a return to the nuclear family and traditional gender roles to make up for time lost while families were separated during the war. However, the following 1960's represented a period of rapid social change for all marginalized groups and during this decade some of the most important changes for women's rights since women's suffrage took place. In 1963, Betty Friedan published her famous book *The Feminine Mystique*, which expressed women's frustration with the limited career options available to them, calling it domestic slavery (Barber). Even though more women were in the work force at this time than ever before, careers often ended with marriage and children. Betty Friedan's novel served to express the sentiments of countless American women about the roles imposed on them, and energized the modern women's rights movement in the wake of women's suffrage (Imbornoni).

Shortly after *Feminine Mystique*, Congress passed the Equal Pay Act in June of 1963, making it illegal for employers to pay women less than men for the same work (Imbornoni). When this Act was passed, women in the United States were making less than 60% of the wages paid to their male counterparts (Cho and Kramer 2). Modern women are still only paid 78% compared to male counterparts, representing a decrease in the wage gap by less than four cents each decade (Cho and Kramer 2). If that rate continues the gender pay gap will not close until 2058, almost one hundred years after the Nineteenth Amendment made unequal pay illegal (Hess, et. al. 44). While the gender wage gap exists, the Equal Pay Act at least offers women legal recourse when they are not paid equally to male colleagues. Only a year after the Equal Pay Act, President John F. Kennedy introduced the Civil Rights Act of 1964, which prevented discrimination in employment on the basis of race, color, religion, sex or national origin, and represented another victory for women's rights as well as a major victory against racism in the United States (Cho and Kramer 1).

In the decades since 1964, several landmark court decisions and an executive order have added to the momentums generated by the Equal Pay Act and Civil Rights Act, and have extended additional rights to women. In 1965, the Supreme Court ruled in Griswold versus Connecticut that the use of contraceptives by married couples could not be made illegal since couples have a right to privacy in intimacy (Imbornoni). This decision laid the foundation for the right to privacy, and enabled women to plan their families and pursue careers if they so chose. In 1967, President Lyndon B. Johnson issued Executive Order 11375 to extend affirmative action policy to cover gender discrimination (Imbornoni). In 1968 the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission made gender segregated help-wanted ads illegal, helping to end the distinction between men's work and women's work (Imbornoni). In Schulz v Wheaton Glass Co. in 1970, a United States Court of Appeals held that for jobs to qualify for protection under the Equal Pay Act they only needed to be "substantially equal", not identical (Imbornoni). This ruling prevented employers from avoiding equal pay legislation by having

two separate job titles with two separate salaries for men and women doing essentially the same work. In 1972 the Supreme Court extended the right to privacy to single individuals using contraceptives (Imbornoni). Also in 1972 were the education reforms that included Title 9, which explicitly prohibited sex discrimination in schools (Imbornoni). Title 9 was especially important in the fight for equality in the workplace, as it drastically increased the enrollment of women in athletics programs and professional schools that helped prepare them for the workplace (Hess et. al. 132). In 1973, Roe versus Wade established a woman's right to an abortion (Imbornoni). The passage of the Equal Credit Opportunity Act in 1974 prevented the discrimination in consumer credit practices on the basis of sex as well as race, marital status, religion, national origin, age, and receipt of public assistance (Imbornoni). Also in 1974 was the United States Supreme Court decision in Corning Glass Works v Brennan which established that employers can neither pay women less because that is what they historically received under the "going rate" or because men would not work for the same lower wages (Imbornoni). Four years later in 1978 it was established through the Pregnancy Discrimination Act that women could not be discriminated against in hiring practices because they were pregnant or may become pregnant, and could not be forced to take leave if they were willing and able to work while pregnant (Imbornoni). Later, sexual harassment became a form of sex discrimination in 1986 and in 1996 the Virginia Military School case mandated that the previously all male school would have to admit women to continue to earn public funding; a separate, all-female school would not suffice (Imbornoni). Most recently in 2009, President Barack Obama passed the Lilly Ledbetter Fair Pay Restoration Act (Imbornoni). This policy allows victims of discriminatory pay to file complaints about their unequal wages within 180 days of their last paycheck instead of the previous policy requiring a complaint to be filed within 180 day of the first unequal paycheck, giving women the chance to fight for substantially more lost wages (Imbornoni).

Current Status of Gender Equality in the United States

These landmark decisions and others have made great strides towards inclusion of women in the United States. Women now account for nearly half of the work force in the United States at 46.8% of employed individuals (Hess et. al. 53). In 1950 and 1970, 33.9% and 43.3% respectively of women aged sixteen and older worked outside the home, but as of 2015, that number has risen to 57% (Hess et. al. 53). Aided in part by Title 9, women surpassed men in earning the majority of bachelor degrees in 1981 and have continued to do so in every year since (Hess et. al. 132). During the school year beginning Fall 2012, 57% of college students were women (Hess et. al. 132). While the amount of people of both genders earning degrees is increasing, women are increasing at a faster rate than men (Hess et. al. 132).

However, despite the numerous legal changes in the past two-hundred years, the United States still lags behind other nations in granting women equal privileges and protection under the law and it has failed to enforce many of the statutes it enacted to protect women. The United States lacks an explicit guarantee for equal treatment of women under the law and fails to provide privileges like paid maternity leave that are commonplace in most other countries. These lapses in protection are made more apparent when compared side-by-side with some of the countries that do guarantee equality to women. More conservative Middle Eastern countries like Afghanistan, Iran, and Saudi Arabia, and less wealthy, less developed countries like Sudan and Somalia offer explicit guarantees of privileges to women that the United States does not.

The most obvious lapse in protections for women in the United States occurs in the United States Constitution itself. While parts of the governing document like the Fourteenth Amendment appear to grant equal protection to all, the document fails to mention women in particular. In fact, the portion of the Fourteenth Amendment that gave voting rights to previously disenfranchised male slaves specifically uses the word "male" while other portions of the document use the word "person" (Transcript of 14th Amendment to the U.S. Constitution: Civil Rights (1868)). As Supreme Court Justice Antonin Scalia explained, "Certainly the Constitution does not require discrimination on the basis of sex. The only issue is whether it prohibits it. It doesn't"(Ravitz). Attempts to include an explicit guarantee of equal protection to the genders in the Constitution have repeatedly failed since the idea was first introduced in the Equal Rights Amendment in 1923. The procedure to amend the United States Constitution requires proposal by either Congress or the States and ratification by the States (Gill). Proposal by Congress requires a two-thirds vote by both the Senate and the House of Representatives, and proposal by the States requires two-thirds of the State legislatures to call on Congress to hold a Constitutional Convention (Gill). Once the Amendment is proposed, the States may ratify it through either a three-fourths vote by State legislatures or a three-fourths vote at State ratifying conventions (Gill). The latter of the two ratifying methods is far less common; it was only used once to ratify the Twenty-First Amendment that repealed Prohibition (Gill). The history of this arduous process is small, with only thirty-three Amendments ever receiving a two-thirds vote from Congress, and only twenty-seven of those receiving ratification by the States (Gill). The Equal Rights Amendment is perhaps the most visible amendment to pass Congress but fail ratification by the states. After finally passing in both Houses of Congress in 1972 the amendment fell three states short of the necessary vote by thirty-eight states by 1982 to ratify (Francis). It has been reintroduced in every Congress since 1982, and if passed would provide explicit protections to women by preventing any denial of rights on the basis of sex (Francis). The failure of this Amendment is all the more tragic when you consider that out of 197 national constitutions in the world, 84%, or 165, include explicit guarantees for gender equality (Ravitz). Among these nations is Afghanistan, and while constitutional gender equality guarantees may not actually be enforced in this nation, Jessica Neuwirth of the ERA Coalition explains that the inclusion of this provision in Afghanistan's constitution at least offers women the legal grounds to pursue equality in court (Ravitz).

Another failure by the United States in gender equality is apparent in its failure to ratify the United Nation's Convention on the Elimination of Discrimination Against Women. CEDAW as it is commonly known, is a treaty which functions as an international bill of rights for women and guarantees certain protections against discrimination in areas like education, healthcare, political participation, marriage, and employment (Ravitz). The United States is among only seven member countries of the 193 members of the United Nations to fail to ratify the treaty (Ravitz). The other six nations include Iran, Palau, Somalia, South Sudan, Sudan, and Tonga (Ravitz). Ratification by the United States would require a two-thirds vote by the United States Senate, but tragically the treaty has failed to ever even make it to the Senate floor for consideration (Ravitz). The reason may be that there are "very powerful lobbies that see CEDAW as a tool for picking their deep pockets. More entitlements for women (and thus our families) equals less money for employers and insurance companies." (Brittenham).

While these failures represent important political lapses in United States gender equality, inequalities are also apparent in women's everyday life. Mothers are guaranteed paid maternity leave in 188 countries around the world, and of these countries 49% grant paid leave to both

mothers and fathers (Ravitz). One country that guarantees both paid maternity and paternity leave is Saudi Arabia (Ravitz). However, mothers of newborn children in the United States are not guarantee paid maternity leave by law. The Family and Medical Leave Act only mandates a maternity leave of twelve weeks, unpaid, with little to no other benefits or protections (Family and Medical Leave Act). The United States is the only wealthy, developed country in the world that fails to provide paid maternity leave (Ravitz). Other countries that do not provide paid leave include countries like the Marshall Islands, Micronesia, Nauru, Niue, Palau, Papua New Guinea, Suriname and Tonga (Ravitz). The lack of paid maternity leave in the United States combined with the lack of affordable child care financially disadvantages women and families during the course of a normal life event and medical process, and may force women to choose between their career and family.

These and other failures of the United States to fully commit to equal protection and privileges for the sexes results in quantifiable gender inequalities in earnings and opportunities for women across all demographics. There is still progress to be made in gender equality, particularly in the work place. Median wages for women in the United States are only 78% of the median wages paid to their male counterparts, an inequality of twenty-two cents for every dollar paid to male colleagues (Hess et. al. 37). Unfortunately, this inequality exists to some degree across all differentiators, including race, age, occupation, familial status, and geographic area. Race has the most drastic effect on earnings, with black women only receiving 65.4% of the wages paid out to white, male counterparts, and Native American and Hispanic women only receiving 59.6% and 53.8%, respectively (Hess et. al. Table 2.2). Conversely, women of Asian and Pacific Islander descent fare better than the median for all women, receiving 88.5% of every dollar paid to white males (Hess et. al. Table 2.2). Women of all ages are affected to some degree. Millennial women, defined as age sixteen through thirty-four in 2013, were paid only 85.7% of the wages paid to millennial men (Hess et. al. 46), and women ages sixty-five and older who worked full-time, year round earned only 72.5% of every dollar paid to sixty-five and over males who work year-round (Hess et. al. 44). This suggests that the gender wage gap in the United States may widen as a woman progresses through life. Other normal life events hurt women. As a woman establishes her family the gap in earnings between her and her male counterparts widens. For full-time employees in 2012, unmarried, childless women received 96% of wages paid to male counterparts (Budig 7). Unfortunately, married mothers with one or more child under the age of eighteen were paid 76 cents of every dollar paid to married fathers and single mothers received only 83.1 cents of every dollar paid to single fathers (Budig 7). The wage gap between single mothers and single fathers in particular demonstrates how women are penalized more than their male counterparts for the same life event. Unfortunately, this fails to explain the depth of the problem. Not only are women penalized for getting married and having children, but it appears that men are also actually rewarded for the very same life events, exacerbating the gender wage gap (Budig 8). This fact, referred to as the Motherhood Bonus and the Fatherhood Penalty, reflects the sexist assumption that women will work less hours at less convenient times after having a child, but men will be more committed and dependent upon their jobs once they start a family (Budig 11).

The gender wage gap in the United States also exists across all geographic areas and in most occupations as well. Most shocking is the fact that even in traditionally female professions, women are paid less than males. In the three most popular professions for women, including secretaries and administrative assistants, elementary and middle school teachers, and registered nurses, women still only made 86%, 91.3%, and 95.7% compare to males in the same field,

respectively (Hegewish, Williams and Harbin 3). These inequalities remain even in the most generous regions of the United States. New York pays women closest to the same amount as men at 87.6% of every dollar paid to male colleagues (Hess et. al. 43). Even in New York women are denied more than twelve cents of every dollar paid to their male colleagues. The worst state, Louisiana, offers women only 66.7% of the wages paid to males (Hess et. al. 43). In general, women in the Southern regions of the United States fair worse than women in the North. Still, the gender wage gap affects all women of all ages, races, occupations, familial statuses, and regions.

Unfortunately, wages are not the only inequality that exists for women in the workforce. Opportunities for career advancement are repeatedly denied to women as well, an obstacle commonly referred to as the Glass Ceiling. Women often advance through organizations slower than men, and most women fail to ever attain senior leadership positions or must be more qualified than males to do so. Among Fortune 500 companies, women in 2012 only occupied 16.6% of board seats (Groysberg and Bell) and women in 2009 only sat in 2% of Chief Executive Officer positions (Female Power). In a study of executive boards conducted by Harvard Business Review, 76% of female executive board members were employed in an operational role, compared to only 69% of males, and 68% of these women were in a leadership role like Chief Executive Officer, President, or Partner, compared to only 51% of males (Groysberg and Bell). This suggests that women may need to be more qualified than men to secure their positions on boards. In the same study fewer female directors were married and had children, and more female directors were divorced, suggesting that women may be forced to make more sacrifices at home than their male competitors (Groysberg and Bell).

The pervasiveness of gender inequalities are glaring, but considering the inequalities on an annual or career-long basis helps better explain the extent to which they harm women and families in America. Across all occupations, men earn a median weekly wage of $832 while women are paid a median weekly wage of $684(Hegewish, Williams and Harbin 3). If you assume a fifty-two week year this difference amounts to an inequality in wages of $7,696 per year, and if you assume a career of forty years, age twenty-two to age sixty-two, the inequality amounts to an enormous $307,840. Even in a traditionally female occupations like secretaries and administrative assistants, women's median weekly pay amounts to $651 while men's amounts to $757 (Hegewish, Williams and Harbin 2). Over the course of a fifty-two week year this inequality amounts to $5,512 and over a forty-year career, the total wages paid to male secretaries and administrative assistants that are not paid to female secretaries and administrative assistants amounts to $220,480. Other estimates of wages denied to women over the course of their career are even higher. One source asserted that women born at the end of the 1950's with a college education who worked full-time, year- round each year lost an average of $800,000 by age 59 (Hess et. al. 50). These losses are an enormous injustice to women, but they hurt their families and the rest of the country too. In the United States, 33.4 million households have children under the age of eighteen (Hess et. al. 95). In half of these families women act as the sole breadwinner, or in the case of married couples contribute at least 40% of the income (Hess et. al. Table 3.3). The result is half of families in the United States with children losing thousands or tens-of-thousands of dollars each year. If working women, including single women, single mothers, and married women, were paid the same as men with the same education, hours, age, and urban or rural status, their poverty rate would decline by more than half, from 8.1% to 3.9%, making gender inequality much more than just a women's issue (Hess et. al. 143-145).

Explanations for the Gender Wage Gap

Despite these well-established consequences, the cause of gender inequalities, the wage gap in particular, is difficult to determine, as it is likely a mixture of many variables. The most popular explanations for the wage gap include a differing work-life balance for women and men, the higher concentration of women in low-wage occupations and men in high-wage occupations, the difference in experience between men and women, and discrimination against women in promotions, hiring, and pay.

The first possible explanation is that women are forced to balance work and their home life in a way that men are not. This explanation asserts that since women must divide their time between work and completing household chores, they miss crucial opportunities at work that could increase their wages. While women are increasingly entering the workforce, they still complete the majority of household chores (Hess et.al. 104). Women are effectively forced to work two jobs and divide their attention between work and home, potentially leading to poor performance or a lack of availability.

The concentration of women in lower income occupations with shorter corporate ladders is another possible explanation. This explanation argues that women tend towards lower paying occupations like teaching, administrative work, and social work, while men tends towards high paying fields like petroleum engineering and other science, technology, engineering, and math careers. Furthermore, this explanation asserts that in the same low income occupations where women tend to concentrate there are fewer opportunities for advancement. However, statistics show that even in traditionally female fields, women are paid less (Hegewish, Williams and Harbin 3). Furthermore, nursing, the third most popular occupation for women, is far from a low paying job. Median nursing wages women are the second highest of the twenty most popular occupations for women (Hegewisch, Williams and Harbin 2).

Another explanation for the gender pay gap is that women are less experienced workers, as they are more likely to leave the labor force for periods of time and are more likely to retire early. In any field, increases in pay come with more experience, and this explanation asserts that when women leave or temporarily exit the labor force to have children, it puts them at a disadvantage. This argument also asserts that since men tend to stay in the workforce longer before retirement, their median pay will be skewed higher. Unfortunately, the child-bearing years when women are most likely to temporarily exit the workforce are also the years when the most career experience and growth occurs, leading to an even greater discrepancy between men and women in experience.

Unfair discrimination against women in hiring, promotion, and pay is a final possible explanation for gender inequalities in the workplace. This explanation tends to be a catchall bucket for wage inequalities that remain unexplained by other variables. Still, women are almost twice as likely than men to report being discriminated against at work due to their gender (Patten). Discrimination can happen when women are not hired, they are not selected for projects or promotions, or they are simply paid less than a comparable male coworker. Women may be discriminated against because they have or are planning to have children or they have a husband or are getting married soon. These possibilities may cause an employer to judge them as less committed and likely to be less available. Women may also be discriminated against as a minority in traditionally male professions.

Importance of Networking

While all of these explanations may account for some of the gender wage gap and the Glass Ceiling, the ultimate combination of factors is difficult to determine. Far less studied as an explanation for gender inequalities in the workplace are the differences in networking opportunities and experiences between male and female professionals. It is possible that networking activities and methods possess a gender bias that disadvantages women and contributes to differences in wages and achievement between men and women.

Networking involves forming connections with people to use for career and business development. Professionals should network to gain the favor of others and demonstrate likeability and capability. Building a relationship with another professional makes it easier to utilize that professional to connect to other people and opportunities. Networking can result in opportunities like projects, promotions, or a new job, and it can help professionals gain new clients and maintain existing clients. Carolyn M. Janiak explained in her research paper The "Links" Among Golf, Networking, and Women's Professional Advancement, that "the deeper and wider your personal network of contacts is, the more influential you will be at work. These relationships are critical to bringing in business and navigating the politics of your own organization" (Janiak 4). The paper goes on to explain that "developing relationships can also be helpful in getting better assignments" and "Internal networking facilitates the development of mentoring relationships" where "Mentors teach junior colleagues crucial skills to ascend the corporate ladder" (Janiak 4). Networking occurs both inside and outside the workplace with everyone from work superiors in the pursuit of promotion, coworkers in seeking favor and support in the workplace, competitors and other businesses when seeking different job opportunities, and potential new clients and returning clients alike. Businesses usually provide formal networking opportunities to employees but employees can also create opportunities themselves or networking opportunities can arise informally. Businesses plan social events for the purpose of networking with colleagues and clients alike, and these often take the form of happy hours, sporting games, golf and fishing trips, and conferences and retreats. Employees are also often able to arrange their own networking opportunities at the cost of the business by scheduling dinners and coffees to meet colleagues, participating in professional associations, hosting events for clients, and facilitating employee membership at local dining and country clubs. However, networking does not have to be a formal, premeditated interaction. Any social contact can be an opportunity to build your professional network.

Networking at its core is an ancient idea. Even hunter-gatherers understood the importance of bonding with others for subsistence. While the process of networking has clearly evolved over time, utilizing relationships remains a very important tool to survive and thrive in the business world. Networking in the modern sense has evolved as advances in science and technology have shrunk the business world. The Industrial Revolution and the invention of modern technology like the Internet and email in particular have drastically changed the scope and scale of business, forcing a new approach to networking to deal with increasingly large businesses and increasing competition. The Industrial Revolution saw the introduction and invention of new machines that hugely increased output through mechanized production. When companies started producing more, they necessarily needed to increase the size of their network of clients. Furthermore, in an industrialized society, citizens are less confined to their immediate community for goods and services, and businesses and professionals must network and build relationships to compete with a wider geographical area. Modern technology, including the

Internet, email, and social media also greatly changed the process of networking. These technologies drastically increased the ease with which professionals communicate, and therefore the ease of networking. Forming, maintaining, and utilizing connections is easier than ever when another professional is only a click away. In this way modern technology has also contributed to a globalized business environment, increasing the importance of a business network. When a client can choose any business worldwide, or an employer can hire any individual on the globe, strong relationships are even more necessary for success.

Women in Networking

While the Industrial Revolution and modern technology have greatly changed the landscape of business, another drastic change, the introduction of women into the workforce, has had little effect on business processes and structures. The Economist commented that the entrance of women into the workforce in large numbers was remarkable because "it has produced so little friction: a change that affects the most intimate aspects of people's identities has been widely welcomed by men as well as women. Dramatic social change seldom takes such a benign form" (Female Power). While laws like the Equal Pay Act and the Civil Rights Act dramatically changed demographics of the labor force, for the most part women and minorities assimilated into an existing business structure. This begs the question: Has the ever-important tool of networking changed to accommodate women in the workforce?

The activities and venues for many modern networking activities may suggest that they have not. Many modern networking activities involve watching sports games, happy hours at sports bars, or participating in sports like golf and fishing. Unfortunately, sports are an area where women have shown to not only be less interested, but are inherently disadvantaged. In a study by Harvard Business Review, researchers examined executive's interests and found that while 90% of men cited sports as an interest, only 70% of women did so (Groysberg and Bell). Furthermore, more women cited other additional interests like travel, arts and culture, and reading, while men were more concentrated in sports (Groysberg and Bell). Even for women who are interested in sports, they are less likely to have played themselves, since sports entertainment focuses on male teams and male sports like football and baseball.

When networking involves actually playing sports, women are disadvantaged too. Golf, for example, is a commonly used tool for networking. The game has been cited as "martini lunch of the modern workforce, the buoyant venue where business gets done" (Arthur, Del Campo, and van Buren 37) and a tool "used primarily by men to develop relationships among employees as well as with clients" (Janiak 6). Its importance is evidenced by the billions of dollars that companies spend on corporate and business golf every year, from games with clients and colleagues to tournaments and golf retreats, as well as the fact that "Male corporate executives, from middle-level managers to the top CEOs of Fortune 500 companies, comprise the vast majority of exclusive private country club members" (Janiak 6-7). Unfortunately, women are not afforded the same opportunity on the golf course as men. At the premier golf club in the country, Augusta National Golf Club, women were not granted membership until 2012 with the induction of Condoleezza Rice and Darla Moore (Rikleen). Of the approximately three hundred members, the two women represent about 0.6% (Rikleen). In an article for Harvard Business Review, Lauren Stiller Rikleen summarized the exclusion of women from networking opportunities at exclusive clubs by explaining that "People (of either gender) tend to give jobs, deals and promotions to those they know and trust — and that trust is built through connections

made in clubs, at dinners, and during other social events. When women are denied admittance to places where powerful men gather, they are therefore also denied networking opportunities" (Rikleen).

However, exclusion of women from networking opportunities may only be part of the problem. For golf in particular, women who are able participate are not as able to network with other professionals. On golf courses women tee off from locations closer to, or with easier access to the holes as determined arbitrarily by the golf course manager after an architect designs and places the men's starting tee (Arthur, Del Campo, and van Buren 40). In a study on the gender differentiated golf course features on women's networking, researchers found that women's starting tees were an average of forty-eight yards from men's with a standard deviation of eighteen yards (Arthur, Del Campo, and van Buren 47). This feature of golf courses is enough to completely isolate women from any networking opportunities or business discussions with men even when they are included in games. The distance between men and women is especially harmful when you consider that most top executives with whom networking is most beneficial are male. Furthermore, certain professions have long operated on an "Old Boy's Club" where the white males in leadership hired and mentored younger versions of themselves. While this network may not explicitly exist today, research has shown that a Similarity Principle exists in which "when you make network contacts, you tend to choose people who resemble you in terms of experience, training, worldview, and so on" and that "executives, in particular, disproportionately use the self-similarity principle to build their networks" (Uzzi and Dunlap). The Similarity Principles exists because "it is easier to trust someone who views the world through the same lens you do; you expect that person to act as you would in ambiguous situations" and because when you have a similar background to someone you are likely to "both recognize concepts that allow you to transfer information quickly, and you are less likely to challenge one another's ideas" (Uzzi and Dunlap). The result is a more trusting, predictable relationship that affirms one's own point of view (Uzzi and Dunlap). Unfortunately for women, this means that top executives and other businesses leaders who are predominately male are more likely to invest their time in other males whose thinking and behavior is more predictable and similar to their own, and that if both a female and a male are given the opportunity to network or work with a top executive, they are more likely to enjoy the company of the male. These facts suggest that not only may typical business networking events be more geared towards male interests and talents, but also that even when women are given an equal opportunity to network, men are more likely to be successful at connecting and forming a relationship with male leadership. The result of this potential disparity in male and female networking activities is the denial of opportunities to women and the perpetuation gender inequalities that date back nearly two centuries.

This report will investigate whether modern networking activities are biased towards the success of male professionals, and if this bias exists, whether it results in a material difference in wages and leadership opportunities for women. I will consider whether women and men are invited to the same number of networking events, and how their attendance differs from men. I will also examine any difference in the type of events that women and men are invited to and attend. I will investigate these facts for women and men of all salary levels in order to evaluate how networking affects success.

METHODS

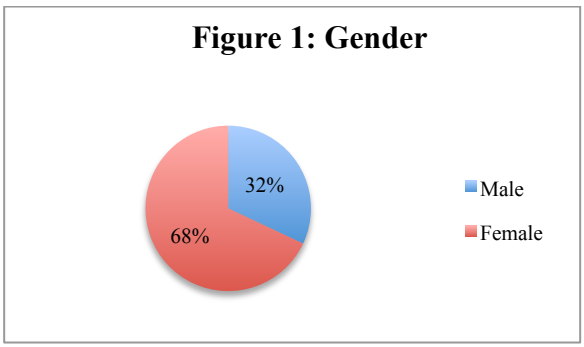
For this study I gathered data from participants through an anonymous online survey built and administered using the survey platform Qualtrics provided through the University of Arkansas. The survey consisted of forty questions designed to measure four areas of interest:

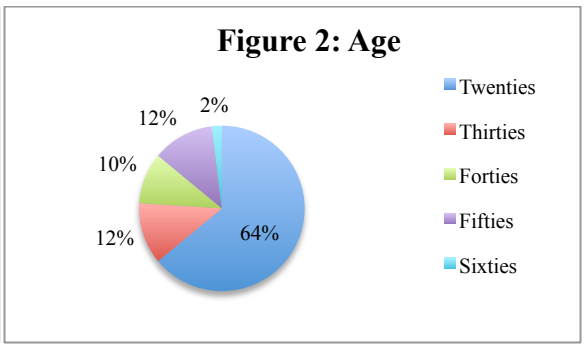
1. Amount and type of networking events the participant was invited to and engaged in
2. Level of career success as measured by wages, promotions, and leadership
3. Employer and employment information
4. Participant demographics

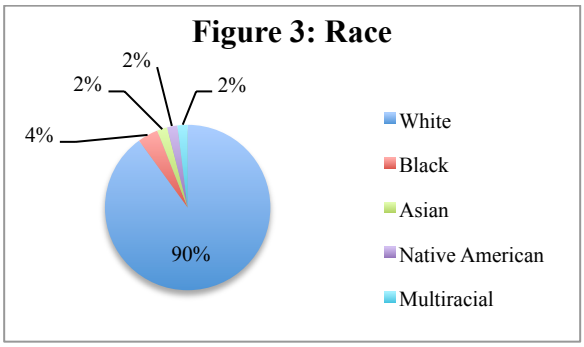
Questions about networking focused on both organized networking events like company parties or industry organizations as well as casual networking activities like getting drinks with a coworker or an office fantasy football league. The questions varied in format as necessary for clarity and ease of response, and included multiple choice, text entry, matrix table, slider, and constant sum questions. See Appendix A for a comprehensive list of the survey questions, including explanations on the differences between organized and casual networking. The survey was administered using a convenience sample of individuals connected to the primary researcher or the faculty advisor on email, text message, or social media platforms. Both the primary researcher and the faculty advisor shared the survey on their personal social media pages, including Twitter, Facebook, Instagram, and LinkedIn and distributed the survey directly to personal contacts in email and text messages. Following the initial distribution by the primary researcher and the faculty advisor, the survey was distributed to additional participants as the initial group connected to the primary researcher and faculty advisor shared and forwarded the survey to their connections on their own emails, text messages, and social media pages. Participation in the survey was limited to consenting individuals over the age of eighteen who were working full-time for the period from July 1, 2015 until September 30, 2015.

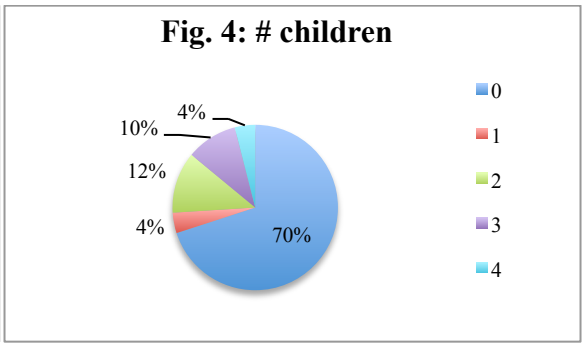
RESULTS

The online survey was initiated by a total of 119 individuals. Of the 119 people, 61 completed the survey, resulting in a dropout rate of 48.74%. Additionally, there were a small number of individuals whose completed surveys were excluded from the analysis since they failed to yield useable results because of their employment status, age, or location outside of the United States. Data was analyzed for a limited sample size of 55 participants. The participants in the survey tended to be young, white, childless women with a Bachelor's degree. Figures 1-4 below illustrate the most notable demographics of the survey participants. See Figures 11-13 in Appendix B for additional demographic information.

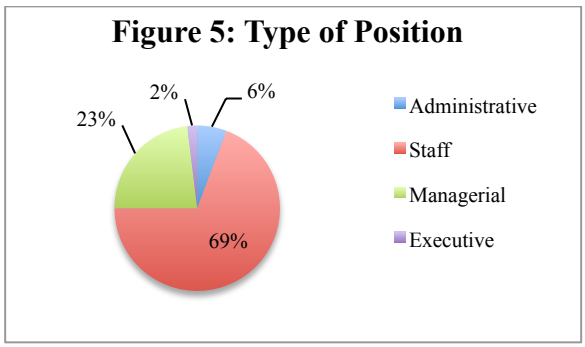


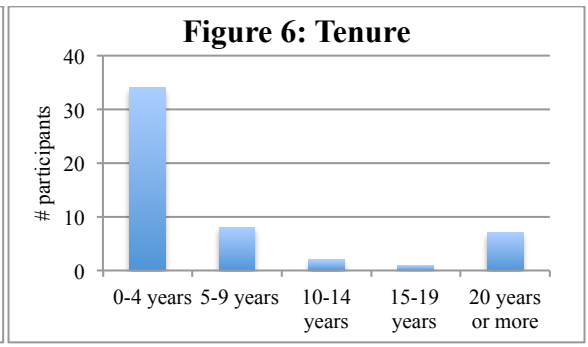




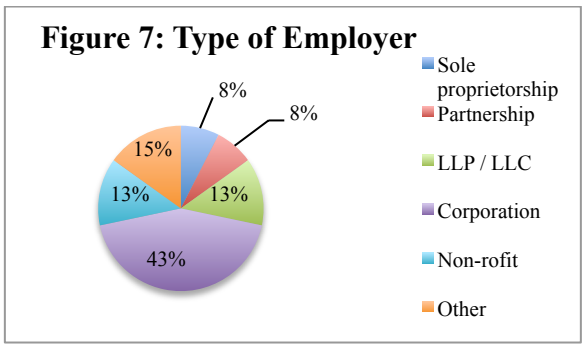


Predictably, the participants tended to occupy staff level positions with tenure of less than five years. However, approximately 13.5% of participants had worked at their employer for twenty years or more and approximately 25% of participants occupied managerial or executive positions. Figures 5 and 6 below illustrate the type of positions participants occupy and the tenure of participants at their current employer, respectively. See Figure 14 in Appendix B for additional participant employment data.

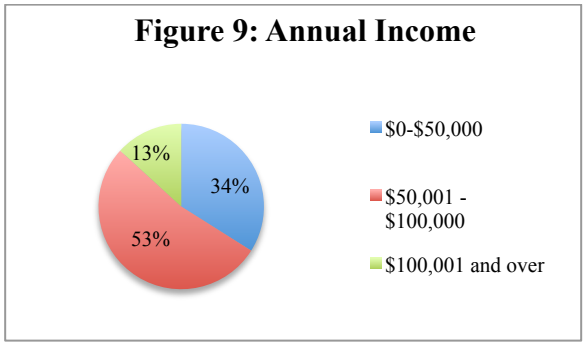


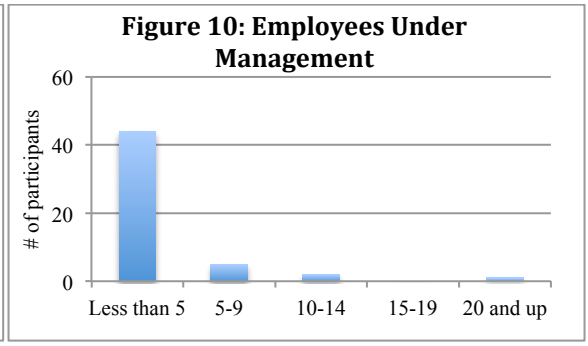


Participants are mostly employed at corporations. The employers were from a wide range of industries, including accounting, biotechnology, education, engineering, healthcare, and retail, and the companies range in size from 9 employees to approximately 2,200,000 worldwide. Figure 7 below illustrates the distribution of types of companies where participants are employed. See Figure 15 and Table 9 in Appendix B for additional illustrations of employer data.



Finally, 34.0% of participants made between $0 and $50,000, 52.8% made between $50,001 and $100,000 and 13.2% made over $100,000. Only 17 participants volunteered information about their exact income. Of those participants, the mean income was $61,688.24. The average income of men who volunteered their salary was $76,347.50, while the average for women was significantly lower at only $48,222.22 (p=0.101). The number of promotions and job offers during the participant's tenure was concentrated at 0 and 84.6% had fewer than five people under their management. Figure 9 below illustrates the income levels of participants. Figure 10 below illustrates the limited leadership of survey participants. See Figures 16 and 17 in Appendix B for additional illustrations of data on success measures.





For organized networking events, participants in increasingly higher income groups were invited to increasingly more events (p=0.174) and participants in the lowest income group were invited to nearly significantly less events than participants in the highest income group (p=0.103). The average number of invitations participants received was 3.46 events in the lowest income group, 5.47 events in the middle income group, and 6.86 events in the highest income group. Male participants were invited to an average of 6.77 organized networking events while female participants were invited to an average of 3.87 events, a highly significant difference (p=0.038). These means are illustrated in Table 1 below.

Table 1: Invitations to Organized Networking

	$0-$50,000	$50,001-$100,000	$100,000 and over	Gender
Male	3.00	6.14	8.40	6.77
Female	3.50	5.08	3.00	3.87
Main Effect	3.46	5.47	6.86	

Attendance at organized networking events was nearly significantly different between all income levels (p=0.105) but the difference in number of organized networking events attended by participants in the lowest income group and the highest income group was significant (p=0.094). Participants in the lowest income group attended an average of 2.08 events, while participants in the middle income and highest income groups attended an average of 4.32 and 5.29 events, respectively. Men attended an average of 5.46 organized networking events, significantly more than the average of 2.88 that women attended (p=0.062). These means are illustrated in Table 2 below.

Table 2: Attendance at Organized Networking				
	$0-$50,000	$50,001-$100,000	$100,000 and over	Gender
Male	3.00	4.71	7.00	5.46
Female	2.00	4.08	1.00	2.88
Main Effect	2.08	4.32	5.29	

Due to a small sample size, the differences between men and women in the types of organized networking events they received invitations for and attended were not determined with significance, although some directional differences were apparent. On average, 43.28% of the organized networking events women were invited to were for drinks, dining, or happy hours, while only 32.13% of the invitations men received to organized networking events were for this type (p=0.225). Invitations to organized balls, galas, and parties also accounted for a higher percent of women's invitations to organized networking events, with this type making up 6.34% of women's organized networking invitations but only 1.25% of men's (p=0.224). However, invitations to organized networking events at conferences, forums, and retreats accounted for a higher percent of men's invitations to organized networking events at an average of 27.38% than women's at 16.88% (p=0.228). See Table 3 below for statistics on invitations to organized networking events by gender.

Table 3: Organized Networking Invitations by Type		Male	Female	Significance
# organized event invitations	Mean	6.77	3.87	0.038
	SD	5.92	3.08	
% of organized invites that were for Drinks, Dining or Happy Hour	Mean	32.13	43.28	0.225
	SD	27.38	33.50	
% of organized invites that were for Sporting Events	Mean	15.31	11.25	0.487
	SD	17.17	19.76	
% of organized invites that were for Concerts, Plays, or Musicals	Mean	0.00	0.63	0.485
	SD	0.00	3.54	
% of organized invites that were for Private Dining, Country, or Tennis Clubs	Mean	11.25	9.91	0.860
	SD	25.40	24.42	
% of organized invites that were for Balls, Galas, or Occasion Parties	Mean	1.25	6.34	0.224
	SD	3.42	16.26	
% of organized invites that were for Conferences, Forums, or Retreats	Mean	27.38	16.88	0.228
	SD	35.71	23.48	
% of organized invites that were for Other	Mean	12.69	11.56	0.900
	SD	28.53	29.41	

For the organized networking events the participant's attended, conferences, forums, and retreats made up 33.0% of the events that men attended but only 18.75% of the events that women attended (p=0.184). See Table 4 below for statistics regarding differences in attendance at organized networking events by gender.

Table 4: Organized Networking Attendance by Type		Male	Female	Significance
# organized events attended	Mean	5.46	2.88	0.062
	SD	5.77	2.66	
% of organized attended that were for Drinks, Dining or Happy Hour	Mean	44.00	49.64	0.646
	SD	34.60	37.09	
% of organized attended that were for Sporting Events	Mean	11.33	11.43	0.629
	SD	14.94	23.56	
% of organized attended that were for Concerts, Plays, or Musicals	Mean	0.33	6.07	0.989
	SD	1.29	20.97	
% of organized attended that were for Private Dining, Country, or Tennis Clubs	Mean	11.00	5.71	0.413
	SD	18.24	20.80	
% of organized attended that were for Balls, Galas, or Occasion Parties	Mean	0.33	3.31	0.470
	SD	1.29	14.23	
% of organized attended that were for Conferences, Forums, or Retreats	Mean	33.00	18.75	0.184
	SD	37.60	30.30	
% of organized attended that were for Other	Mean	0.00	5.36	0.327
	SD	0.00	20.81	

The differences between men and women were less significant for casual networking activities. There was no significant difference in the number of casual networking invitations between the incomes groups (p=0.248), although the difference between the lowest income groups with an average of 8.67 invitations and the middle income group with an average of 5.90 invitations is approaching significance (p=0.169). There was also not a significant difference between the average 5.5 casual networking invitations that men received or extended and the average of 7.39 that women received or extended (p=0.503).

Table 5: Invitations to Casual Networking				
	$0-$50,000	$50,001-$100,000	$100,000 and over	Gender
Male	13.00	4.14	4.40	5.50
Female	8.00	6.79	8.00	7.39
Main Effect	8.67	5.90	5.00	

There was no significant difference at all between the numbers of casual networking opportunities the different income groups attended (p=0.866). The lowest income group attended an average of 5.27 casual events, the middle attended an average of 4.71 casual events, and the highest income group attended an average of 4.17 casual networking events. There was also no significant difference between the average number of casual networking opportunities

that women attended at 5.39 events and the average number that men attended at 3.71 events (p=0.230).

Table 6: Attendance at Casual Networking				
	$0-$50,000	$50,001-$100,000	$100,000 and over	Gender
Male	6.50	2.71	4.00	3.71
Female	5.08	5.71	5.00	5.39
Main Effect	5.27	4.71	4.17	

Again due to a small sample size, there were not many significant differences between the type of casual networking opportunities men and women received invitations for or accepted, but there were some directional differences. Of the invitations to casual networking that men received, 72.53% were for drinks, dining, or happy hour, while drinks, dinner, and happy hours only accounted for 56.16% of the invitations that women received, a difference that is approaching significance (p=0.15). Concerts, plays, and musical comprised a higher percentage of the casual networking invitations women received at 4.06% since concerts, plays, and musicals were 0% of the invitations men received for casual networking (p=0.241). However, men were invited to a higher percentage of events at private clubs, with invitations to private dining, country, or tennis clubs making up 6.07% of the casual networking invitations they received while only accounting for 1.61% of the casual networking invitations women received (p=0.176). See Table 3 below for statistics regarding differences in the number of invitations to casual networking by gender.

Table 7: Casual Networking Invitations by Type		Male	Female	Significance
# casual event invitations	Mean	5.50	6.77	0.503
	SD	4.93	6.22	
% of casual invites that were for Drinks, Dining or Happy Hour	Mean	72.53	56.16	0.150
	SD	24.58	39.65	
% of casual invites that were for Sporting Events	Mean	12.53	16.41	0.651
	SD	18.63	30.27	
% of casual invites that were for Concerts, Plays, or Musicals	Mean	0.00	4.06	0.241
	SD	0.00	13.16	
% of casual invites that were for Private Dining, Country, or Tennis Clubs	Mean	6.07	1.61	0.176
	SD	12.68	8.98	
% of casual invites that were for Balls, Galas, or Occasion Parties	Mean	3.27	8.09	0.479
	SD	9.34	25.29	
% of casual invites that were for Conferences, Forums, or Retreats	Mean	3.87	3.25	0.857
	SD	10.31	11.17	
% of casual invites that were for Other	Mean	1.67	7.22	0.328
	SD	6.45	21.15	

The types of casual networking events that men and women attended appear to have more differences. Of the casual networking opportunities women attended, balls, galas, and occasion parties made up a significantly larger portion at an average of 7.42% compared to men at an

average 1.00% (p=0.05). Attendance at sporting events made up a higher percentage of the casual networking opportunities men attended at 13.33% than women attended at 11.61% (p=0.268). Events at private dining, country, and tennis clubs was also higher for men at 5% of the events they attended compared to 0% of the events attended by women (p=0.288). See Table 4 below for statistics on attendance at casual networking events by gender.

Table 8: Casual Networking Attendance by Type		Male	Female	Significance
# casual events attended	Mean	3.71	5.39	0.230
	SD	3.02	4.67	
% of casual attended that were for Drinks, Dining or Happy Hour	Mean	71.27	57.42	0.826
	SD	31.84	42.21	
% of casual attended that were for Sporting Events	Mean	13.33	11.61	0.268
	SD	28.70	26.25	
% of casual attended that were for Concerts, Plays, or Musicals	Mean	0.00	3.71	0.841
	SD	0.00	13.29	
% of casual attended that were for Private Dining, Country, or Tennis Clubs	Mean	5.00	0.00	0.288
	SD	14.02	0.00	
% of casual attended that were for Balls, Galas, or Occasion Parties	Mean	1.00	7.42	0.050
	SD	3.87	25.29	
% of casual attended that were for Conferences, Forums, or Retreats	Mean	0.00	6.61	0.336
	SD	0.00	24.95	
% of casual attended that were for Other	Mean	9.40	13.23	0.313
	SD	20.97	31.45	

DISCUSSION

These results confirmed a positive correlation between attendance at organized networking events and salary and confirmed the existence of a significant difference in wages between the genders. This study also established that men are invited to significantly more organized networking events than women and men attended significantly more organized networking events than women. However, there was no significant difference between the percent of organized networking event invitations they received that men and women attended, suggesting that women only go to less organized networking events because they are invited to less. The positive correlation between attendance at organized networking events and salary coupled with the significant difference between the number of invitations men and women receive suggests that differences in organized networking opportunities may be at least partially responsible for the gender wage gap and Glass Ceiling in the United States.

However, organized networking opportunities are, by definition, open for attendance to a large group indiscriminately. Therefore, it is also possible that women are not invited to as many organized networking events because they have not reached a highly visible, high paying position within their respective company. Professionals like highly paid executives who oversee numerous departments and numerous teams and units within those departments theoretically would be invited to the organized networking events for all of those groups. Further research is necessary to determine whether women are invited to less organized networking events than men

because they are less present in higher paying leadership positions or if women are less present in higher paying positions because they are invited to less networking opportunities. Using a larger sample size to compare the organized networking habits between genders at various salary levels would be helpful in determining this fact.

On the other hand, the study found no significant difference between the number of invitations to casual networking opportunities or attendance at casual networking activities between income groups. Furthermore, the study found no significant difference between the numbers of invitations to casual networking opportunities that women received compared to men, nor did the study find a significant difference between the number of casual networking opportunities that men and women attended. These facts suggest that casual networking has little or no effect on income. These facts also suggest that the gender wage gap and Glass Ceiling cannot be explained by differences in casual networking opportunities since the sample demonstrated a gender wage gap without any significant differences in casual networking. Alternatively, the similarities is amount of casual networking between income groups and gender may suggest that it is not the amount of casual networking a professional engages in that matters, but the type. Women and individuals in lower income groups could be casually networking with the wrong people or with the wrong activities, which limits the salary benefits they receive for the same amount of casual networking. Women and lower income individuals may be less able to bond with male leadership even when they attend casual networking activities due to a similarity principle that causes wealthy, white male leaders to favor other wealthy, white males. Women and lower income groups could also be seeing less of a return from casual networking because they themselves are affected by a similarity principle and are networking with the wrong people. If women tend to befriend women, young people befriend young people, and so forth, then women and lower paid workers are getting less exposure to a large, powerful portion of the workforce. Future researchers should investigate whether leaders prefer to socialize with professionals similar to them and whether lower ranking professionals are more likely to casually networking with the same gender, age group, etc. Finally, women and lower income professionals may also be engaging in the same amount of casual networking, but the wrong type. There are demonstrated directional differences in the type of casual networking activities that men and women are invited to and attend, and these differences could be responsible for differences in income. Future researchers should examine what type of casual networking activities have the greatest positive effect on pay, promotions, and hiring, and whether women and men and different income groups are attending the most beneficial types of casual networking in the same proportions.

However, this study was not without limitations. Primarily, the survey used to gather data had a large dropout rate, leading to a limited sample size that undoubtedly affected the reliability of the results, and prevented significant conclusions about the differences between genders in even smaller sub-groups like industry, income level, familial status, or race. The study was also likely skewed by a somewhat homogenous demographic of participants made up of 68% females, 90% Caucasians, 70% childless, 70% Bachelor's degree holders, and 64% in their twenties. The prevalence of young people in the sample is particularly likely to have skewed the results, since they have more limited career experience from which to measure career success and because it has been demonstrated that the gender wage gap and Glass Ceiling tend to grow over time. However, the existence of the wage gap in this sample despite a concentration of young, childless women helps dispel the argument that women are only paid less because they drop out of the work force to have children.

Despite these limitations, this study is beneficial in understanding the multitude of reasons behind the well-established gender wage gap and Glass Ceiling in the United States. This study built on very limited research regarding gender biases in networking by confirming the correlation between organized networking events and salary, and uncovering the significant differences in the organized networking opportunities between men and women. This study also pointed to differences in the types of networking events that men and women are invited to and attend. These differences in type should be investigated further to help companies provide equally appealing networking opportunities to the sexes. This study can serve as a foundation for further investigations of larger samples on the differences in networking opportunities between men and women and should be expanded into the areas recommended in the previous paragraphs to confirm the conclusions made in this study.

APPENDIX A

Listed below are the questions as they appeared in the Qualtrics survey. The survey questions are divided into four sections as described in the Methods section, but section labels were not visible to participants. Text boxes, matrix tables, sliders, and constant sum boxes were excluded. Answer options are displayed for the multiple-choice questions.

Pre-Screening

1. You have been invited to participate in a research study about the effects of business social habits on career success. The study is examining whether differences in promotions, pay, and hiring can be explained by differences in the type and amount of business social activities a professional engages in.
    - This survey is:
        - Surveying full-time working adults over the age of 18 in the United States from a variety of occupations
        - Approximately 35 questions
        - Expected to take approximately 15 minutes to complete
        - Not anticipated to expose you to any risks or discomfort
        - No financial cost to you
        - Beneficial to participants who do not closely monitor their business social habits Not offering compensation
        - Completely confidential and anonymous
    - Participants may choose not to participate at any time before or during the survey. You will not be affected in any way if you refuse to participate.
    - Questions and concerns about the research or results of the study or your rights as a participant may be directed to:

Mackenzie Kiser	Dr. Molly Jensen	Ro Windwalker, CIP
Principal Researcher	Faculty Advisor	Institutional Review Board Coordinator Research Compliance
mkiser@uark.edu	mjensen@uark.edu	irb@uark.edu
(918) 645 4275	(479) 575 5503	(479) 575 2208

    a. I have read the statements above and give my consent to participate in this study. I understand the purpose of the study as well as the potential benefits and risks that are involved. I understand that participation is voluntary. I understand that significant new findings developed during this research will be shared with the participant and I understand that none of my rights have been waived by agreeing to participate in this study.
    b. I have read the statements above and do not give my consent to participate in this study.
2. Are you 18 years of age or older?
    a. Yes
    b. No
3. Were you employed in a full-time position during the three months from July 1, 2015 to September 30, 2015 in the United States?
    a. Yes

b. No

Networking Questions

4. Please take a moment to think about the organized social events that you are aware of your employer or another institution hosting for professionals in your field in the last few months.
    - We define "organized networking/social" events as the following:
        - Organized and sponsored by your employer or another professional organization
        - Work related, but extracurricular to every day work duties
        - May be hosted exclusively for one company's employees or for a wide range of industry professionals Usually encouraged and/or publicized by your employer
        - Open invitation to an entire sector of your company or industry
        - A few examples of organized networking events include company holiday parties, company happy hours, team building activities, company rewards events, company retreats, recruiting events, industry groups, industry minority organizations, industry forums, etc.
    a. To help you remember, please jot down a few of those events your employer or another industry group organized in the space below. These can be events you did or did not attend.
5. Thinking about the organized, sponsored events you just listed, please answer the following six questions. In the three months from July 1, 2015 until September 30, 2015, how many organized networking events were you invited to?
6. Of the organized networking events you were invited to in the three months from July 1, 2015 until September 30, 2015, what percent were each of the following types of events? Total must sum to 100%.
    a. Drinks , Happy Hour, or Dining
    b. Sporting Events
    c. Concerts, Plays, or Musicals
    d. Events at Private Dining, Country, or Tennis Clubs
    e. Balls, Galas, or Occasion Parties
    f. Conferences, Forums, or Retreats
    g. Other. Please describe:
7. Of the organized networking events you were invited to in the three months from July 1, 2015 until September 30, 2015, what percent did you attend?
8. Of the organized networking events you were invited to and attended in the three months from July 1, 2015 until September 30, 2015, what percent were each of the following types of events? Total must sum to 100%.
    a. Drinks , Happy Hour, or Dining
    b. Sporting Events
    c. Concerts, Plays, or Musicals
    d. Events at Private Dining, Country, or Tennis Clubs
    e. Balls, Galas, or Occasion Parties
    f. Conferences or Retreats

    g. Other. Please describe:
9. For the organized networking events you were invited to and attended in the three months from July 1, 2015 until September 30, 2015, please select how strongly you agree or disagree with the following reasons for attending.
    a. I enjoy socializing with my coworkers
    b. I feel obligated
    c. It looks good for work
    d. I can build relationships
    e. It is free
    f. I can learn about the competition and industry
    g. I am interested in the event / activity
10. For the organized networking events you were invited to and did not attend in the three months from July 1, 2015 until September 30, 2015, please select how strongly you agree or disagree with the following reasons for not attending.
    a. I have to work
    b. I am out of town
    c. I have to take care of my kids and / or family members
    d. I have commitments to other organizations
    e. I want to relax
    f. I am not interested in the event / activity
    g. I cannot relate to the people
11. Now we would like you to think about the more casual networking and social activities that you know of in the past three months.
    - We define "casual networking/social" events as the following:
        - Extracurricular to work duties
        - Initiated by you or another individual out of self-interest
        - Occurring with individuals whom you know through work
        - May or may not cover work-related material
        - Not organized by your employer or another organization
        - Not open for attendance to an entire sector of your employer or industry Not publicized through the company
        - A few examples of casual networking would be: Going out for drinks after work with a group of coworkers, getting dinner with your friend from work, arranging a coffee meeting with a professional whom you admire, a regular golf group with colleagues, forming a book club with people you know through work, a fantasy football league with coworkers, etc.
    a. To help you remember, please jot down a few of the casual networking activities you remember being invited to or initiating in the space below. These can be events you did or did not attend.
12. Thinking about the casual networking or social activities you just listed, please answer the following six questions. In the three months from July 1, 2015 until September 30, 2015, how many casual networking activities did you extend or receive invitations for?
13. Of the casual networking activities that you were invited to or you planned in the three months from July 1, 2015 until September 30, 2015, what percent were each of the following types of events? Total must sum to 100%.
    a. Drinks, Happy Hour, or Dining

   b. Sporting Events
   c. Concerts, Plays, or Musicals
   d. Events at Private Dining, Country, or Tennis Clubs
   e. Balls, Galas, or Occasion Parties
   f. Conferences or Retreats
   g. Other. Please describe:
14. Of the casual networking activities that you were invited to or planned in the three months from July 1, 2015 until September 30, 2015, what percent did you attend?
15. Of the casual networking activities that you attended in the three months from July 1, 2015 until September 30, 2015, what percent were each of the following types of events? Total must sum to 100%.
   a. Drinks, Happy Hour, or Dining
   b. Sporting Events
   c. Concerts, Plays, or Musicals
   d. Events at Private Dining, Country, or Tennis Clubs
   e. Balls, Galas, or Occasion Parties
   f. Conferences or Retreats
   g. Other. Please describe:
16. For the casual networking activities you attended in the three months from July 1, 2015 until September 30, 2015 , please select how strongly you agree or disagree with the following reasons for attending.
   a. I enjoy socializing with my coworkers
   b. I feel obligated
   c. It looks good for work
   d. I can build relationships It is free
   e. I can learn about the competition and industry
   f. I was interested in the event and / or activity
17. For the casual networking events you did not attend in the three months from July 1, 2015 until September 30, 2015, please select how strongly you agree or disagree with the following reasons for not attending.
   a. I have to work
   b. I am out of town
   c. I have to take care of my kids and / or family members
   d. I have commitments to other organizations
   e. I want to relax
   f. I am not interested in the event / activity
   g. I cannot relate to the people
   h. The other party declined

Success Questions

18. What is your annual salary (including bonuses and commissions) in U.S. dollars prior to taxes?
   a. $0 - $25,000
   b. $25,001 - $50,000
   c. $50,001 - $75,000

   d. $75,001 - $100,000
   e. $100,001 - $125,000
   f. $125,001 - $150,000
   g. $150,001 - $175,000
   h. $175,001 - $200,000
   i. $200,001+
19. Please specify your annual salary (including bonuses and commissions) in U.S. dollars prior to taxes. You may choose not to answer.
20. How many times have you been promoted at your current employer?
21. Please select how strongly you agree with the following reasons for your promotion(s).
   a. I earned it with my job performance
   b. It was based on the standardized company time line
   c. I earned a new certification and / or degree
   d. My boss and / or superior left the company
   e. I am well connected I am well liked
22. Please rate how useful each of the following tools were in getting you hired at your current employer.
   a. Job Posting
   b. Career Fair
   c. Cold Call and / or Email
   d. I had done business with them previously
   e. I knew the firm and / or an employee through a professional organization
   f. I knew someone at the company outside of work
   g. They reached out to me
23. How many job offers have you received from external organizations during your tenure at your current employer?

Employer and Employment Questions

24. What type of business best describes your employer?
   a. Sole Proprietorship
   b. Partnership
   c. LLP / LLC
   d. Corporation
   e. Non-Profit
   f. Other. Please describe:
25. Describe the primary industry in which your employer operates in one word.
26. Approximately how many people work for your employer world-wide? Please answer using only digits.
27. Which best describes you at the time you were hired by your current employer?
   a. Student
   b. Recent High School Graduate
   c. Recent College Graduate
   d. Other Recent Graduate
   e. Experienced Hire
   f. Other. Please describe:

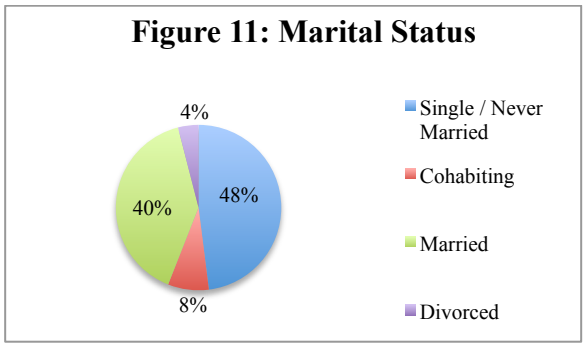
28. How long in years have you worked for your current employer? Please round up to whole numbers.
29. Which best describes your current position?
    a. Administrative
    b. Staff
    c. Managerial
    d. Executive
    e. Other. Please describe:
30. Approximately how many other employees do you manage? Please answer using only digits.
31. Which best describes the department you occupy at your current employer?
    a. Administration
    b. Accounting and Finance
    c. Human Resources
    d. Information Technology
    e. Operations
    f. Production and Manufacturing
    g. Public Relations
    h. Research and Development
    i. Sales and Marketing
    j. Other. Please describe:

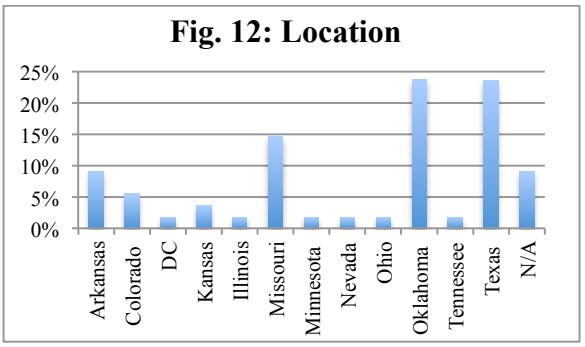
Demographic Questions

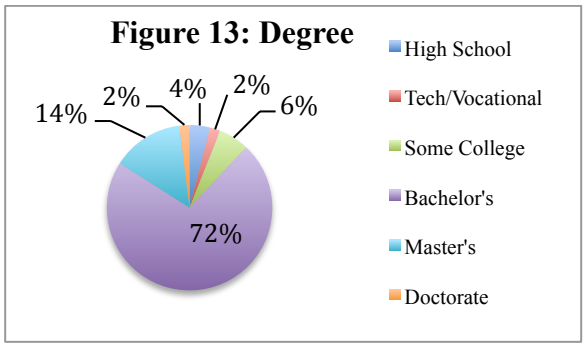
32. What is your gender?
    a. Male
    b. Female
    c. Prefer Not to Answer
33. What is your age? Please answer using only digits.
34. What race / ethnicity do you most identify with?
    a. Caucasian / White
    b. African American / Black
    c. Asian / Pacific Islander
    d. Hispanic / Latino
    e. Native American
    f. Multiracial
    g. Other. Please describe:
35. What is your marital status?
    a. Single / Never Married
    b. Cohabiting
    c. Married
    d. Separated
    e. Divorced
    f. Widowed
    g. Other. Please describe:
36. How many children do you have? Please answer using only digits.

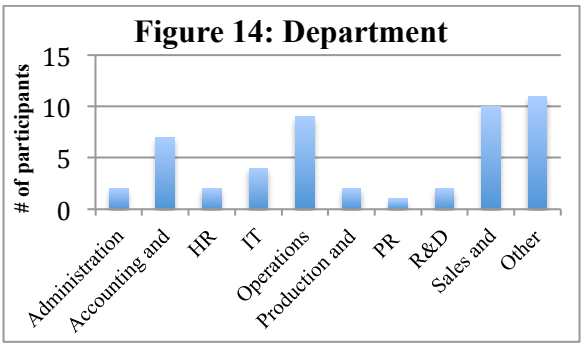
37. What percent of your children are under the age of 18?
38. What is the most advanced degree you hold?
    a. Less than High School
    b. High School or Equivalent
    c. Technical / Vocational
    d. Some College
    e. Associate's
    f. Bachelor's
    g. Master's
    h. Doctorate
    i. Professional (MD, JD, etc.)
    j. Other. Please describe:
39. Which state of the USA do you live in?
40. Please share any additional thoughts or information regarding your work social behavior, your career success, or this survey in the text box below.

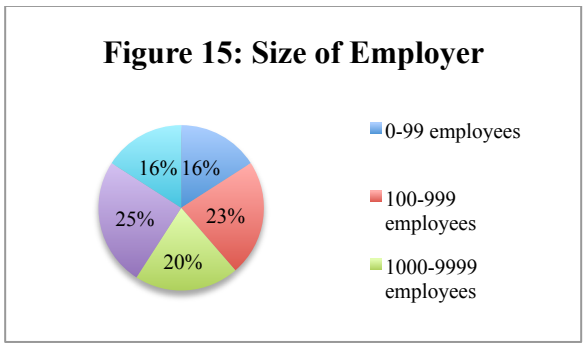
APPENDIX B

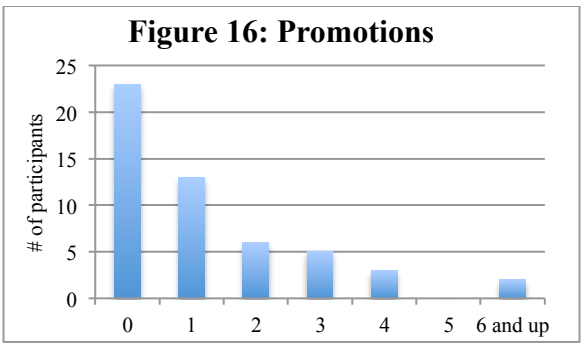

Figure 11: Marital Status
4%
48%
40%
8%
Single / Never Married
Cohabiting
Married
Divorced


Fig. 12: Location
25%
20%
15%
10%
5%
0%
Arkansas
Colorado
DC
Kansas
Illinois
Missouri
Minnesota
Nevada
Ohio
Oklahoma
Tennessee
Texas
N/A


Figure 13: Degree
14%
2%
4%
2%
6%
72%
High School
Tech/Vocational
Some College
Bachelor's
Master's
Doctorate


Figure 14: Department
# of participants
15
10
5
0
Administration
Accounting and
HR
IT
Operations
Production and
PR
R&D
Sales and
Other


Figure 15: Size of Employer
16%
16%
23%
20%
25%
0-99 employees
100-999 employees
1000-9999 employees


Figure 16: Promotions
# of participants
25
20
15
10
5
0
0
1
2
3
4
5
6 and up

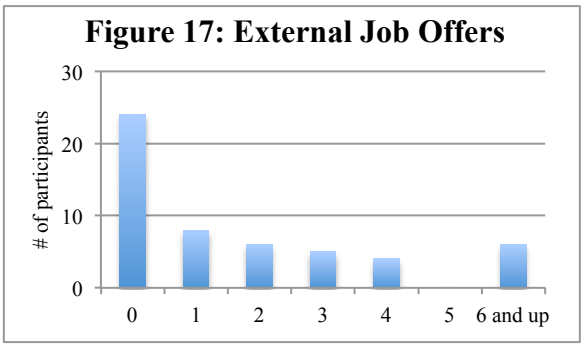

Figure 17: External Job Offers
# of participants
30
20
10
0
0
1
2
3
4
5
6 and up

Table 9: Participant Industries		
Industry	Frequency	Percent
Accounting	8	14.5%
Biotechnology	2	3.6%
Commercial Real Estate	1	1.8%
Communications	1	1.8%
Construction	1	1.8%
Consulting	2	3.6%
Courts	1	1.8%
CPG	1	1.8%
Defense	1	1.8%
Education	7	12.7%
Electrical Grid	1	1.8%
Energy	1	1.8%
Engineering	2	3.6%
Food	1	1.8%
Healthcare	9	16.4%
Housing	1	1.8%
IT Recruiting	1	1.8%
Pharmaceutical	1	1.8%
Retail	5	9.1%
Sales	2	3.6%
Sports	1	1.8%
Travel	1	1.8%
Logistics	1	1.8%
Zoo	1	1.8%
Blank	2	3.6%
Total	55	100.00%

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