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BIASED NEUTRALITY: EXAMINING THE EXISTENCE OF GENDER SEGREGATION AND CLUSTERING IN THE RETAIL INDUSTRY

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BIASED NEUTRALITY: EXAMINING THE EXISTENCE OF GENDER SEGREGATION AND CLUSTERING IN THE RETAIL INDUSTRY

A THESIS APPROVED FOR THE
COLLEGE OF PROFESSIONAL AND CONTINUING STUDIES

BY

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Alice: Where I come from, people study what they are not good at in order to be able to do what they are good at.

Mad Hatter: We only go around in circles in Wonderland, but we always end up where we started. Would you mind explaining yourself?

Alice: Well, grown-ups tell us to find out what we did wrong and never do it again.

Mad Hatter: That's odd. It seems to me that in order to find out about something, you have to study it. And when you study it, you should become better at it. Why should you want to become better at something and then never do it again? But please continue.

Alice: Nobody ever tells us to study the right things we do. We're only supposed to learn from the wrong things. But we are permitted to study the right things other people do. And sometimes we're even told to copy them.

Mad Hatter: That's cheating!

Alice: You're quite right, Mr. Hatter. I do live in a topsy-turvy world. It seems like I have to do something wrong first, in order to learn what not to do. And then, by not doing what I'm not supposed to do, perhaps I'll be right. But I'd rather be right the first time, wouldn't you?[1]

To Dean – Thanks for making yourself at home in my topsy-turvy world, for encouraging me to pursue my interests and ideas (no matter how bizarre), and for helping me believe that, whether I'm right, wrong, good, bad, crazy, spoiled, or pitiful, I am always AWESOME.

[1] Excerpt from Francis, C. (2009). *Wisdom well said*. El Prado, NM: Levine Mesa Press. Pg. 426.

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Abstract

A significant portion of existing research on gender segregation in the workplace is devoted to the study of gender dominance across professions, but few studies have focused on job segregation within specific industries. The purpose of this investigation is to examine patterns of gender segregation and clustering within the United States workforce, with special attention directed towards the retail industry. Following a quantitative analysis of recent employment statistics, findings indicate that segregation continues to exist at the employment class, industry, and occupation levels of the occupational hierarchy of the US workforce and the retail industry. Additionally, retail employment statistics appear to be heavily skewed by data relating to the cashier, retail salesperson, customer service, stock clerk, and first-line supervisor occupations, indicating that the presumed neutrality of this industry is centered, in large part, on these five groups. Finally, a qualitative analysis of the experiential knowledge of retail employees using psychological, sociological, and economic disciplinary lenses indicates that retail professionals are subject to stereotypes, bias, social norms, and calculations relating to self-worth or human capital.

Chapter 1: Introduction

Gender segregation in the workplace is not a new topic of discussion or research. For decades, headlines have discussed job inequality between men and women, the so-called Glass Ceiling effect, and wage discrimination (Broadbridge, 2008, 2010; Brockbank & Airey, 1994; Cohen, 2013; Hegewisch, Liepmann, Hayes, & Hartmann, 2010; Zorn, 2007). When considered independently, several employment statistics indicate a lessening of occupational inequality in the workplace. Women now make up a significant part of the workforce (American Community Survey, 2017; USCB, 2005, 2017). They have emerged in a number of management and leadership roles (Catalyst, 2004; Hughes, 2014; Ryan et al., 2016). They have been successful in any number of careers previously thought of as masculine (Hughes, 2014; Ryan et al., 2016; USCB, 2005; Wharton & Baron, 1987, 1991). Nevertheless, is this progress enough to honestly say that gender segregation is part of the past, but not the future? Professionals and researchers alike argue that it is not (Catalyst, 2004; Cha, 2013; Cohen, 2013; Cuddy, 2016; Hegewisch et al., 2010; Sandberg, 2016).

When releasing data from Census 2000, the USCB (2005) published a special report highlighting comparisons between men and women in the national workforce. One portion of this report revealed that, between 1970 and 2000, the number of women working full-time increased from 37.8% to 46.7%. At that time, "nearly half of the employed civilian labor force was women" (p. 11). Regrettably, while this progress might have initially implied that women and men were trending towards equality, these numbers have not been sustained over time. Within five years of Census 2000, the number of women employed full-time dropped to a confounding 40.6%. Between 2005

and 2015, this figure has only risen incrementally, with the most recent estimate totaling 42.9% (USCB, 2017).

The overall representation of women in the US workforce is not the only area of concern within the study of gender inequality. More recently, many researchers have begun to investigate the topic of occupational gender segregation. Cohen (2013) argues that "nothing defines the nature of gender in a society more than the tendency of men and women to do different works" (p. 889). Several authors have noted that men and women tend to "cluster" in various occupational groups, and there are a significant number of occupations that are dominated by members of one gender (Benson, 2015; Blackburn, Siltanen, & Jarman, 1995; Cohen, 2013; Fernandez-Mateo & King, 2011; Heilman, 2012; Zorn, 2007)

The purpose of this investigation is to examine patterns of gender segregation and clustering within the United States workforce, with special attention directed towards the retail industry. Specifically, this study seeks to answer three questions: Do recent statistics continue to support the hypothesis that occupational gender segregation exists at multiple levels within the modern workforce? Can gender segregation and clustering occur within industries and work locations typically identified as gender-neutral? How can contemporary explanations of gender inequality be applied to the pattern of gender-specific segregation or clustering observed within the retail industry? Conclusions will be drawn following a careful examination of statistical data and existing research. To gain a thorough understanding of this topic, this study incorporates psychological, sociological, and economic perspectives as they relate to the explanation of gender segregation.

Defining and Identifying Levels of Segregation

Although segregation is not a new term, it is important to establish how it was used in the context of this research. According to the Oxford Dictionary, segregation is defined as "the action or state of setting someone or something apart from other people or things" (Oxforddictionaries.com, 2017). The term segregation, therefore, can be applied to any number of people, places, and things, and can be based upon countless defining characteristics. This study specifically examines the division of individuals within the workforce using gender as the central adjective.

The phrase occupational segregation most commonly refers to a pattern of men and women being employed in different occupations. Extensive qualitative and quantitative data support the supposition that certain professions have become gendered in modern society, meaning that jobs are likely to be seen as more suitable for (and thus occupied by) either males or females (Cohen, 2013; England & Boyer, 2009; Fernandez & Sosa, 2005; Jarman, Blackburn, & Racko, 2012). For example, based on societal expectations and gender-biased assumptions, the occupation of *construction worker* is traditionally seen as a male role, while the occupation of *secretary* is more commonly viewed as a female role. Subsequently, it is not surprising to learn that 97.5% of construction workers are men and 94.7% of secretaries/administrative assistants are women (USCB, 2017).

Although occupation is one of the most common descriptors of the United States workforce, many other work classifications also exist under the umbrella of occupational segregation. Specifically, research suggests that occupational segregation can be broken down into four distinct levels of a workforce hierarchy (Blackburn et al.,

1995; Konrad & Pfeffer, 1991; United States Census Bureau, 2012; US Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2010). At the top of this hierarchy are employment class and industry categories, which describe ownership of a person's employing organization and the type of business being conducted by that employer. Next is the organizational level, which considers the individual companies or locations that employ workers. Below this are occupational groupings, used to define the type of work someone does to earn his or her living. Finally, job titles categorize the specific role fulfilled by an employee within his or her organization (Konrad & Pfeffer, 1991; USCB, 2012; US Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2010).

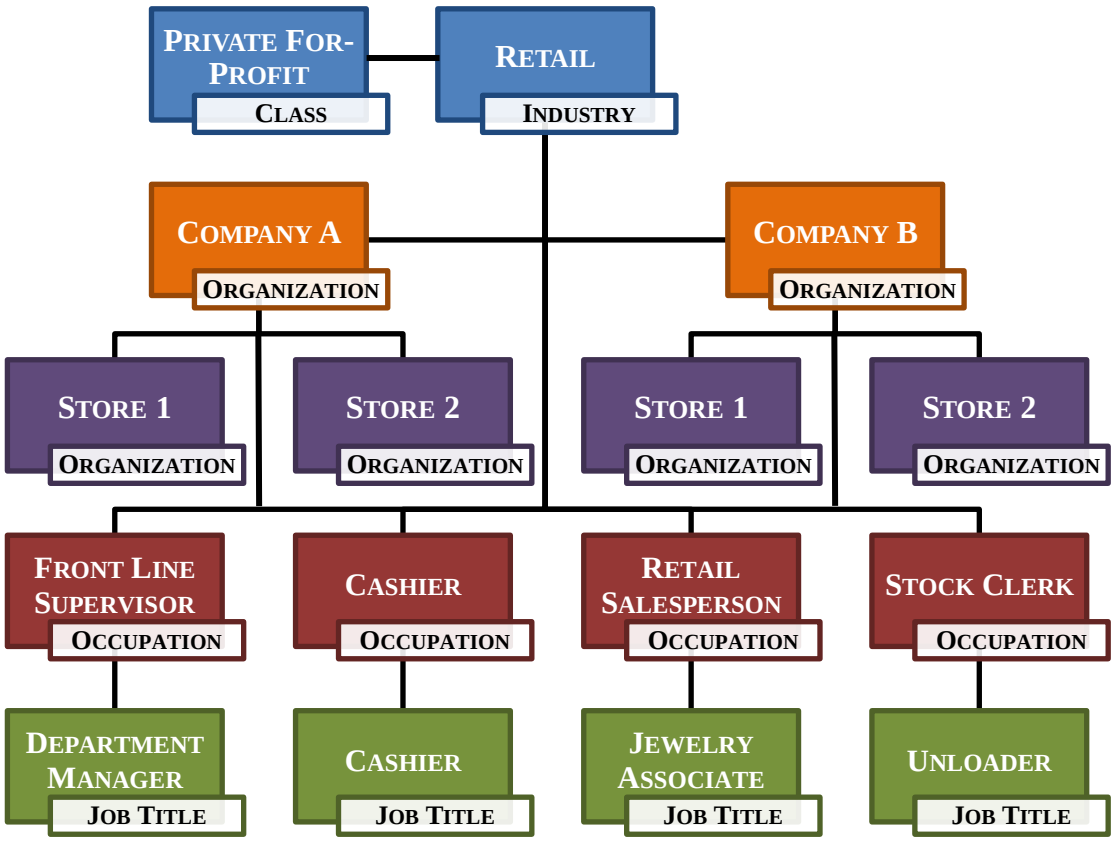

Figure 1. Hierarchy of Potential Occupational Segregation within the Retail Industry

To clarify these terms, consider the model related to the retail industry shown in Figure 1. Within this industry, there are many individual companies, several of which include multi-store operations. Each of these stores constitutes an independent organization, although large corporations may also be evaluated as a collective organization. Finally, within each organization, there are many different occupational groups and corresponding job titles. At this point, it is important to point out that, as is the case with the label of *cashier*, it is possible for an individual's occupation and job-title to be identical. Also significant is the distinction that class, industry and organization collations focus on defining the employer, while occupational and job-title categories describe the employee.

Existing research supports the argument that gender segregation can occur at any one of these levels, but also suggests that there is no guarantee of a direct relationship between them (Dolado, Felgueroso, & Jimeno, 2003; Fernandez-Mateo & King, 2011; Fernandez & Basbug, 1991; Fernandez & Sosa, 2005; Konrad & Pfeffer, 1991). For example, data from the 2015 United States Industry and Occupation Census indicates that 71.5% of all cashiers are female (USCB, 2017). This statistic does not confirm that female employees dominate the retail industry or that all retail organizations will employ more female cashiers than male ones. In reverse, discovering a small number of companies that employ an even number of male and female cashiers does not indicate that this occupational group is becoming less segregated. As a result, gaining an accurate understanding of gender segregation in any given situation requires consideration of all independent levels.

Occupational Segregation vs. Gender Concentration

The phrases ‘occupational segregation’ and ‘gender concentration’ frequently appear together within research focused on gender equality. In some cases, the terms are used synonymously by researchers. They are, however, quite distinctive in both purpose and meaning. Siltanen, Blackburn, and Jarmen (1995) define gender concentration as “the sex composition of the workforce in an occupation or set of occupations” (p. 5). Gender concentration is most often described as the percentage of workers within an occupation who are either male or female. For example, in a sample of 200 cashiers where 60 employees are male and 140 are female, the male occupational concentration would be 30% while the female concentration would be 70%. Concentration analysis, therefore, uses statistics to isolate specific occupational groups that are more likely to be staffed by men or women.

In contrast to concentration, which addresses the *representation* of each sex *within* an occupational field, occupational segregation predominantly refers to the *separation* of males and females *across* occupational fields. The intent of segregation analysis is not to focus on numbers, but to understand the influence of gender within the occupational structure. Simply put, concentration measurements identify *if* separation occurs between men and women, while segregation analysis seeks to explain *how*, *why*, and *to what extent* (Siltanen et al., 1995). Recognizing these differences allows the researcher to tailor his or her methods based on specific research questions. Similarly, choosing to integrate both concentration and segregation analysis within a study provides the researcher with the opportunity to conduct a more thorough investigation of the subject under review.

Perspectives on Occupational Gender Segregation

In existing literature, gender segregation is most often justified from one of three perspectives: psychological, sociological, and economic. Psychological perspectives use gender stereotypes and the existence of personal or group bias to explain gender segregation (see Eagly & Carli, 2007; Heilman, 2012; Pittinsky, Bacon, & Welle, 2007). Sociological perspectives argue that segregation stems from long-accepted traditional family and gender roles (see Antecol & Cobb-Clark, 2013; Cha, 2013; C. Crittenden & Wright, 2012). Finally, economic perspectives center on the idea that gender segregation is the result of perceptions of the human capital commonly attributed to both men and women (see Dolado, Felgueroso, & Jimeno, 2003; Fernandez-Mateo & King, 2011; Fernandez & Basbug, 1991). This study will seek to understand how each of these disciplinary lenses relates to existing employment statistics and the personal experiences and opinions shared by research participants.

Historically, biological differences between men and women have also been cited as a reason for gender segregation (Blackburn, Browne, Brooks, & Jarman, 2002; Eagly & Carli, 2007; Hughes, 2014). These differences primarily refer to the physical ability to complete specific work-related tasks (such as strength or dexterity). Contemporary research, however, does not favor this perspective because there is little evidence that biological attributes contribute to widespread occupational segregation (Wharton & Baron, 1987, 1991). For example, physical capabilities may explain why few women enter into construction occupations, but they do not account for the disparity between the number of men and women who are doctors or teachers. As a result, this perspective will not be considered further within this project.

Why Retail?

There are many reasons why the retail industry was selected as the focus group for this study. The first is related to group size. According to recent employment data, 5.92% of the 2015 labor force consists of first-line retail supervisors, retail salespersons, stock clerks, and cashiers, making retail employees the largest occupational group in the United States (USCB, 2017). Additionally, a brief examination of gender concentration within the retail industry suggests that there is still untapped potential within the topic of gender segregation. Initial research indicates that very few studies have carefully examined occupational segregation as it exists within organizational or job title levels. Further, no segregation studies have been identified that include an in-depth analysis of all four levels of an industry's occupational hierarchy. Due to the breadth of organizations, occupations, and job titles found within this industry, the retail sector offers many possibilities for hierarchical analysis.

Finally, the retail industry was selected because it is traditionally considered a gender-neutral industry and statistics support the supposition that gender segregation is low within this field. The United States Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (US EEOC, 2015), for instance, estimates that the gender concentration of employees in the retail industry is 51.38% female and 48.62% male. This study seeks to challenge the misconception of neutrality within the retail workforce by illustrating that low occupational segregation at the industry level does not guarantee equal representation throughout all other hierarchical levels. In fact, despite published statistical data, further observation indicates that the industry is not nearly as neutral as it seems.

A Note Regarding the Intersectionality of Gender and Ethnicity

According to Collins (2015), "the term intersectionality references the critical insight that race, class, gender, sexuality, ethnicity, nation, ability, and age operate not as unitary, mutually exclusive entities, but as reciprocally constructing phenomena that in turn shape complex social inequalities" (p. 2). The study of intersectionality indicates that affiliation with multiple minority groups increases one's odds of experiencing occupational segregation. For example, multiple sources posit that women struggle to attain equal opportunities in the workplace with regards to hiring, promoting, wages, and professional development (Catalyst, 2004; Eagly & Carli, 2007; Rhode & Kellerman, 2007). As a result, women in the professional world face many unique challenges not often experienced by their male counterparts, particularly as they seek to attain leadership positions. Moving beyond gender, researchers suggest that women are color must navigate an even more complex workplace where stereotypes associated with race exacerbate bias and discrimination (Cech, 2016; Collins, 2015; England & Boyer, 2009; Hughes, 2014).

Although theories of intersectionality certainly add dimension and depth to research relating to segregation, there are many complications associated with this field of research, namely increased methodological concerns due to the complexity of analysis required when cross-examining multiple variables (McCall, 2005). As a result, this study remained focused on the single variable of gender. The next chapter establishes the literature base regarding categorization of the U.S. workforce and areas of consideration when analyzing gender segregation.

Chapter 2: Literature Review

Occupational Segregation and Clustering within the US Workforce

According to recent employment reports, women currently account for 51.4% of the United States population that is of working age (over 16 years old), but only 47.5% of the current labor force (ACS, 2017). With less than a five percent difference between them, these numbers may seem reasonably equal. Further investigation, however, reveals that U.S. employment statistics are far from equal. According to Zorn (2007), women tend to cluster in three major occupational categories: service, sales and administration, and management. In contrast, men are dispersed more evenly across six chief occupational groups (production and transportation, construction, and agriculture, as well as the previous three). Similarly, Cohen (2013) argues that 40% of female employees are employed in occupations with a female concentration greater than 70%.

US Workforce Classification Systems

One of the most common methods of defining employment centers on the average number of hours worked per week by the employee. Frequently referred to by the title *work status*, this classification divides workers into two categories: full-time and part-time. Although the Federal Government does not currently provide clear delineations for each of these statuses, the U.S. Bureau of Labor Statistics (2017a) defines part-time employment as working an average of one to thirty-four hours per week and full-time as averaging more than thirty-five hours weekly. Recent employment statistics indicate that approximately 77% of the US workforce is employed with full-time status (ACS, 2017).

In social science research, the term *employment class* is sometimes thought of as being synonymous with social class (i.e. 'blue-collar' or 'white-collar' labor). In the context of this project, however, employment class refers not to the type of labor being completed, but to the employing organization's ownership type. The United States Census Bureau (USCB, 2009) uses eight titles to identify employment class: private for-profit, private-nonprofit, local government, state government, federal government, self-employed incorporated, self-employed non-incorporated and unpaid family workers. Depending upon research purposes, these eight classes are sometimes aggregated to form new class titles (i.e., private/government employment, salaried/self-employed). Approximately 68% of the current U.S. workforce currently works in the private for-profit sector, with the remaining 32% divided between private non-profit, government, self-employed, or family-owned organizations.

The USCB (2009) currently describes the American workforce in terms of over 1,000 *industries* and more than 800 *occupations*. These titles are outlined in the North American Industry Classification System (NAICS) and the Standard Occupational Classification (SOC) system. Both the NAICS and the SOC are considered the standard systems to be used by federal statistical agencies. As such, they will be referenced as the primary indices for assessing industry and occupation within this study.

The North American Industry Classification System

The NAICS is a comprehensive industry classification method currently in use by federal agencies in the United States, Canada, and Mexico. According to its conceptual framework, the NAICS is designed to group professional establishments "based on the similarity of their production processes" (United States, 2017, p. 14). This

grouping method was chosen because production-oriented concepts allow statistical agencies to collect and distribute information relating to not only economic products, but also methods of creating these products. Further, production processes transcend international borders in such a way that they are a suitable means of describing economic inputs and outputs for all three countries using the NAICS.

The structure of the NAICS is hierarchical, wherein the top categories represent broad methods of economic production that become more narrowly defined at lower levels. The NAICS categorizes industries using a six-digit coding system that identifies both the industry's title and its placement within the NAICS' tiered classification system, as shown in Figure 2.

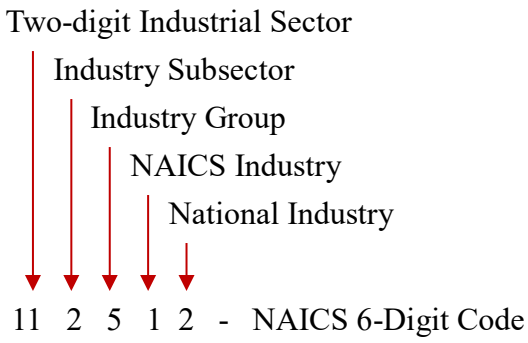

Figure 2. NAICS 6-Digit Code Structure

For further clarification of this coding structure, Table 1 details the NAICS hierarchy within the utilities industrial sector (adapted from USCB, 2012).

Table 1. NAICS Hierarchy of the Utilities Sector

22: Utilities **(NAICS – 2)**
- 221: Utilities **(NAICS – 3)**
  - 2211: Electric Power Generation/Transmission/Distribution **(NAICS – 4)**
    - 22111: Electric Power Generation **(NAICS – 5)**
      - 221111: Hydroelectric Power Generation **(NAICS 6)**
      - 221112: Fossil Fuel Electric Power Generation
      - 221113: Nuclear Electric Power Generation
      - 221119: Other Electric Power Generation
    - 22112: Electric Power Transmission, Control, and Distribution
      - 221121: Electric Bulk Power Transmission / Control
      - 221122: Electric Power Distribution
  - 2212: Natural Gas Distribution
    - 22121: Natural Gas Distribution
  - 2213: Water, Sewage, and Other Systems
    - 22131: Water Supply and Irrigation Systems
    - 22132: Sewage Treatment Facilities
    - 22133: Steam and Air-Conditioning Supply

The 2012 manifestation of the NAICS includes an index of 20 industrial sectors and 1,057 industries. As one of the smallest of the NAICS sectors, the Utilities production category contains only one subsector, three industry groups, six NACIS industries, and six national (U.S. specific) industries. In contrast, the biggest NAICS sector (Manufacturing) details 21 subsectors, 86 industry groups, and almost 200 NAICS industries (USCB, 2012). Although the complete NAICS index is too large to be included within this work, a modified version of the index, containing a complete list of the 20 industrial sectors and 96 subsectors identified by NAICS-2 and NAICS-3 codes can be found in Appendix E. The NAICS is currently under revision, with updates scheduled to be introduced with 2017 data publications (United States, 2017).

Overview of the Retail Industry. Within the North American Industry Classification System (NAICS), "the Retail Trade sector comprises establishments engaged in retailing merchandise, generally without transformation, and rendering

services incidental to the sale of merchandise" (United States, 2017, p. 345). The retail industry consists of twelve subsectors that can be broken down into two major types of operations: store retailers and non-store retailers. Store retailers use fixed locations strategically placed and designed to attract walk-in consumers. These retailers primarily focus on providing products used for public or household consumption. In addition, some retailers, such as automobile, electronics, appliance, and musical instrument stores offer repair services after the point of sale. Others, such as furniture, appliance, home improvement, and fitness equipment stores offer product delivery and installation services when selling merchandise.

Non-store retailers also serve the general public, but their methods of reaching customers and distributing merchandise differ. These retailers often use direct-response advertising, such as mail-order catalogs, television infomercials, and door-to-door sales to generate interest in their merchandise. Customers then purchase goods using phone, mail, internet, or in-person payment methods. Portable stalls (such as mall kiosks, fair booths, and street stands), auction houses, vending machine operators, and online merchants are also included in the non-store retailer category. All non-store retailers are grouped together to form one of the twelve retail industry subsectors; the remaining eleven are all classifications of store-retailers (United States, 2017). Appendix F provides a full breakdown of the NAICS index for the retail industry.

The Standard Occupation Classification (SOC) System

The SOC is a system developed by the U.S. BLS to classify both jobs and workers. Specifically designed to reflect the United States occupational structure, the SOC covers all occupations in the public, private, and military sectors, so long as the

work is performed for either pay or profit. Much like the NAICS, the SOC labels occupational categories using a six-digit code Structure. Similarly, the SOC is arranged in a hierarchical format, although the SOC consists of four levels, rather than five (U.S. BLS, 2010). These levels are illustrated in Figure 3.

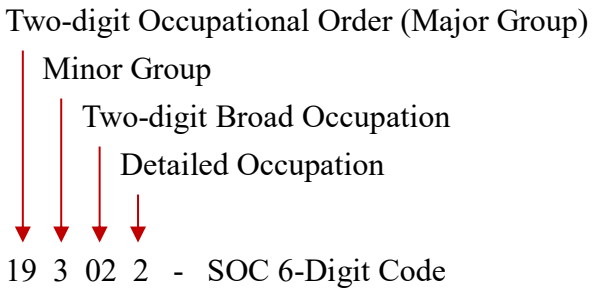

Figure 3. SOC 6-Digit Code Structure

Using the legal occupational order, Table 2 provides a detailed example of the tiered SOC coding structure (adapted from U.S. BLS, 2010).

Table 2. SOC Hierarchy of the Legal Occupational Order

23: Legal
- 23-1000: Lawyers, Judges, and Related Workers
  - 23-1010: Lawyers and Judicial Law Clerks
    - 23-1011: Lawyers
    - 23-1012: Judicial Law Clerks
  - 23-1020: Judges, Magistrates, and Other Judicial Workers
    - 23-1021: Admin. Law Judges/Adjudicators/Hearing Officers
    - 23-1022: Arbitrators, Mediators, and Conciliators
    - 23-1023: Judges, Magistrate Judges, and Magistrates
- 23-2000: Legal Support Workers
  - 23-2010: Paralegals and Legal Assistants
    - 23-2011: Paralegals and Legal Assistants
  - 23-2090: Miscellaneous Legal Support Workers
    - 23-2091: Court Reporters
    - 23-2093: Title Examiners, Abstractors, and Searchers
    - 23-2099: Legal Support Workers, All Other

Current employment data classifies occupations based upon the 2010 SOC system, but a revised version of the SOC is expected to be published in 2018. Within the SOC, occupations are grouped into categories based on primary job duties or skills, education, and training. The 2010 SOC index includes a total of 23 major groups, also known as occupational orders, 97 minor groups, 461 broad occupations, and 840 detailed occupations (U.S. BLS, 2010). A condensed version of this index containing a comprehensive listing of major and minor occupational groups is available for review in Appendix G.

Within the guidelines established by the SOC, individual persons/jobs may only be classified using a single detailed occupation code. In some situations, however, job duties or skills overlap so that a single job could be coded in more than one occupational category. To maintain consistency of occupational coding when this occurs, the U.S. BLS recommends that workers who could be classified in more than one occupation should be placed in the group that requires the highest skill level. In the absence of differentiated skill requirements, workers should be coded in the occupation where they spend the most time (U.S. BLS, 2010).

Psychological Perceptions – Stereotypes and Personal Bias

Descriptive and Prescriptive Stereotypes

Central to most arguments justifying segregation is the existence of gender-based stereotypes. Heilman (2012) defines stereotypes as "generalizations about groups that are applied to individual group members simply because they belong to that group," and she expands upon this definition by clarifying that gender stereotypes are "generalizations about the attributes of men and women" (p. 114). These

generalizations act as a form of heuristic shortcut used both intentionally and unintentionally when generating initial impressions. Unfortunately, they can be highly influential when making decisions, regardless of the decision maker's intent.

According to Eagly and Carli (2007), “sex provides the strongest basis of classifying people; it trumps race, age, and occupation in the speed and ubiquity of categorizing others” (p. 85). Classifying someone as *male* or *female*, therefore, conjures specific mental expectations for the individual’s masculine or feminine characteristics, a process that implies an inherent reliance on gender stereotypes. Within her research, Heilman (2012) asserts that two types of gender stereotypes, descriptive and prescriptive, contribute to the existence of workplace bias. As their name implies, people commonly use descriptive gender stereotypes to describe what men and women *are* like. In contrast, prescriptive generalizations help form impressions regarding what men and women *should* be like.

Descriptive stereotypes have been studied extensively, and several independent researchers have identified similar attributes that are commonly associated with either men or women. Schechner (2003) argues that terms such as *nurturing* and *sensitive* have been conceptually “feminized” (p. 5). Alternatively, Catalyst (2004) indicates that men are frequently described as *ambitious* or *assertive* (p. 11-12). Pittinsky, Bacon, and Welle (2002) describe a dichotomy of gender stereotypes wherein men are glorified for demonstrating competence, independence, and power while women are heralded for being collaborative, expressive, and pleasant. Both Eagly and Carli (2007) and Heilman (2012) group generalizations such as these using the terms agency and communality to describe the defining attributes of male and female gender stereotypes, respectively.

Characterizing male stereotypes, concepts of agency imply achievement-orientation, rationality, and the inclination to take charge. Female stereotypes, on the other hand, denote qualities of communality, such as deference, emotional sensitivity, and concern for others. While existing research primarily examines beliefs regarding intrinsic masculine and feminine qualities, there is actually a high degree of overlap between descriptive and prescriptive stereotypes. In short, attributes that are accepted for men and women also help define what attitudes and behaviors are appropriate or inappropriate for each group. Therefore, if women *are* communal, it is expected that they *should* be sensitive and deferential. Prescriptive stereotypes are also used to define what men and women *should not* be. Expanding upon the previous example, a communal woman *should not* be assertive or domineering.

Interestingly, these perceptions are remarkably consistent, even when factoring in different eras, geographic locations, and cultural backgrounds. As early as sixty years ago, researchers described men as being "independent, objective, assertive, unemotional, and active" and women as "dependent, subjective, passive, and emotional" (Pittinsky et al., 2007, p. 95). In an international study, Williams and Best (1990), asked research participants in thirty different countries to indicate whether listed adjectives were more commonly associated with men, women, or neither. Results showed significant agreement regarding both masculine and feminine words, particularly when considering terms relating to agency (such as adventurous, dominant, and strong) and communality (including affectionate, dependent, and emotional). Moreover, it was determined that acceptance of these stereotypes was evident among children as young as five years old.

The Consequences of Personal Bias

Perhaps the most concerning aspect of gender stereotypes is their ability to influence people at both the conscious and subconscious level. Often, stereotypes create a basis for personal bias, which may affect both the occupation an individual chooses to enter and his or her success within their chosen profession. Consider the research of Schechner (2003), who hypothesizes that many women enter into specific fields, such as arts and humanities, not because of personal interest but because they are labeled acceptable for women. A recent study by Antecol and Cobb-Clark (2013) supports this supposition with evidence that women choose both educational and occupational disciplines based upon the perception of associated psychosocial traits. Specifically, Antecol and Cobb-Clark found a significant relationship between an individual's decision to pursue a male or female dominated career and the extent to which the individual believed they possessed either masculine or feminine traits.

Bias can be either beneficial or detrimental to its subject, depending on its context. According to Heilman (2012), "stereotypes create problems for women when there is a perceived lack of fit between a woman's attributes, and the attributes believed to be required to succeed in traditionally male occupations" (p. 116). These perceptions can cause women to feel like they do not belong in a male-dominated industry or they cannot be true to themselves *and* succeed. Oftentimes, both men and women who decide to enter nontraditional occupations must defy gender stereotypes to succeed in their work. Unfortunately, individuals who choose to go against these standards may face disapproval, derogation, and even overt hostility (Catalyst, 2004; Eagly & Carli, 2007; Rhode & Kellerman, 2007).

To illustrate this point, consider positions that require a high level of aggressiveness, such as executive managers or lawyers, where women may be overlooked because they are not forceful enough. Many women choose not to enter these career fields simply because they do not want to adopt the characteristics of men. Those women that do seek such careers face what Rhode and Kellerman (2007) describe as a "double standard and a double bind" (p. 7). Success in powerful positions often depends upon an individual's ability to take charge, act decisively, and provide clear direction. While it is 'normal' for men to behave in this manner, women exhibiting such behaviors are likely to be regarded as cold, callous, and unapproachable. Some may even face harassment from their male counterparts (Catalyst, 2004; Rhode & Kellerman, 2007; Wharton & Baron, 1991).

Conversely, stereotypes and bias can favorably influence hiring decisions and work conditions when gendered stereotypes match the desired attributes for a given position. Occupations in healthcare and education, for example, require an expression of communal characteristics. Because women are expected to exhibit such traits, they are also expected to succeed in these fields. Similarly, Pittinsky, Bacon, and Welle (2002) point out that women became an unwitting beneficiary of gender stereotypes when new models of leadership theory began focusing on "warmer leadership traits and styles" (p. 116) such as cooperation, encouragement, interaction, and sensitivity. As an alternate assessment of advantageous bias, Konrad and Pfeffer (1991) contend that job vacancies are more likely to be filled by candidates of the same gender as the previous incumbent *if* that incumbent was successful in his or her position.

Sociological Conditioning: Conceptualizing Gender and Family Roles

Patriarchy, Masculinity, and Breadwinning

Crittenden and Wright (2012) define patriarchy as "a historical and social system of male dominance over women […] which is used to both enforce and reinforce the inequality of power between males and females" (p. 1268). In the case of occupational equality, notions of patriarchy have long been used to keep women from entering the workforce. Wharton and Baron (1987) explain that traditionally male occupations often serve to affirm masculinity and increase social status. When women began to infiltrate these roles, their presence undermined that masculine identity, resulting in increased friction between the sexes. Blackburn, Browne, Brooks, and Jarman (2002) propose that using patriarchy to explicate segregation is something of a circular argument, stating, "Male dominance is 'explained' by the fact that men dominate" (p. 521). Nonetheless, patriarchy continues to appear in contemporary discussions of equality. One fundamental difference, however, is a renewed focus on men being family providers, rather than family overseers.

The underlying 'family provider' argument is thus: "men are expected to be the chief breadwinners, working outside the household to deliver income to the family. Women, by contrast, are assumed to take care of household work such as child-rearing and day-to-day life chores" (Huang & Gamble, 2015, p. 334). This male breadwinner model encourages, even pressures, men to pursue occupations that provide financial stability and prestige and avoid occupations that are considered too feminine, such as nursing or clerical work (Broadbridge, 2010; Cha, 2013; Wharton & Baron, 1987, 1991). Alternatively, women may be more likely to choose careers that are less

esteemed, or that pay less in order to avoid challenging the positions of their husbands (Blackburn et al., 2002; C. Crittenden & Wright, 2012; Wharton & Baron, 1987).

As early as 1976, the notion of breadwinning was cited as explanation for both occupational segregation and wage inequality. At that time, Hartmann argued that the presence of women in male-dominated industries threatened the perception of male status within families, particularly in situations where wives earned more money than their husbands (as cited by Wharton and Baron, 1987). In some ways, this remains true, as recent research by Cha (2013) indicates, "Men who are not the primary breadwinner still experience penalties, such as being seen as unsuccessful and irresponsible" (p. 162). Dual-earner families attempting to adhere to traditional familial models, then, are challenged to strike an appropriate balance between career and family expectations.

Homemaking and Caregiving

Several studies indicate that traditional gender roles also result in "societal discrimination in the distribution of family responsibilities" (Dolado, Felgueroso, & Jimeno, 2003, p. 295). Although many more women have entered the workforce, the gendered expectations of homemaking and caregiving continue to define how families distribute household tasks. Western culture continues not only to accept but also expect that men will maintain careers designed to support their families while women place more focus on child-rearing and home maintenance. While men may be ridiculed for not being primary breadwinners, women are not discouraged from quitting work or reducing work hours to care for their families. In some cases, such actions are socially lauded (Craig, 2007; Sinno & Killen, 2011).

Even when they choose to work and contribute to the household income, several studies support the hypothesis that women remain unable to escape domestic responsibilities entirely. In her groundbreaking book sharing the same name, Hochschild (2012) argues that the majority of employed women work an unpaid "second-shift" (p.4) of parenting and household tasks when they return home. In support of this claim, Eagly and Carli (2007) used time journals to illustrate that women spend 1.7 hours completing housework for every 1 hour spent by men in similar activities. Cha (2013) contends that women spend approximately 30% more time raising their children and making child-rearing decisions than their husbands.

This trend perhaps offers one of the most accepted explanations for occupational segregation. Dolado et al. (2003) hypothesize that women choose jobs that are compatible with expected domestic responsibilities, such as transporting children to school and completing household chores. Cha (2013) validates this argument with research indicating that women are less likely to pursue careers that require long hours (such as high-level managerial occupations). Although required 'overwork' may be a gender-neutral employment expectation, she asserts that it does substantiate occupational segregation. To illustrate this point, Cha states, "women still bear greater familial obligations, even when employed full-time, that hinder career advancement in jobs requiring complete time devotion to work" (2013, p. 159).

In recent years, more research has been devoted to the "opt-out revolution," a term used to describe the number of women who are deserting careers in favor of motherhood and family life (Fernandez-Mateo & King, 2011; Mainiero & Sullivan, 2005). While the extreme end of opting-out implies abandoning a career to become a

homemaker or stay-at-home mom, this trend does not always require strict or permanent unemployment. Some women who choose to leave their careers do so temporarily, perhaps returning to the same job following an extended leave of absence. Others may quit and enter a different career when they return to work. In some cases, women who expect to raise families are more likely to choose "kaleidoscope careers" (Mainiero & Sullivan, 2005) that allow them to leave and reenter at their leisure.

In many ways, this trend also provides possible explanations for occupational segregation. For example, Fernandez-Mateo and King (2011) assert that occupational decisions will be altered "if women anticipate that they will have breaks in their careers because of childcare and other responsibilities" (p. 991). Furthermore, it is argued that women are more likely to pursue part-time employment or careers that offer flexible work arrangements in favor of traditional full-time labor (Cha, 2013; Fernandez-Mateo & King, 2011; Mainiero & Sullivan, 2005). Benson (2015) takes an alternate approach to this trend by stating that marriage alone can provide enough responsibility to encourage women to choose flexible careers, even in the absence of children. In his research, he found that individuals with spouses in very specialized careers (such as military personnel) were more likely to pursue positions that allowed for easy relocation or offered the ability to work from home.

Economic Justifications: Occupational Supply and Demand

Supply and Demand of Prospective Employees

While the psychological and sociological perspectives primarily focus on explaining *why* gender segregation exists, researchers studying this phenomenon through the economic disciplinary lens are more concerned with establishing *how* it

persists. One common limitation of research on the topic of occupational gender segregation is that it relies on data collected from people who are already in a given position. Unfortunately, this allows only a retrospective analysis of how an existing gender bias evolved. Studies by Fernandez and Sosa (2005) and Fernandez-Mateo and King (2011) sought to combat this by completing longitudinal studies that examined the full hiring process in two distinct organizations. Both of these studies considered the initial applicant pool, preliminary screening procedures, applicant interviews, and the final candidate selection. In each case, the researchers determined that understanding the existence of occupational segregation requires the consideration of both supply (employee) and demand (employer) factors relating to the application and hiring process.

Supply-side influences include those that lead an employee to seek a specific job or career. According to Fernandez-Mateo and King (2011), for instance, "men and women may have different preferences or constraints that influence their choice to work in different types of jobs (p. 991). In contrast, demand-side elements are those that lead employers to look for a specific type of employee to fill open positions. These commonly include any selection criteria used to narrow down the applicant pool when hiring for open positions, such as work experience or educational background (Fernandez & Basbug, 1991; Fernandez & Sosa, 2005; Konrad & Pfeffer, 1991). In some cases, occupational supply and demand elements appear to operate with mutual exclusivity, as demonstrated by Fernandez and Sosa (2005) in a study where applicants entered an employment supply pool in a neutral fashion, but hiring decisions appeared heavily biased in favor of women. In other cases, as shown by Dolado et al. (2003) and

Antecol and Cobb-Clark (2013), supply and demand influences intermingle in such a way that both contribute to the creation and continuation of segregation.

Conventional analysis of supply and demand factors typically relates back to the previously discussed psychological and sociological perspectives (Antecol & Cobb-Clark, 2013; Fernandez-Mateo & King, 2011; Fernandez & Basbug, 1991; Fernandez & Sosa, 2005; Konrad & Pfeffer, 1991). On the supply side, consider the following two examples. In one instance, a female pursues a degree in child education because the career choice is considered *acceptable* for females and she believes it likely that she can succeed in this role. In another, a woman anticipates that she will have breaks in her career while she raises her children, and so chooses to become a paralegal rather than a lawyer to minimize her career penalties for leaving and reentering the workforce.

Alternatively, two similar examples demonstrate the demand side of the hiring process. In the first, a female candidate is chosen over a male candidate for a position as a kindergarten teacher because the hiring committee believed that a female would be better able to relate to young children. In the second, a female paralegal is passed over for a promotion because her male peer had gained more experience and influence with partners in their firm while she was on maternity leave. These cases illustrate not only the interrelatedness of supply and demand, but also the high degree of crossover between psychological, sociological, and economic explanations of segregation (Dolado et al., 2003; Fernandez-Mateo & King, 2011; Konrad & Pfeffer, 1991).

The Notion of Capital

Tymon and Stumpf (2003) describe capital as "the accumulation of assets, resources, and sources of strength that are used to aid in accomplishing an end or

furthering a pursuit" (p. 14). In the most traditional sense, capital refers to material goods, such as currency, land, property, trade goods, or raw materials. In a world where natural and manufactured resources are increasingly limited, however, more and more economic focus is being placed on assessing the value of human and social capital (Broadbridge, 2010; A. Crittenden, 2010; Tymon & Stumpf, 2003).

Although the terms 'human capital' and 'social capital' are sometimes used interchangeably (Cech, 2016; Mainiero & Sullivan, 2005; Sparks, 1992), Broadbridge (2010) distinguishes between the two with the following argument:

> Whereas human capital consists of resources possessed by the individual such as education, training and experience (i.e., it is a quality of people and deals with the ''what'' a person knows), social capital is the accessed resources of individuals (it is a quality created between people and refers to opportunity, and deals with ''who'' a person knows) (p. 816).

In the occupational sense then, human capital describes the worth of an employee based on his or her skills, while social capital describes the employees level of engagement based upon "the relationships between people and the feelings of mutual obligation and support that these relationships create" (Eagly & Carli, 2007, p. 144).

Unfortunately, some theorists (and employers) propose that "women's qualifications are worth less" (Blackburn, Browne, Brooks, & Jarman, 2002, p. 518–519) than their male counterparts due to the amount of time they commit to their families, rather than their careers. Wage and employment statistics offer evidence to support such claims (USCB, 2017). Similarly, Eagli and Carli (2007) note, "Over one recent fifteen-year period, U.S. women earned an average of $273,592, compared with

$722,693 for men" (p. 57). Crittenden (2010) argues that mothers who leave the workforce, even temporarily, are the group most penalized for the choice to prioritize family over work, claiming that society demeans mothers by lumping them into a general "Unoccupied Class" (p. 61) and classifying their work as "unskilled labor" (p. 261).

"From the perspective of human capital theory, occupational segregation is reproduced in large part because women's and men's (gender typical) family plans influence their investments in human capital" (Cech, 2016, p. 268). This theory assumes that individuals *invest* their human capital in such a way as to maximize their long-term traditional capital (wealth and property). Because the skills and knowledge that comprise human capital *depreciate* during periods of dormancy, individuals who anticipate career breaks (such as mothers) seek to offset the devaluation of their earnings potential by pursuing careers with less advanced education requirements, consistent wage structures, and lower risk of obsolescence (Cech, 2016; England & Boyer, 2009).

Capital can also be described in terms of self-worth, and this is another area where many women struggle (Eagly & Carli, 2007; Rhode & Kellerman, 2007; Sandberg, 2016). Perceptions relating to gender stereotypes can cause women to feel like they do not belong in a male-dominated industry or they cannot be true to themselves *and* succeed (Dolado et al., 2003; Rhode & Kellerman, 2007). For example, Cuddy (2016) points out that women in MBA classes are far less likely to raise their hands or aggressively participate in class discussions that their male counterparts. Sandberg (2016) cites a common practice for women to sit on the edge of the room

during meetings rather than joining their male peers at the table. Both Rhode and Kellerman (2007) and Eagly and Carli (2007) note that women are less likely to draw attention to their professional accomplishments and push for what they want to achieve. Unfortunately, it will continue to be difficult for women to gain equal footing with men if they fail to believe or act as though they deserve it. The next chapter will articulate and explain the methodology used for the study.

Chapter 3: Methodology

Existing studies on the topic of occupational segregation typically favor either a quantitative or a qualitative methodological approach. According to Patton (2002), however, increasing the overall understanding of what is being observed requires researchers to adopt a more holistic approach. Such an approach assumes that "the whole is understood as a complex system that is greater than the sum of its parts" (p. 59). Implementing a holistic approach necessitates the integration of both quantitative and qualitative methodologies. The result of such an approach is an investigative process that encourages the researcher to collect data in a way that examines multiple aspects of the topic in question. Correspondingly, such methods inspire the researcher to draw a complete picture of the phenomenon being studied by providing detailed description and interpretation of both the subject of research and its environmental context.

Interpretive Framework

This study utilized the pragmatic philosophical paradigm to increase understanding of how retail employees experience and are affected by the phenomenon of occupational gender segregation. Creswell (2013) asserts that pragmatism focuses "on the outcomes of the research […] rather than the antecedent conditions" (p. 27). He specifically notes that practitioners of this framework are often willing to use less traditional research methods to achieve research goals. Similarly, Patton (2002) contends, "Being pragmatic allows one to eschew methodological orthodoxy in favor of *methodological appropriateness*" (p. 72). This approach is beneficial because it provides the researcher with the freedom to choose what theories, methods, or

procedure work best for analyzing the problem in question, granting greater flexibility to follow the data as new themes emerge. By incorporating mixed methods and three distinct disciplinary lenses (the previously discussed psychological, sociological, and economic perspectives), one goal of this project was to move from a disciplinary to an interdisciplinary understanding of occupational segregation.

In addition to examining employment statistics relating to occupational segregation, this study sought to understand the perpetuation of such segregation by examining the experiential knowledge of current and potential retail employees. This was done using a combination of online surveys and in-person interviews. A fundamental assumption of this research was that the phenomenon of occupational segregation could be understood by considering the patterns of meaning discovered when analyzing the interaction between people and the world around them. As such, there is little question that many aspects of this project were rooted in hermeneutic phenomenology, which Kafle (2013) describes as "an attempt to unveil the world as experienced by the subject through their life world stories" (p. 186).

In the course of conducting qualitative research, subjects often share stories about their personal experiences. According to Creswell (2013), such tales may be analyzed in a variety of ways to increase the overall understanding of how participants view themselves, their surroundings, and the phenomenon being studied. As a result, although often implemented as a stand-alone methodology, narrative research also works well in conjecture with others, such as hermeneutic phenomenology. Czarniawska (2004) defines narrative as "a spoken or written text giving an account of an event/action or series of events/actions, chronologically connected" (as cited in

Creswell, 2013, p. 69). In this study, biographical narratives provided a more in-depth look at how retail employees describe gender in the context of their professional experiences.

Data Collection

To assess the current state of segregation within the United States workforce and the retail industry, this study incorporated employment data distributed by the US Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC), special Census reports published by the United States Census Bureau, and Public Use Microdata Sample (PUMS) files from the American Community Surveys (ACS). The ACS is an ongoing survey that collects information regarding the United States population, including details such as demographic characteristics, family structure, housing, and employment. ACS PUMS files contain a detailed set of untabulated responses to the survey, and they are typically published in either single or multiyear format. For more information relating to ACS PUMS files, please see Appendix A.

Additionally, this study used two anonymous online surveys to collect data relating to the personal experiences and preferences of current and potential retail employees. The online survey platform was chosen based on overall ease of use and accessibility. The first survey targeted existing retail professionals and sought information relating to the careers of these individuals. The second survey identified potential retail professionals based on the subjects' expressed interest in pursuing a career in the industry. Both surveys contained a combination of closed and open-ended questions relating to work in the retail industry. Objective survey topics included basic demographic information, length and breadth of retail experience, and professional

development. Subjective questions addressed employment satisfaction, desired career path, and personal experiences. For a complete list of survey questions, please see Appendix B (Career Progression of Retail Professionals Survey) and Appendix C (Retail Recruitment Survey).

As a final method of identifying relationships between theoretical segregation models and findings within the retail industry, six individuals were invited to participate in personal interviews. An interview protocol form, available for review in Appendix D, was developed to guide this process. The semi-structured interview format included six core questions but also allowed for additional follow-up questions as needed to clarify participant comments or further analyze emerging themes. Interviews lasted between 30 and 60 minutes, offering each participant enough time to fully discuss each question before moving on to the next. Each interview was recorded and transcribed.

Sampling

Career Progression of Retail Professionals Survey

The purposive sample of participants for this survey consisted of individuals currently employed in the retail industry. Fifty potential research subjects were recruited to participate through their connection with online social media groups for retail professionals. Participant eligibility was determined based on the following inclusion criteria: 1) eighteen years of age or older, 2) willingness to disclose gender during survey screening, 3) current or previous experience working in retail, and 4) ability to communicate in English. The final sample for this study consisted of fifteen individuals, including eleven women and four men. Of this sample, seven participants were white,

four were African American, and three were Hispanic or Latino. The survey completion rate for all fifteen participants was 100%.

Retail Recruitment Survey

Potential research subjects for this survey were identified through their affiliation with student groups at the University of Oklahoma (OU). Electronic survey invitations were sent to three thousand individuals, requesting their participation in this study. Participant eligibility was determined based on the following inclusion criteria: 1) eighteen years of age or older, 2) willingness to disclose gender during survey screening, 3) expressed interest in pursuing careers within the retail industry, and 4) ability to communicate in English. The final sample for this study consisted of 403 individuals, including 268 women, 125 men, and ten individuals who self-identified as non-binary. 70% of this group were white individuals, 6% were African American, 6% were Hispanic or Latino, 6% were Native American, and 5% were Asian. The remaining 7 percent indicated an ethnic identity of Other or elected not to disclose their ethnicity. The survey completion rate for all participants was 85.1%. Because most variables considered by this survey can be assessed independently, incomplete survey responses were not excluded from the final sample.

Interviews with Retail Professionals

Following their participation in the Career Progression of Retail Professionals Survey, all participants were asked if they were interested in being contacted for future research opportunities. From this group, six individuals (three females and three males) who expressed a desire to contribute to future research were chosen to participate in one-on-one interviews. Due to time and location constraints, two individuals requested

to complete their interviews together in conference call format. All participants were selected based on several factors, including length of career, variety of positions held, and leadership experience. All six interviewees were retail professionals currently holding mid or high-level retail leadership positions. The career length for these individuals ranged from four to thirty years, although the majority were between fifteen and twenty-five. Over the course of their careers, all selected individuals have held numerous positions within multiple company and store locations.

Calculating Gender Concentration

Gender concentration is a measurement used to describe the distribution of men and women within occupational groups. Table 3 presents a sample of how these distributions are commonly depicted when analyzing gender concentration.

Table 3. Sample Occupational Concentration Table

Occupational Title ($\boldsymbol{O_1}$)	Total # of All Workers ($\boldsymbol{A}$)	Total # of Male Workers ($\boldsymbol{M}$)	Total # of Female Workers ($\boldsymbol{F}$)	Concentration of Female Workers ($\boldsymbol{C_f}$)
Management Occupations	13,439,959	8,273,239	5,166,720	38.44%
Sales Occupations	9,992,545	5,884,240	4,108,305	41.11%

The primary focus of this study was female concentration of occupational groups, as calculated by the formula: $C_f = \left(\frac{F}{A}\right) \times 100$.

Selecting a Measurement of Gender Segregation

Gender-based occupational segregation studies seek to understand how and why men and women perform different professional functions, as well as the degree of separation across occupational groups (Siltanen et al., 1995). Total segregation, for

instance, occurs if an occupational group is staffed exclusively by members of one gender. These situations are exceptionally rare, as most groups contain a mixture of both males and females. In contrast, when there is an even mix of men and women within a professional group, there is no occupational segregation. The common challenge of segregation analysis, of course, is determining how to measure segregation when it does not exist in one of these extremes.

Existing research identifies five measures of gender-based occupational segregation currently in use (Blackburn, 2009; Cohen, 2013; Hegewisch et al., 2010; Siltanen et al., 1995). These are the Index of Dissimilarity (ID), the Sex Ratio (SR), the Women in Employment Index (WE), the Gini Coefficient (G), and Marginal Matching (MM). Within their exploration of these techniques, Siltanen, Jarman, and Blackburn (1995) present seven criteria for selecting an appropriate measure of segregation:

> (1) is symmetrical with regard to women and men; (2) has a constant upper limit indicating total segregation; (3) has a constant lower limit indicating no segregation; (4) is size invariant; (5) has occupational equivalence; (6) is sex composition invariant; [and] (7) is gendered occupations invariant. (p. 97)

Of the acknowledged segregation measures, the first four are heavily influenced by sex composition and gendered occupations, meaning they fail to satisfy requirements six and seven.

Sex composition refers to the overall number of men and women in the labor force, while gendered occupations refer to the relative number of individuals employed in *male* and *female* occupations(Cohen, 2013; Siltanen et al., 1995). In the modern workforce, these numbers are continually changing. These changes, however, should

not distort the level of segregation found within individual occupational groups. The Marginal Matching procedure controls for sex composition and gendered occupations in such a way that results are consistently comparable over time. As a result, Siltanen, Jarman, and Blackburn (1995) argue that Marginal Matching is "the only available measure that is suitable for comparing segregation across situations or over time" (p. 107).

Measuring Segregation Using Marginal Matching

Conveniently, the essential information needed to measure segregation via the Marginal Matching procedure is the same used when calculating gender concentration. The process begins with a set of data relating to the number of men and women in various occupational groups, as indicated in Table 4, which details retail employment data published by the U.S. EEOC (2015).

Table 4. Number of Employees in Retail Industry

Occupational Group	Total # Employees	# Male Employees	# Female Employees	Female Concentration
Office & Clerical Workers	810,987	332,093	478,894	59.05%
Sales Workers	3,998,734	1,652,525	2,346,209	58.67%
Technicians	182,997	85,642	97,355	53.20%
Professionals	277,142	135,410	141,732	51.14%
Service Workers	592,486	305,744	286,742	48.40%
First/Mid-Level Managers	539,461	326,261	213,200	39.52%
Laborers	618,401	419,287	199,114	32.20%
Operatives	403,508	275,091	128,417	31.83%
Executive/Senior Managers	41,516	29,880	11,636	28.03%
Craft Workers	181,843	155,917	25,926	14.26%
Total	7,647,075	3,717,850	3,929,225	51.38%

The next step is to separate the occupational groupings into male and female occupations. As shown, this step requires occupational data to be sorted by female concentration from the highest concentration to the lowest. Using the female

concentration of the entire group as the dividing point (indicated by the red line in Table 8) "female" occupations should be those with a female concentration higher than the group average, while "male" occupations are those with a concentration lower than the group average. Once data has been arranged and separated, calculate the number of workers in each category, as presented in Table 5. These numbers create a set of marginal totals for both sex of workers and gendered occupations.

Table 5. Gendered Occupations within the Retail Industry

Occupational Group	Total # Employees	# Male Employees	# Female Employees	Female Concentration
Office & Clerical Workers	810,987	332,093	478,894	59.05%
Sales Workers	3,998,734	1,652,525	2,346,209	58.67%
Technicians	182,997	85,642	97,355	53.20%
Female Occupations	4,992,718	2,070,260	2,922,458	58.53%
Professionals	277,142	135,410	141,732	51.14%
Service Workers	592,486	305,744	286,742	48.40%
First/Mid-Level Managers	539,461	326,261	213,200	39.52%
Laborers	618,401	419,287	199,114	32.20%
Operatives	403,508	275,091	128,417	31.83%
Executive/Senior Managers	41,516	29,880	11,636	28.03%
Craft Workers	181,843	155,917	25,926	14.26%
Male Occupations	2,654,357	1,647,590	1,006,767	37.93%
Total	7,647,075	3,717,850	3,929,225	51.38%

The final phase of the Marginal Matching procedure is creating a 2x2 table that "matches" the sex of workers marginal to the gendered occupations marginal. Table 6 provides an example of how to construct this table.

Table 6. 2x2 Table for Marginal Matching Procedure

	Male Workers	**Female Workers**	**Marginal Total**
Male Occupations	# of Men in Male Occupations ($\boldsymbol{M_m}$)	# of Women in Male Occupations ($\boldsymbol{F_m}$)	Total # in Male Occupations ($\boldsymbol{M_a}$)

Female Occupations	# of Men in Female Occupations ($\boldsymbol{M_f}$)	# of Women in Female Occupations ($\boldsymbol{F_f}$)	Total # in Female Occupations ($\boldsymbol{F_a}$)
Marginal Totals	Total # of Male Workers (***M***)	Total # of Female Workers (***F***)	Total # of All Workers (***A)***

Note: Table adapted from (Siltanen et al., 1995, p. 37)

The segregation measure, *MM*, can now be calculated using the variables detailed in Table 10 and the formula:

$$MM = \frac{\left[\left(F_f \times M_m\right) - \left(F_m \times M_f\right)\right]}{FM}$$

According to Siltanen, Jarman, and Blackburn (1995), *MM* should be interpreted as "the extent to which women and men are separated from each other in the employment structure" (p. 38). As *MM* approaches its maximum value of one, gender segregation increases, meaning that male occupations contain higher concentrations of men and female occupations contain higher concentrations of women. As *MM* approaches its minimum value of zero, male and female occupations will be increasingly integrated. At the point of zero segregation, male and female occupations would be indistinct from one another. Using the data provided in Tables 8 and 10, *MM* for this group of occupational categories would equal 0.187, indicating a relatively minimal amount of occupational segregation in the sample.

Research Limitations

Although there is a tremendous amount of research available regarding gender discrimination and workplace inequality, few focus on organizational and job title segregation within particular industries. One aim of this study was to determine if there is evidence of these types of segregation within the retail industry. Unfortunately, while

the data samples used in this study provided the means for preliminary analysis, they were not large enough to draw firm conclusions regarding the industry as a whole. Future research should seek to incorporate data from much larger samples. Employment statistics from major retail organizations would be ideal.

The participant pools for both the Retail Career Progression and Retail Recruitment surveys contained a disproportionate number of female subjects. To offset this somewhat, an even number of male and female participants were selected to complete the interview portion of this study. Nevertheless, the uneven distribution of male and female participants in this study could imply the presence of gender bias and potentially skew the qualitative findings presented from this research. Further, although a small group of individuals self-identified as being non-binary or other when classifying their gender identity, this group was largely excluded from this study due to the limited amount of data available. Future research should seek to incorporate a more even representation of male, female, and non-binary/other individuals.

Similarly, although participant ethnicity is not a chief point of analysis for this study, it should be noted that the participant pool for this study is dominated by white individuals. As a result, the findings from this study may not adequately reflect the additional challenges faced by men and women of color when seeking career development and advancement. At this time, the full impact of intersectional identity in the retail industry is unknown. Future studies may offset this by seeking a more diverse participant pool.

As mentioned in Chapter 2, a common limitation of research on the topic of occupational gender segregation is that it relies on data collected from people who are

already in a given position (Fernandez-Mateo & King, 2011; Fernandez & Sosa, 2005). The survey portions of this study sought to overcome this limitation to an extent by incorporating two samples, one of existing retail professionals and another of potential retail employees. Because participants in the Retail Recruitment portion of this study were not applying for actual retail positions, however, it is hard to determine if their survey responses are indicative of real-life actions. As a result, the best way to address this issue is to either conduct an experimental study using true experimental controls or to partner with a retail employer to conduct a long-term analysis of application and hiring trends.

Chapter 4: Findings and Discussion

Part 1: Quantitative Analysis of Segregation within the US Workforce

Similar to the work of Zorn (2007) and Cohen (2013), this study sought to demonstrate that patterns of occupational segregation and clustering continue to exist in contemporary society. Additionally, much of the research design for this project revolved around the hypothesis that occupational segregation exists at multiple levels of the U.S. workforce. This hypothesis stems from studies by Konrad and Pfeffer (1991), Fernandez and Basbug (1991), and Fernandez and Sosa (2005) detailing the significance of exploring gender segregation within work organizations and at job-title levels. These levels include work status, employment class, industry, and occupation of American workers.

Work Status

Within the most recent ACS (2017) PUMS sample, 77% of American workers reported working primarily full-time over the past year, while 23% reported working primarily part-time. Given the distribution of men and women in the overall workforce and the sample of full-time workers, perhaps the most interesting statistic from this sample is the concentration of female part-time workers. When less than half of employed citizens in the U.S. are women, the fact that they comprise 62% of part-time laborers is statistically significant. Further, these numbers indicate the potential for occupational segregation at other levels of the workforce hierarchy because many organizations and occupations are more likely to employ a majority of either full-time *or* part-time workers, rather than an even sharing of each. Figure 4 provides an illustrated breakdown of full-time and part-time work status by gender for this sample.

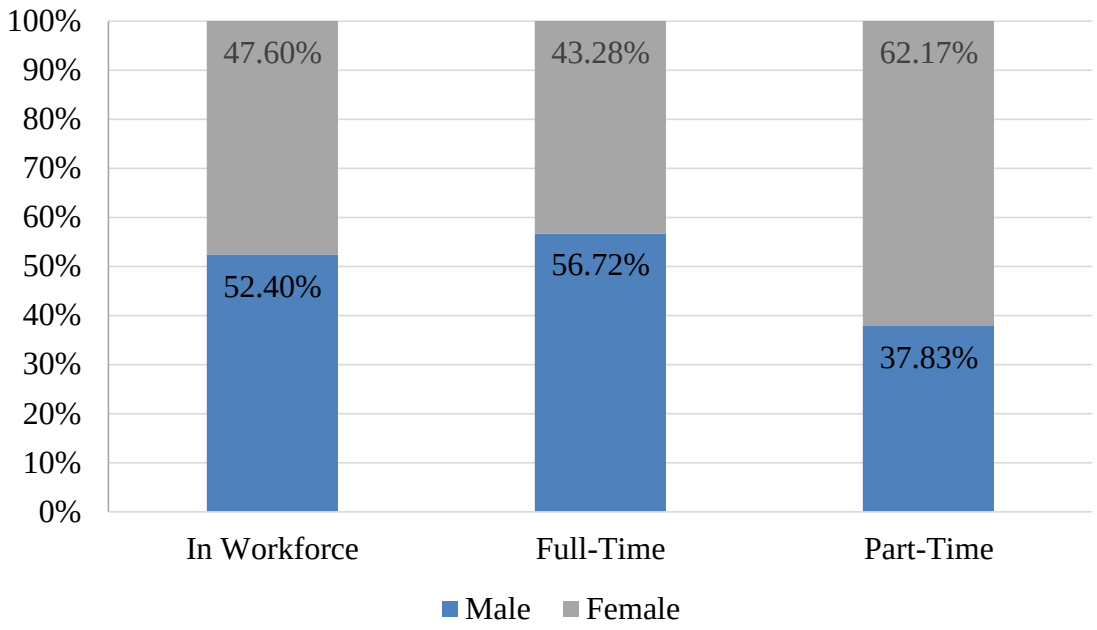

Figure 4. Distribution of Full-Time and Part-Time Workers in US Workforce

Employment Class

A five-year aggregated sample of PUMS data indicates that approximately 68% of the U.S. workforce is employed in private for-profit industries. Of the remaining 32%, 8% work for private-nonprofit organizations, 14% are government employees, 9% are self-employed, and less than 1% are unpaid family workers (ACS, 2017). Table 7 provides a detailed look at the distribution of male and female workers in each employment class for this sample. Close examination indicates that women are statistically more likely than men to be employed by private-nonprofit, state government, or local government organizations than the remaining five employment classes. Correspondingly, they are far less likely than men to be self-employed incorporated business owners.

Table 7. Gender Concentration of Workers by Employment Class

Employment Class	Total # Employees	# Male Employees	# Female Employees	Female Concentration
Private For-Profit Business	99,080,219	54,313,317	44,766,902	45.18%
Private Nonprofit Organization	11,774,948	4,063,762	7,711,186	65.49%
Local Government Workers	10,185,697	4,216,652	5,969,045	58.60%
State Government Workers	6,826,025	2,751,160	4,074,865	59.70%
Federal Government Workers	3,828,163	2,200,829	1,627,334	42.51%
Self-Employed Non-Incorporated Business	8,792,726	5,278,894	3,513,832	39.96%
Self-Employed Incorporated Business	5,027,780	3,555,841	1,471,939	29.28%
Unpaid Family Workers	232,221	115,038	117,183	50.46%
Total Sample	**145,747,779**	**76,495,493**	**69,252,286**	**47.52%**

Despite this trend, however, an occupational segregation analysis of employment class using the Marginal Matching procedure reveals a relatively low measure of segregation between female- and male-dominated employment classes. As specified by Siltanen, Jarman, & Blackburn (1995), Table 8 summarizes the number of male and female workers in each set of employment classes. For this sample, an *MM* value of 0.1124 denotes limited segregation at the employment class level. Further, the 5-year sample aggregation supports the argument that this number has remained consistent over time.

Table 8. Employment Class 2x2 Marginal Matching Table for 5-year Aggregate Sample of Employed Population

	Male Workers	*Female Workers*	*Marginal*
Male Classes	65,348,881	51,380,007	116,728,888
Female Classes	11,146,612	17,872,279	29,018,891
Marginal	76,495,493	69,252,286	145,747,779
			MM = 0.1124

Segregation within Industrial Sectors and NAICS Industries

Because the NAICS is a multi-tiered structure that describes a distinct aspect of the hierarchy of potential occupational segregation, it provides an excellent starting point for testing the hypothesis that such segregation can exist both simultaneously and independently across ranked tiers. Analysis of industry level segregation should begin with a general assessment of the highest tier of the NAICS structure, the twenty primary industrial sectors. Siltanen et al. (1995) caution researchers to consider the sex composition of the entire workforce when choosing a baseline for measures of equality, claiming that it is unreasonable to use the composition of the population as a whole (in this case 51.4% female and 48.6% male) if women comprise less than half of the *employed* population. As such, this study defined the point of equality as being equal to the female concentration of the employed workforce sample.

The current investigation sought to assess industry-level segregation using an ACS (2017) PUMS sample, filtered to include only full-time, year-round workers over age sixteen in 2015. Full-time workers were chosen for three reasons. First, this group accounts for the largest percentage of the workforce (77%). Second, employment equality reports published by government organizations such as the USCB (2005), the USCB (2011, 2016), and the U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC, 2015) primarily use the same sample. Finally, the higher concentration of female part-time employees has the potential to skew results inaccurately in favor of women. To summarize data from the sample of full-time employees, review Figure 5, which illustrates the range of deviation from the point of equality (here, 42.9%) for each industrial sector.

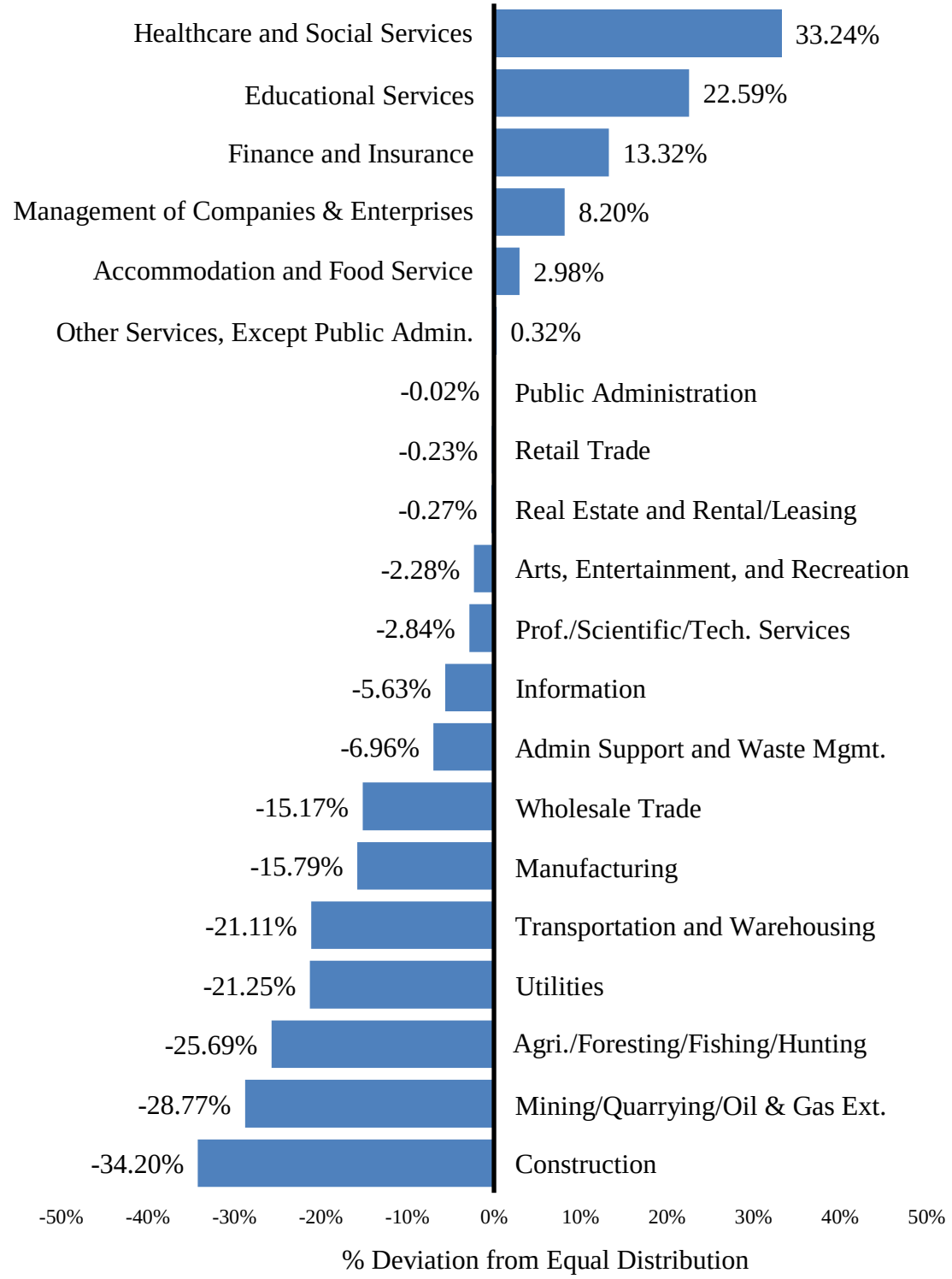

Figure 5. Difference between the Concentration of Female Workers in each Industrial Sector and the Percentage of Female Workers in the Full-Time Employed Labor Force in 2015

Demonstrating continued support for the theories of Zorn (2007) and Cohen (2013), close evaluation of this sample indicates support for the assertion that women tend to cluster together in select fields while men tend to be more evenly dispersed throughout the workforce. The female concentration is higher than the workforce average in only six of the twenty identified sectors, with three showing more than 10% overage from the point of equality. In contrast, fourteen sectors show a lower than average female concentration and the equality differential is greater than 10% in seven of them. Three industries, public administration, retail, and real estate show less than 1% different, indicating nearly equal distribution as compared to the overall population.

As shown here, women continue to be the majority in a relatively small number of industrial sectors. They are most represented in the healthcare, education, and insurance industries but least prominent in construction, mining, and agriculture industries. Interestingly, in 1964, manufacturing, transportation, and utilities were three of the top four industries employing women (U.S. BLS, 2011), but these groups are now far closer to the bottom of the spectrum. Although some researchers might argue that this is a sign that women are gaining more equal representation across industrial sectors, this is an errant claim. Women are not equally dispersing throughout the workforce; they are merely clustering in different fields than they did fifty years ago. This trend is most likely attributed to the drastic changes in societal expectations of women and the education and training opportunities available to them since that time.

When considering the differences in gender preferences, it is also important to point out that men still account for nearly 24% of the industrial sector with the highest concentration of women (healthcare and social services). In contrast, there are five

sectors dominated by men in which women comprise less than 24% of employees. Further, although female employees were once the majority group in the four industries where the concentration of women is most closely matched to that of the overall workforce (other services, public administration, retail, and real estate), the concentration of men is now higher in all four (U.S. BLS, 2011). Men, it seems, are more likely to seek access to female-dominated industries than the reverse. This pattern likely explains why women cluster in a smaller number of groups than their male counterparts.

While this segregation analysis has so far focused on industrial sectors, but Table 9 demonstrates that the same process can be applied to other tiers of the NAICS structure. In this case, the Marginal Matching procedure was used to measure segregation at NAICS levels two and four, which represent the broadest and most detailed tiers of the NAICS structure on an international scope (as a reminder, NAICS-5 codes describe national industries specific to the United States, Mexico, or Canada).

Table 9. Industry-Level 2x2 Marginal Matching Tables for 2015 Full-Time, Year-Round Workers

		Male Workers	*Female Workers*	*Marginal*
Industrial Sector	*Male Ind.*	45,474,406	20,866,994	66,3341,400
	Female Ind.	143,60,371	24,079,039	38,439,410
	Marginal	59,834,777	44,946,033	104,780,810
				MM = 0.2957
NAICS Industry	*Male Ind.*	43,3334,529	27,804,703	60,647,859
	Female Ind.	16,500,248	14,141,330	44,304,951
	Marginal	59,834,777	44,946,033	104,780,810
				MM = 0.3429

As shown here, the *MM* measures of segregation are still relatively low in both the industrial sector and NAICS industry levels, with totals equaling 0.2957 and 0.3429, respectively. Nonetheless, this increase of *MM* from one level to the next shows that women are more likely to work in female-dominated industry groups as they become more specialized. Clustering patterns, then, become more focused as industry titles become more detailed.

Segregation within Occupational Orders and Detailed Occupations

As before, analysis of occupation level segregation begins by examining the most general tier of the SOC structure. In this case, this group consists of the twenty-three principal occupational orders at the top of the SOC hierarchy. Once again, this assessment reviews segregation within the filtered ACS (2017) PUMS sample of all full-time, year-round workers over age 16 in 2015 and uses the female concentration of the full-time workforce (42.9%) as its baseline measure of equality. Figure 6 summarizes data from this sample and illustrates the range of deviation from the point of equality for each occupational order.

Unlike the gender distribution seen at the industry level, men and women appear to be more evenly dispersed across all primary occupational orders. For example, the female concentration is higher than the workforce average in ten of twenty-three orders and lower than average in thirteen. Of great concern, however, is the fact that level of deviation from the point of equality is higher than 10% in sixteen of these groups (seven *female* occupations and nine *male*). These numbers indicate that gender clustering is more pronounced at the higher and lower ends of the occupational spectrum.

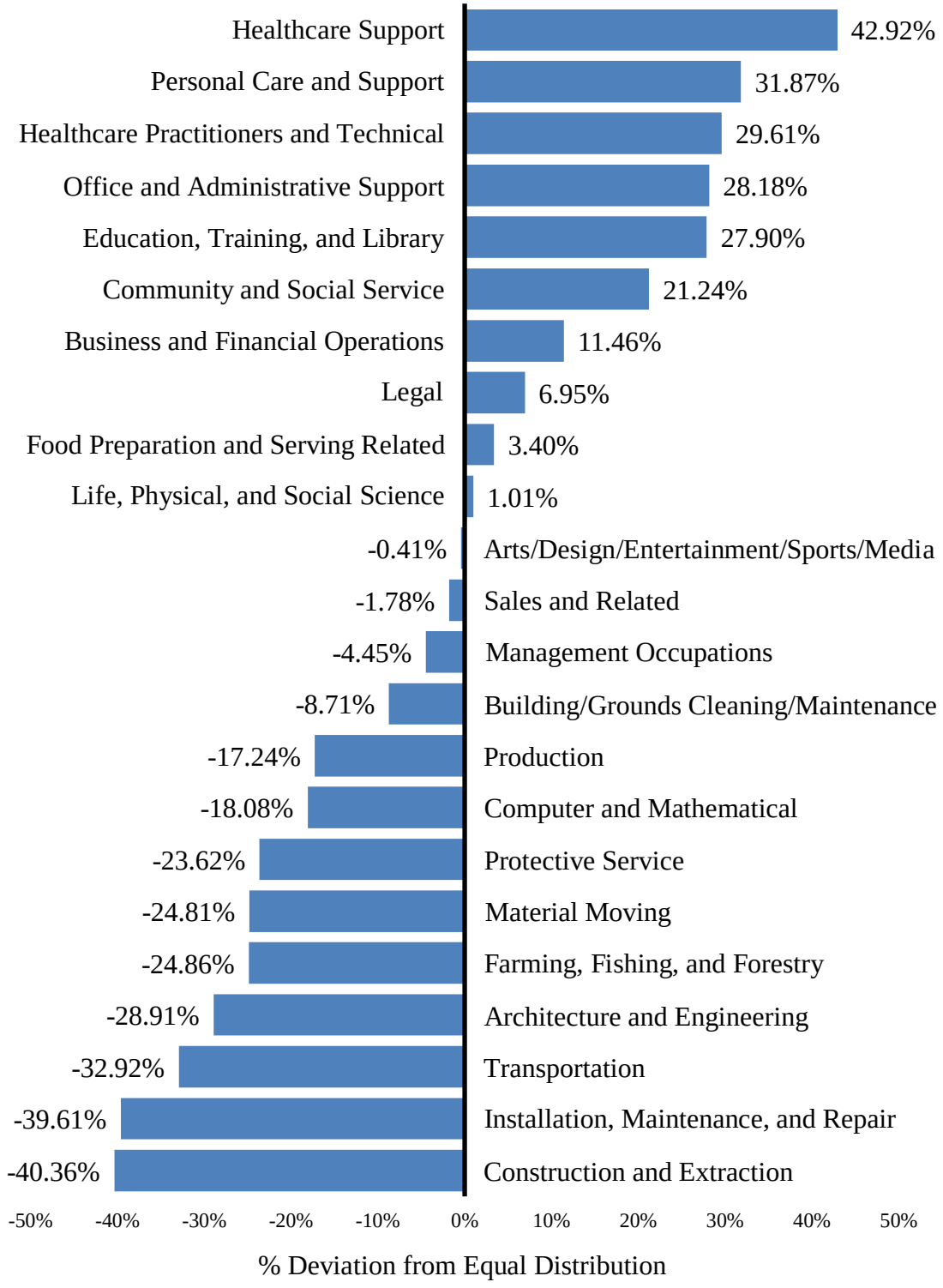

Figure 6. Difference between the Concentration of Female Workers in each Occupational Order and the Percentage of Female Workers in the Full-Time Employed Labor Force in 2015

Although the occupations employing the highest and lowest numbers of women have not shifted dramatically over the last several decades (Blau, Brummund, & Liu, 2013; USCB, 2005; Zorn, 2007), men still appear to be more willing than women to enter groups dominated by members of the opposite gender. In the occupational order with the highest concentration of women (healthcare support), 14% of employees are men. Yet women comprise less than 14% of employees in four categories (architecture/engineering, transportation, maintenance, and construction).

Using the Marginal Matching procedure to assess segregation across SOC occupational orders reveals a higher level of segregation than previously seen in industrial sectors and NAICS industries. Similarly, when moving from analysis of broad occupational orders to the more specific occupational titles (in this case the lowest level of the SOC hierarchy), marginal differences between workers in *male* and *female* occupations continue to become more pronounced. Table 10 summarizes the data used for these two segregation calculations.

Table 10. Occupation-Level 2x2 Marginal Matching Tables for 2015 Full-Time, Year-Round Workers

		Male Workers	*Female Workers*	*Marginal*
Occupational Order	*Male Occ.*	45,078,815	16,008,772	61,087,587
	Female Occ.	14,755,962	28,937,261	43,693,223
	Marginal	59,834,777	44,946,033	104,780,810
				MM = 0.3972
Detailed Occupation	*Male Occ.*	44,108,584	10,940,218	55,048,802
	Female Occ.	15,726,193	34,005,815	49,732,008
	Marginal	59,834,777	44,946,033	104,780,810
				MM = 0.4938

As was the case when reviewing segregation at the industry level, the *MM* values of 0.3972 for segregation within occupational orders and 0.4938 for segregation within detailed SOC occupations are significantly lower than the maximum segregation value of one. The continued increase in these values, however, once again demonstrates that narrowing the scope of analysis produces a unique set of results not seen at higher levels. In each case, more is learned about the sample under review.

Part 2: Quantitative Analysis of Segregation within the Retail Industry

Having established support for the hypothesis that segregation exists at multiple levels of the occupational hierarchy, the focus of research now moves to a thorough analysis of segregation within the retail industry. Konrad and Pfeffer (1991) argue, "The large body of work on the gender and ethnic segmentation of occupations needs to be augmented by attention to segregation among organizations and among positions in an organization" (p. 153). By delving deeply into the retail industry, this study sought to do just that. Additionally, this portion of research tested the theory that the presence or absence of segregation in any one tier of the occupational hierarchy does not necessarily imply the same patterns will be present in adjacent tiers.

While data published by USCB (2005, 2017) and the U.S. EEOC (2015) indicate limited segregation within the retail industry, such limitations at the industrial sector level do not prove that the industry will not be segregated at lower levels. This study, therefore, sought to challenge the misconception of neutrality within the retail workforce. This analysis examined multiple tiers of the occupational hierarchy, including work status, income, occupation, organization, and job title. This study also took a close look at management positions within the retail sector.

Retail Industry Overview

The current investigation used an ACS (2017) PUMS sample filtered to include only individuals over age sixteen who indicated employment in the retail industry between 2010 and 2015. Unfortunately, many ACS respondents did not describe their work using detailed industry or occupation classifications, yielding a significantly smaller sample than that of retail employees identified using basic retail industry sector and occupational order classifications. Given the necessity of detailed descriptors in this research, this study uses a six-year aggregate sample to increase overall sample size and provide a better representation of the retail workforce. Table 11 and Figure 7 provide summary data for this sample.

Table 11. Gender Concentration of Workers within 12 Retail Subsectors from 2011 to 2016

Occupational Order	Total # Employees	# Male Employees	# Female Employees	Female Concentration
Motor Vehicle/Parts Dealers	2144	1617	527	24.58%
Furniture/Home Furnishings Stores	646	315	331	51.24%
Electronics/Appliance Stores	492	307	185	37.60%
Building Material/Garden Equipment Dealers	1633	1069	564	34.54%
Food/Beverage Stores	3254	1525	1729	53.13%
Health/Personal Care Stores	1475	415	1060	71.86%
Gasoline Stations	741	249	492	66.40%
Clothing/Clothing Accessories Stores	1486	298	1188	79.95%
Sporting Goods/Hobby, Musical Instrument/Book Stores	804	332	472	58.71%
General Merchandise Stores	4221	1488	2733	64.75%
Miscellaneous Store Retailers	1807	643	1164	64.42%
Non-Store Retailers	489	247	242	49.49%
Total Sample	**19,192**	**8,505**	**10,687**	**55.68%**

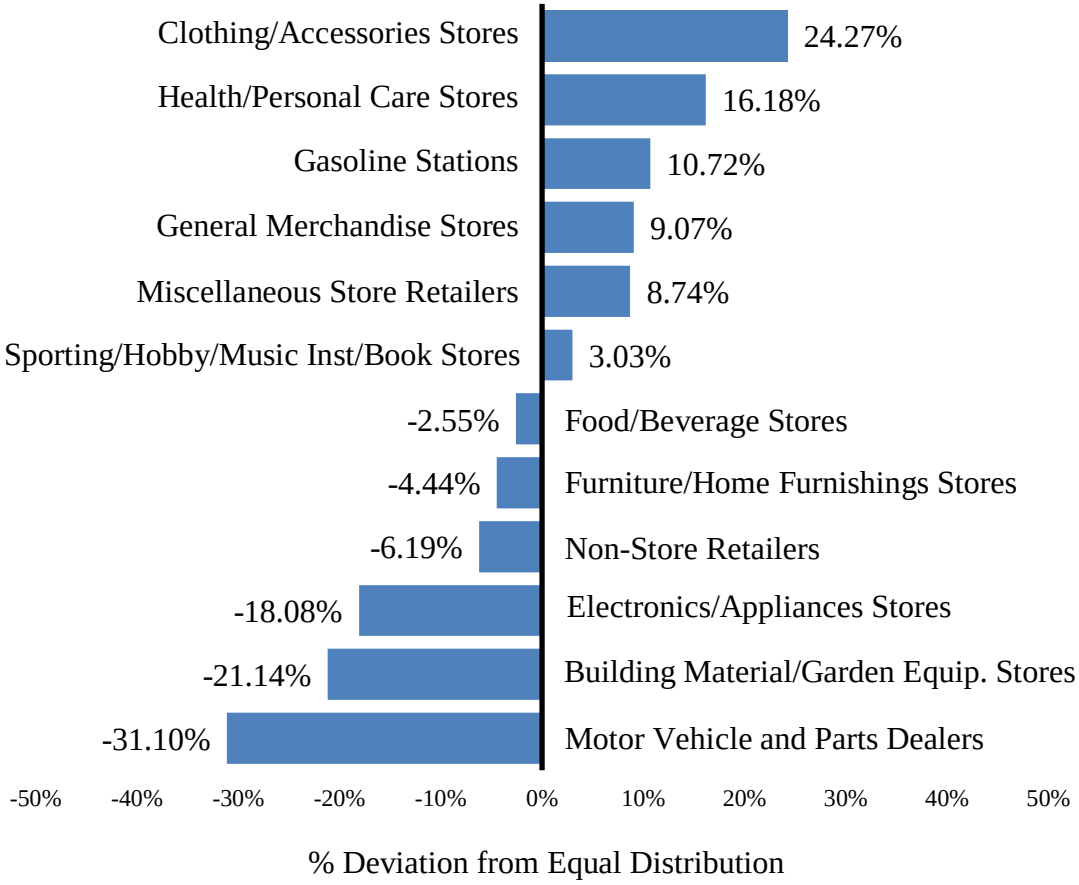

Figure 7. Difference between the Concentration of Female Workers in each Industry Subsector and the Percentage of Female Workers in Retail Industry from 2011 to 2016

Because previous findings indicated limited fluctuation in *MM* segregation measures between 2010 and 2015, it is not believed that using a multi-year study will inaccurately vary data comparisons between the overall workforce and that of the retail industry in this case. Further, because the Marginal Matching procedure controls of sex composition (Siltanen et al., 1995), results should not be skewed by the fact that the female concentration of this sample (55.68%) is higher than the national average of retail workers (49.05%).

In support of employment statistic reports published by the USCB (2005) and the EEOC (2015), the preliminary findings detailed in Table 11 demonstrate a relatively even distribution of male and female workers between the twelve subsectors of the retail industry while Figure 7 indicates that an even number of retail subsectors can be classified as *male* or *female*. As shown, certain subsectors are clearly dominated by either men or women, but the overall deviation from the point of equality is substantially lower in this sample compared to that of the overall workforce. Even in the sector with the highest concentration of male workers (motor vehicle and parts dealers), women still account for nearly 75% of employees. Likewise, men comprise almost 20% of the sector with the highest concentration of female workers (clothing and accessory stores). In comparison to the gender-clustering patterns observed in the twenty-three primary industry sectors and twenty occupations reviewed previously, these results suggest that gender-clustering patterns are not as clearly defined in this sample.

Conducting a Marginal Matching segregation analysis of this group using both industry subsectors and detailed industry listings also reveals limited segregation in each level, as shown in Table 12. As seen in previous comparisons between broad and detailed categories, *MM* values continue to increase as groups become more specialized, although the difference here is minimal. Nevertheless, a sample of Industry Sub-Sector data published by the U.S. Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (U.S. EEOC, 2015) suggests the importance of sample size comparison between groups.

The research of Konrad and Pfeffer (1991) indicates that smaller groups are more prone to appearances of segregation than are larger groups. Here, adding a third 2x2 Marginal Matching table summarizing data from the U.S. EEOC (2015)

corroborates this argument. Narrowing the sample pool in this case increases the *MM* measure by eight basis points, indicating that using the largest available sample likely provides the most accurate results. As a result, further points of analysis will utilize varied samples, based on the level of detail necessary to study the topic in question.

Table 12. 2x2 Marginal Matching Tables for Two Samples of Retail Workers

		Male Workers	*Female Workers*	*Marginal*
Industrial	*Male Sec.*	5,080	3,578	8,658
Sub-Sector	*Female Sec.*	3,425	7,109	10,534
	Marginal	8,505	10,687	19,192
				MM = 0.2625
Detailed	*Male Ind.*	5,372	3,783	9,155
Industry	*Female Ind.*	3,133	6,904	10,037
	Marginal	8,505	10,687	19,192
				MM = 0.2776
EEOC	*Male Ind.*	2,422,182	1,797,845	3,596,483
Industry	*Female Ind.*	1,408,290	2,188,193	4,220,027
Estimates	*Marginal*	3,830,472	3,986,038	7,816,510
				MM = 0.1813

Work Status and Income

Unlike the overall U.S. workforce, which heavily favors full-time labor, the retail industry is far more balanced in terms of work status. Within this employment sector, approximately 41% of employees work less than 35 hours per week, while 59% average more than 35 hours weekly (ACS, 2017). Figure 8 summarizes the gender distribution of full- and part-time workers in the retail industry.

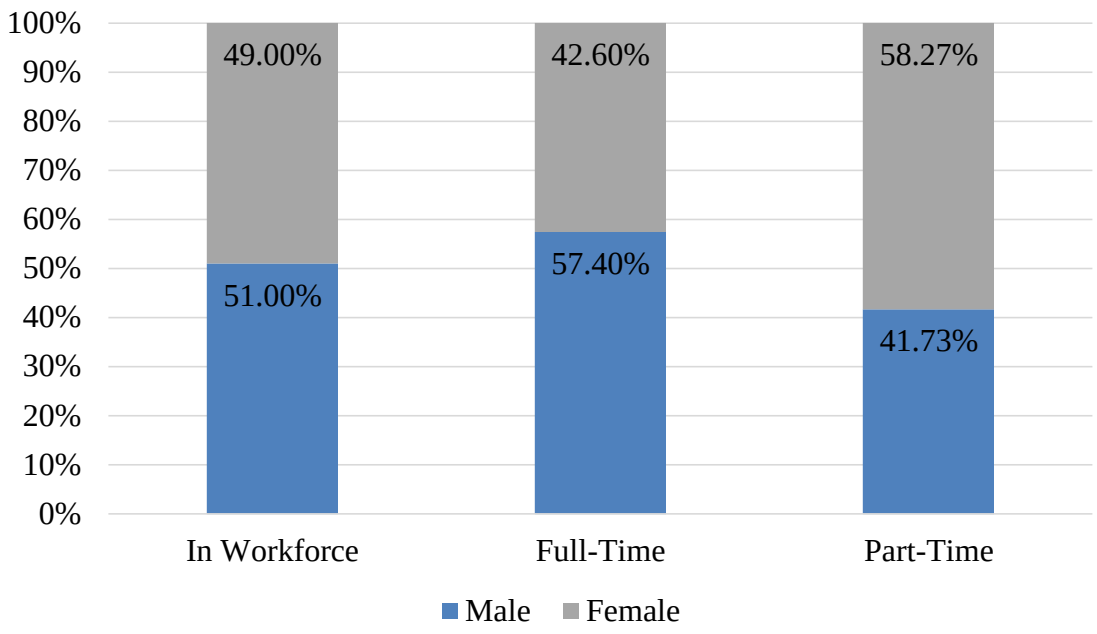

Figure 8. Distribution of Full-Time and Part-Time Workers in Retail Workforce

While many workers do express a preference for working part-time, Manley and Sawbridge (as cited in Sparks, 1982) argue that this arrangement primarily benefits the employing organization:

> Part-time work mainly exists to suit employers, rather than to produce a more varied range of employment opportunities for workers, and especially for women. Employers' reason for taking on part-time workers […] almost always relates to the difficulty of getting full-time workers or to peak load needs. (p. 19)

Similarly, Chang and Travaglione (2012) state that "casual" employers like retail companies benefit by using part-time job openings as "try-outs for full-time positions" (p. 319). Many employers also offer higher pay and better benefits to full-time workers, adding an extra economic incentive to the practice of utilizing more part-time labor within an organization (Benson, 2015; Blackburn et al., 1995; Broadbridge, 2010). Such arrangements typically disadvantage women, whom Brockbank and Airey (1994) assert

are more likely to accept "inferior terms and conditions as [they] strive to accommodate their traditional child-care and domestic obligations" (p. 2).

Interestingly, Sparks (1992) notes that men are more likely to enter fields dominated by women in times of economic recession and higher unemployment rates. Specifically, he describes retail as a "last resort sector, where jobs are available if all else fails" (p. 15). This, unfortunately, begs the question: why do men working in retail earn significantly more than women in the same field do? According to recent ACS (2016) estimates, female retail employees earn 67.8% of the wages accrued by their male counterparts. This is 4.2% lower than the national average wage comparison of 72.0%. Clearly, the distribution of part-time and full-time labor contributes to this trend. Research also suggests that this discrepancy relates to the type of work than men and women do within the retail industry (Broadbridge, 2007, 2010; Chang & Travaglione, 2012; Chung, Rutherford, & Park, 2012), as will be discussed in the following sections.

Occupational Classifications of Retail Workers

The U.S. BLS (2016) identifies five detailed occupations that comprise the majority of retail employees, but estimates as many as 630 detailed occupations are included within the industry as a whole. The five primary retail occupations are cashiers, retail salespersons, customer service representatives, stock clerks and order fillers, and first-line supervisors of retail sales workers. Cashiers are individuals who process payments from individuals who are purchasing goods or services within a retail store. Retail salespersons assist customers in retail stores with the objective of selling merchandise or services. Customer service representatives are those who interact with customers in retail stores to assist with locating merchandise, providing information

about products, and handling customer complaints. Stock clerks and order fillers receive and unpack merchandise received in store locations. Typically, they are also responsible for placing merchandise in the stock room or on the sales floor and for moving products from the stock room to fill store shelves as needed. Finally, first-line supervisors of retail sales workers are individuals who direct and supervise activities of workers within retail establishments. These positions also involve additional responsibilities relating to financial performance and personnel concerns (O-Net, 2017; U.S. BLS, 2017b). Figure 9 details the gender distribution of each of these retail occupations according to USCB (2017) data.

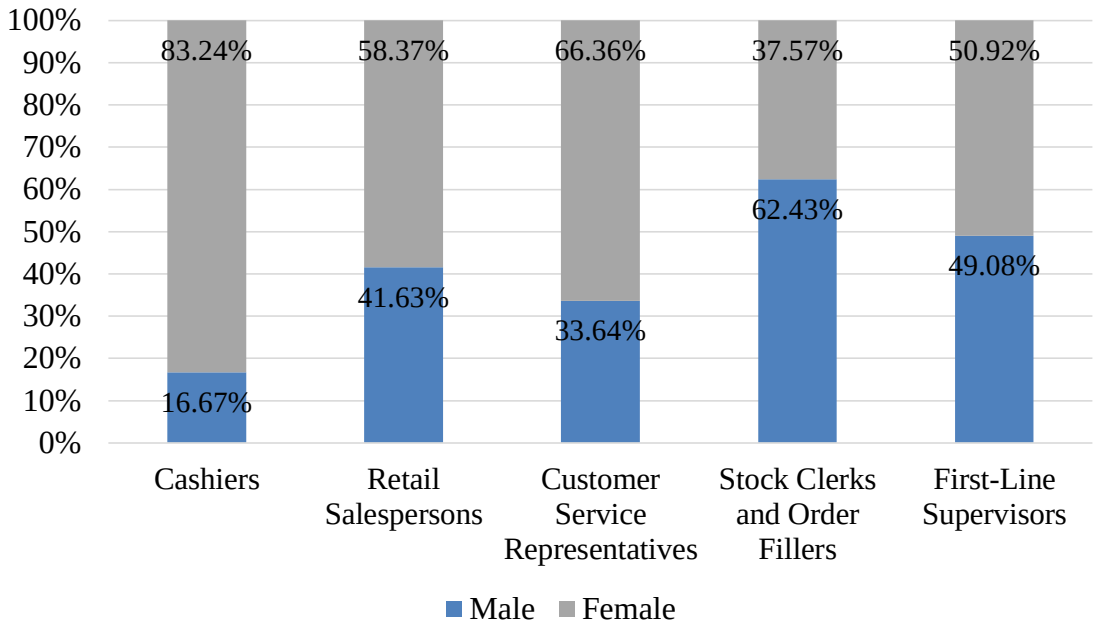

Figure 9. Distribution of Male and Female Workers in Top Five Retail Occupations

Using the Marginal Matching procedure to analyze segregation of these five primary retail occupations within the filtered PUMS sample (ACS, 2017) reveals a slightly higher measure of segregation than found when analyzing industry categories of the same group. Increasing the analysis to include all detailed SOC occupations (273

individual titles) identified in the sample, however, increases the segregation measure substantially. Table 13 provides an overview of the marginal matching process for both of these groups. Unfortunately, in this instance, no larger samples reporting detailed SOC occupations of retail employees could be found to use as a comparison for sample size.

Table 13. 2x2 Marginal Matching Tables for Filtered Sample of Retail Workers, 2011 to 2015

		Male Workers	*Female Workers*	*Marginal*
Major	*Male Occ.*	2,549	2,232	4,781
Occupation	*Female Occ.*	2,295	5,142	7,437
Categories	*Marginal*	4,844	7,374	12,218
				MM = 0.2235
All Detailed	*Male Occ.*	5,759	3,208	8,967
Occupations	*Female Occ.*	2,746	7,479	10,225
	Marginal	8,505	10,687	19,192
				MM = 0.3770

Obtaining a higher *MM* value when including all detailed occupations indicated that segregation levels might be significantly higher if cashiers, retail salespersons, customer service representatives, stock clerks and order fillers, and first-line supervisors of retail sales workers were removed from consideration. To test this hypothesis, a third segregation analysis was conducted comparing all detailed occupations *except* these five occupations. Table 14 summarizes the findings of this analysis. As anticipated, the *MM* value of this third test, equaling 0.5956 was much higher than the previous two. These comparisons indicate that the high percentage of workers in these five categories and the comparable gender concentrations between them are enough to alter the appearance

of gender segregation within the industry as a whole considerably. Based on these findings, it seems fair to state that the presumed neutrality of the retail industry is based, in large part, on the neutrality of a select few groups.

Table 14. 2x2 Marginal Matching Table for Filtered Sample of Retail Workers, Excluding Top 5 Occupations

		Male Workers	*Female Workers*	*Marginal*
Major	*Male Occ.*	3,060	796	3,856
Occupation	*Female Occ.*	601	2,517	3,118
Categories	*Marginal*	3,661	3,313	6,974
				MM = 0.5956

Leadership Positions in the Retail Industry

Catalyst (2017) estimates that women account for 42.6% of first and mid-level managers, 37.7% of executive and senior-level managers, and only 8.6% of retail company CEOs. Correspondingly, Broadbridge (2007) argues that women are "disproportionately underrepresented in managerial positions, particularly senior positions" (p. 956). Given that supervisory positions often result in higher income, this comparison could also explain the skewed income levels between male and female retail professionals. Consider, for instance, that top executives are estimated to earn $104,000 annually, while cashiers and other retail sales workers average between $23,000 and $28,000 a year (U.S. BLS, 2017b). This section of analysis seeks to address the question of female representation in retail management positions in greater detail.

The SOC identifies thirty primary management occupations, as well as sixteen categories of first-line supervisors within specific industries. Within the filtered ACS (2017) sample of retail workers, 3675 individuals were classified using fifteen unique

management titles, including first-line supervisors of retail sales workers. Table 15 provides a summary of the gender concentration data for this sample. As shown, first-line supervisors make up the most significant percentage of this group, accounting for over 88% of individuals in retail management positions. The next largest group, general and operations managers, comprises only 2.7% of retail managers.

Table 15. Gender Concentration of Workers within 15 Management Occupations from 2011 to 2016

Occupational Order	Total # Employees	# Male Employees	# Female Employees	Female Concentration
Food Service Managers	1	0	1	100.00%
Social & Community Service Managers	1	0	1	100.00%
Human Resources Managers	43	8	35	81.40%
Purchasing Managers	7	2	5	71.43%
Financial Managers	50	23	27	54.00%
First Line Supervisors of Retail Salespersons	3264	1602	1662	50.92%
Marketing and Sales Managers	74	39	35	47.30%
Industrial Production Managers	5	3	2	40.00%
Chief Executives & Legislators	73	51	22	30.14%
General & Operations Managers	99	71	28	28.28%
Computer & IT Managers	11	8	3	27.27%
Transportation & Distribution Managers	39	34	5	12.82%
Administrative Service Managers	4	4	0	0.00%
Training and Development Managers	2	2	0	0.00%
Construction Managers	2	2	0	0.00%
Total Sample	**3,675**	**1,849**	**1,826**	**49.69%**

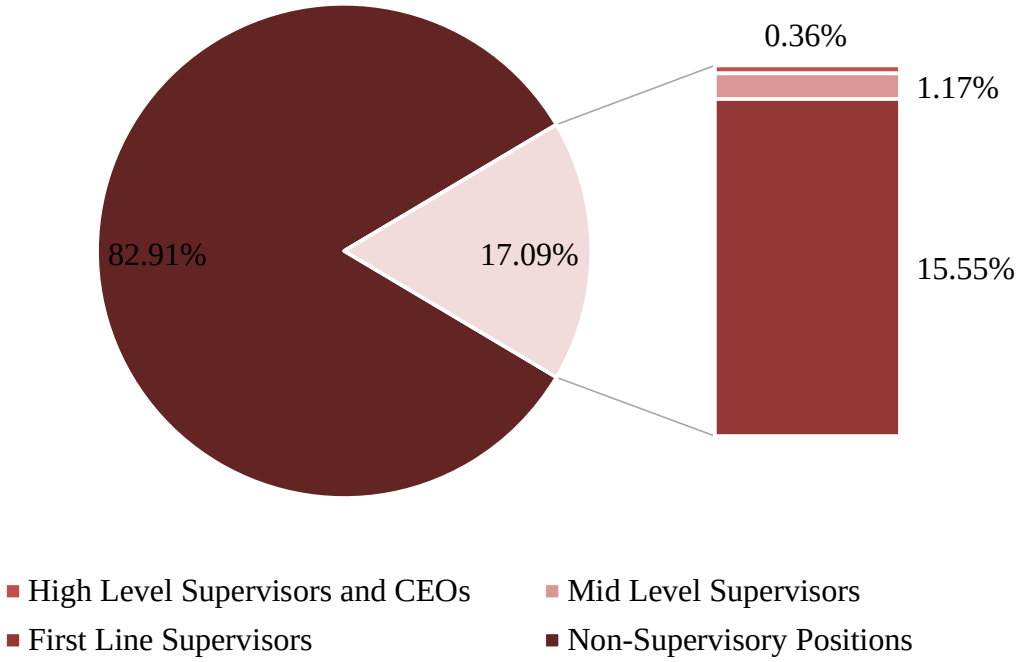

Figure 10. Management Distribution of Female Workers in Filtered Sample of Retail Workers, 2011 to 2015

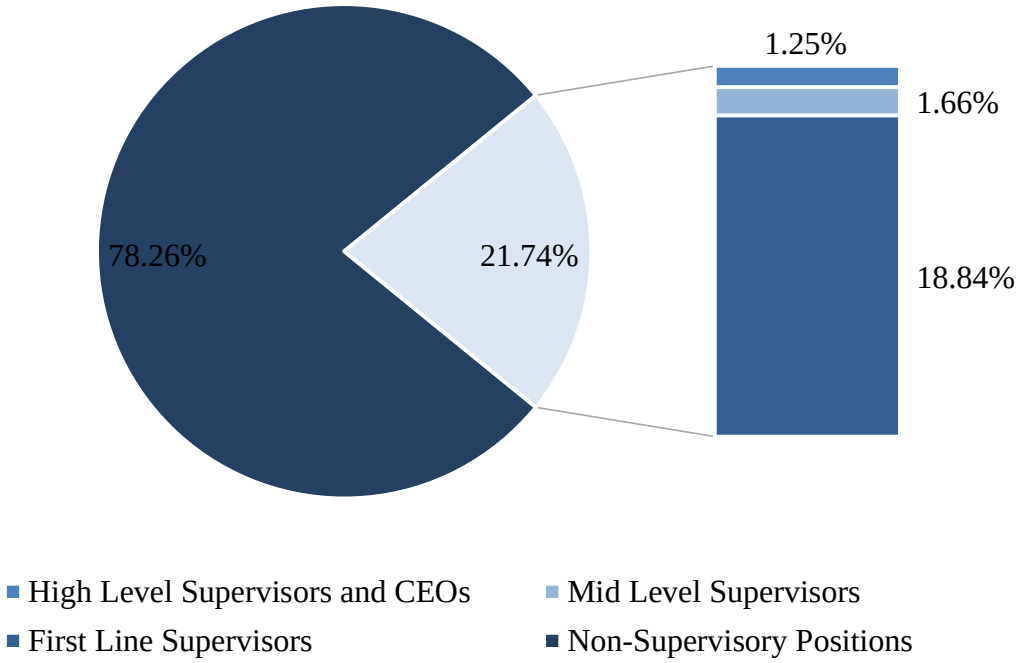

Figure 11. Management Distribution of Male Workers in Filtered Sample of Retail Workers, 2011 to 2015

Figures 10 and 11 demonstrate the distribution of male and female workers in retail management positions, based upon position rankings described by the U.S. BLS (2017). While 15.55% of women in leadership positions in this sample were classified as first-line supervisors, they did not account for even half a percent of high-level managers and chief executives. In contrast, 18.84% of men in leadership positions were first-line supervisors, while 1.25% reported being in high or executive level retail management positions. These findings illustrate support for many researchers who note discrepancies between the type of supervisory positions held by men and women (Broadbridge, 2007, 2010; Chang & Travaglione, 2012; Huang & Gamble, 2015).

Based on findings from the segregation analysis of retail groups, the decision was made to analyze retail management occupations using a similar method of removing the occupation most likely to skew data. As anticipated, the *MM* segregation measure for the entire sample was significantly lower than that of the sample excluding first-line supervisors from consideration. Table 16 summarizes procedure.

Table 16. 2x2 Marginal Matching Tables for Filtered Sample of Retail Workers, Including and Excluding First-Line Supervisors

		Male Workers	*Female Workers*	*Marginal*
All	*Male Occ.*	214	95	309
Management	*Female Occ.*	1,635	1,731	3,366
Categories	*Marginal*	1,849	1,826	3,675
				MM = 0.0637
Management				
Excluding	*Male Occ.*	172	58	230
First-Line	*Female Occ.*	75	106	181
Supervisors	*Marginal*	247	164	411
				MM = 0.3427

In this case, an *MM* segregation value of 0.0637 implies that segregation within the sample containing all management categories was almost non-existent. Meanwhile, the *MM* value of 0.3427 identified within the second test indicates a moderate level of segregation. Once again, it appears as though the supposed equal representation of male and female employees is improperly biased based on one large occupational group.

Part 3: Qualitative Analysis of Segregation within the Retail Industry

Stereotypes and Bias in the Retail Industry

Vignette 1. *Amanda began her retail career as a cashier for a large general merchandise retailer and worked for the same company throughout college. For four years, she worked primarily on the front end of the store, promoting from cashier to customer service associate to customer service manager. After college, she chose to pursue a job with a different retail organization. "When I applied for the job, it was just a basic front end position -- that's what I was used to. And then a couple of questions into the interview, they interrupted me and said I was interviewing for the wrong position. I was shocked, but they explained that they were also hiring for two department manager positions and I should be considered for one of them."*

According to Amanda, one of the two positions was in Apparel and Accessories, while the other was for Toys, Sporting Goods, and Pets. She was not asked where she preferred to work, but recalled feeling that the hiring managers "assigned me to fashions just because I am female even though I loathed fashions and told them so." Amanda admitted that she eventually came to enjoy working in apparel, but that did not stop her from applying to transfer when a management position opened up in the electronics department. "I'm a nerd at heart. I loved the idea of being able to say my

job was keeping up with the latest gadgets and games." When considering these first two positions, Amanda chuckled. "Many people think I'm weird because I work in the areas usually filled by guys and I enjoy it. But I don't care if people think it's weird. I like what I like and so what if I'm an anomaly."

Vignette 2. *Prior to being promoted to his current role as a sales floor department manager, Mitch worked for Amanda in the electronics department. When asked if he had ever felt as though he was treated differently at work because of his gender, he recalled a specific incident that had occurred a few years earlier. "I just happened to walk by the electronics counter, and Amanda was helping an older man with a stereo system. I knew from being in the area that she'd been with him a while, but when I passed, he grabbed my arm and said he had questions he needed help with. I couldn't believe it when he started asking me the same questions I was sure Amanda had already answered – basic stuff about features and how to connect it. I started to answer politely but thought to myself how stupid it was for this guy to waste our time. So I just looked at him and said 'Man, that's my boss. She knows way more about this stuff than I do so it's better for you to take her word for it.' The look on his face was fantastic. I figured it served him right for thinking I knew more about speakers just because I'm a man."*

Participant Perceptions of Retail Work. Despite the growing number of men entering the retail industry over the past decade, retail has long been considered to be "women's work" (Schechner, 2003, p. 5). This descriptor is attributed to the feminization of customer service work. Service workers, by definition, are expected to be friendly, courteous, and sensitive to customers' needs. Women, therefore, are

expected to excel in this industry (Broadbridge, 2007; Chang & Travaglione, 2012; Schechner, 2003). Likewise, Chang and Travaglione (2011) note that women are expected to better and cleaning and merchandising, so they are well suited for maintaining a welcoming store presentation.

Overall, these expectations about the nature of service work do not appear to be changing over time. Instead, it appears that job-tiles and roles within the retail industry are evolving to fit the influx of male employees. Consider the fact that non-customer-facing areas, such as receiving, loss prevention, and building maintenance, tend to be increasingly staffed by men. As another example, one national retailer recently adjusted the job-titles of all managers so that leaders are now classified as either *Service* managers, *Support* managers, or *Sales* managers. Clearly, these titles are designed to differentiate the performance expectations and focus areas for individuals in these roles far more than the previously used *Assistant Store Manager* title. Nonetheless, it seems relevant to point out the connection between these specific titles and agentic or communal stereotypes.

During her interview, Amanda touched on the fact that many retail employees have expectations regarding what types of jobs men and women do within the retail industry. In fact, while completing the Retail Professionals Survey, several individuals noted observing trends or patterns similar to those identified in Chapter 2. For example, five participants commented that women are more likely to be cashiers or work in customer service areas. Another six participants remarked that women commonly work in apparel and accessories departments, while five indicated that men tend to work in other sales floor areas (such as electronics, automotive, sporting goods, or lawn and

garden). Human resources (HR) and logistics/freight flow were also mentioned by five participants each as being strongly divided store areas, with HR being predominantly women and logistics primarily men. Three participants remarked observing that men are more likely to fill store manager roles while females more commonly fill department manager positions, a trend which is supported by employment data.

Favorable Bias. Foster (2004) contends that many retail sectors are becoming gendered, meaning "the products they sell have stereotypical male connotations, such as car sales or men's fashion, or stereotypical female associations like cosmetic sales and ladies' fashion" (p. 443). Customers inherently expect that male employees will know more about masculine products and vice-versa. As a result, the gender concentration of employees in these sectors is adapting to reflect these beliefs. In support of this theory, Chang and Travaglione (2012) suggest that female customers shopping for clothing, maternity, and childcare products expected to receive better customer service from female employees. Furthermore, both Foster (2004) and Sparks (as cited by Chang & Travaglione, 2012) found that male customers shopping in home improvement stores preferred to seek advice from male employees due to perceptions that they would have more technical knowledge than their female counterparts.

Mitch's story indicates that he received a higher level of respect from his customer due to his gender. In Mitch's opinion, the customer valued his insight simply because he was male and incorrectly assumed that his gender meant he had knowledge of electronics. Another retail professional reported a similar bias towards females in regards to clothing. She stated, "People assumed that I knew more about certain items. And shoppers often seem more inclined to seek a woman's input on clothes or shoes

than a man's." Of course, retail customers are not the only parties guilty of making favorable assumptions based on gender stereotypes. Amanda's original placement in the apparel and accessories department, for instance, reflects that employers also have the potential to make biased hiring decisions based on gendered perceptions. In her case, Amanda directly countered her interviewer's assumptions by saying she hated fashion but was still placed in the more female-oriented leadership role.

To test Foster's theory of gendered products, study participants who completed the Retail Recruitment survey were asked a series of questions relating to product knowledge. In each, they were directed to choose which type of product they knew the most about or would feel the most comfortable trying to sell in a retail environment. Figure 12 illustrates the percentage of males and females to select each product type. Endorsing Foster's argument, women expressed a higher preference or aptitude towards 'feminine' products, such as women's apparel, health and beauty products, housewares, jewelry, and craft supplies. Men, on the other hand, showed a higher affinity towards 'masculine' products, including men's apparel, outdoor power equipment, tools, and plumbing or electrical repair. These findings also support the conclusions drawn by Antecol and Cobb-Clark (2013) and Schechner (2003). In this case, men and women appear more likely to pursue careers in retail environments that are considered more suitable for their gender based on product selection.

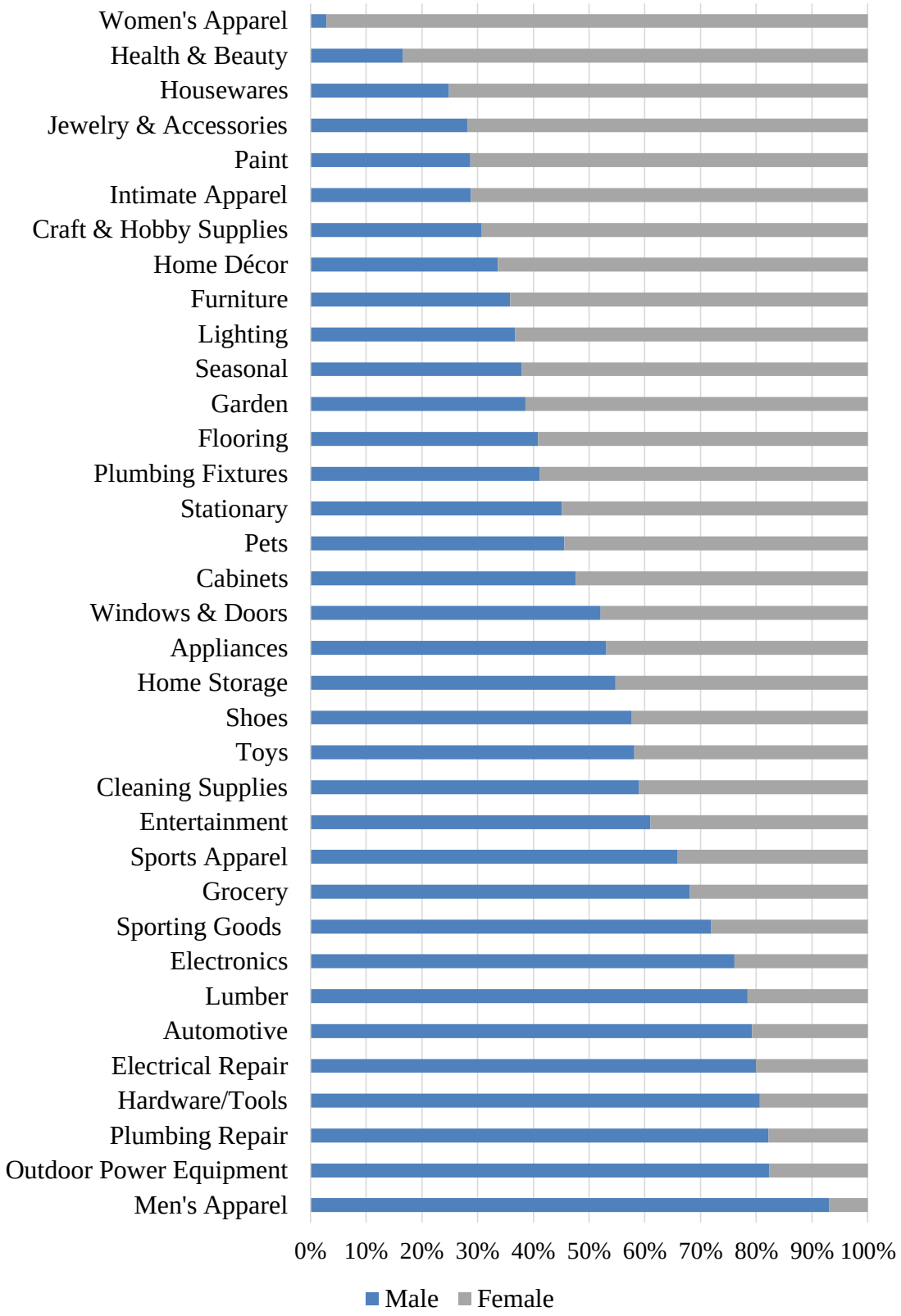

Figure 12. Gendered Preferences towards Retail Product Categories

Discrimination. Almost every industry has reported cases of gender discrimination, and retail is no exception. In existing research, most of the focus on gender discrimination in retail relates to issues of skill and leadership potential. According to Chang and Travaglione (2012), "[Retail] positions occupied by women have been reported to be lower paying, of lower status, and offer few advancement opportunities" (p. 317). Broadbridge (2007) comments, "while [women] comprise the majority of front-line service workers, they are disproportionately underrepresented in managerial positions, particularly senior positions" (p. 956). Women in retail commonly cite outdated gender stereotypes as a barrier to advancement. Retail management requires a certain level of agency, and many (be they higher-level supervisors, customers, or even subordinates) continue to question whether women have what it takes to succeed in these roles (Broadbridge, 2007; Catalyst, 2004; Eagly & Carli, 2007; Rhode & Kellerman, 2007).

Somewhat surprisingly, none of the retail professionals who participated in this study mentioned gender discrimination by their employer. One interviewee, whose story will be discussed in more detail later, discussed being afraid of potential discrimination because she was pregnant, but later confirmed that she never experienced it. Another survey participant focused on describing discrimination from the individuals who worked for her. She commented, "There are two female managers in this store. And if you ask any of our employees, [she]'s the *nice* one and I'm the *mean* one. But the truth is, I think I am nice. I'm just not as *touchy-feely* as she is. For the longest time, this store was a 'boys club,' and I felt like I had to act like one of them to fit in. But now that there is another woman around, people always seem to be comparing us."

As demonstrated by Mitch's interview, most references to discrimination from the sample of retail professionals related to customer interactions. Mitch's case demonstrates that for every instance of favorable bias for being the 'right' gender, there is an equal opportunity for discrimination for the 'wrong' one. Although Amanda did not mention the electronics incident during her interview, when asked to confirm Mitch's account, she smiled and said, "There are tons of customers who don't take me seriously because I'm female. It used to bug me but it's happened more times than I can count, so I'm over it." In survey responses, Amanda was not alone in discussing jokes made at her expense. One female remarked, "In the automotive store I always had men ask me to look up fake parts then laugh about it." In contrast, a former male retail employee stated, "I briefly worked at a lingerie store in the mall. I got tired of overhearing people snickering when they walked in and taking bets on whether I was gay or just using the job to pick up girls."

Unfortunately, several female participants in this study shared similar stories relating to having their skills and abilities questioned by male customers. One commented, "At the service desk, middle-aged men would always involve one of my male co-workers if they didn't like an answer I'd given them. Luckily, I had great co-workers who would always back me up because I don't just arbitrarily decide to be difficult. I always had a reason for saying no, but it was frustrating to have to be validated by a man." Another individual, a cashier, recalled "an instance counting back change where two men asked if girls knew how to count." Likewise, several other individuals mentioned customers who asked to speak with "the real manager," "another

supervisor," and even "the man in charge" in their discussions of being treated differently based on gender.

Sexuality. Although not directly relating to gender stereotypes, views relating to sexuality do contribute to gender bias (Chang & Travaglione, 2012; C. Crittenden & Wright, 2012). Further, enough study participants made comments relating to the topic to validate its relevance within this discussion. Typically, sexuality enters the retail workspace in one of two forms, either as a means of gaining a personal/professional benefit or as a method of distinguishing between men and women through disparaging or derogatory comments and behaviors.

Hochschild (2003) points out that sexuality can be a benefit when workers use it "to enhance the status of the customer and entice further sales by their friendliness" (p. 16). Chang and Travaglione (2012) expand on this thought by pointing out that women are far more likely to work in men's clothing than the reverse because having "female staff serving male customers can imply a degree of sexualization associated with their roles" (p. 318). To this end, several study participants specifically mentioned initiating flirting behaviors to their benefit while at work. When asked to describe any benefits associated with being a female retail employee, one person replied, "There are always benefits to being female in any situation." Another female discussed using "an extra smile or the touch of the arm" to influence co-workers into helping lift heavy boxes or reach product on high shelves. No males offered comments that related to this topic.

Not all study participants appear to agree with the practice of using sexuality for personal gain, however. According to one woman, "I hate to admit it, but sometimes yes, it is beneficial to 'turn on the charm' and make a difficult customer believe you

think the world of them just to get rid of them or keep them from making a scene. I die a little inside while doing it though." Another argued, "I have encountered women utilizing their sexuality to advance their career […], and it sickened me." Two male participants felt that not being a "flirty female" was a disadvantage in some situations. One commented that simply being a man meant, "I have to pull more pallets and lift heavier boxes." Another felt that women who worked for male supervisors were often shown favoritism and had less accountability for job performance. These last comments, it should be noted, could be based on actual experiences or they could stem from inherently biased suppositions.

Sexuality is far from advantageous in all situations, as is the case for victims of sexual harassment. Eagly and Carli (2007) denote sexual harassment as occasions "when a person is offered rewards for sexual favors, punished for refusing to provide such favors, or subjected to unwanted sexual behavior that interferes with his or her job" (p. 108). Of the research participants who mentioned sexuality in their surveys or interviews, only one made a complaint of "the boss hitting on me," a practice which she described as both "unethical" and "kind of gross." Several others, however, did relay accounts of being the victim of inappropriate conduct at work. Multiple participants mentioned requests for dates or phone numbers from customers.

Regrettably, not all instances of inappropriate conduct from retail customers are as innocuous as a request to share phone numbers. One female recalled a customer asking, "Doesn't that come with a free kiss? That's the only reason I bought it." Another remarked, "As a cashier, I felt like men would joke about getting stuff for free more often than women would, like they were trying to flirt. I never heard a male

customer say to a male cashier 'You know you want to give me that for free,' but I got similar comments all the time." Demonstrating a surprising amount of candor, one retail manager commented,

> My company has this customer service hotline where people can call corporate to complain about their experiences shopping in our stores. That's all fine and dandy, but I really believe that they should develop an employee service hotline too. If customers can complain when I'm not friendly enough, then I should be able to complain when they are too friendly. I don't know how many times a day I get called *sugar* or *honey* or *sweetie* – and that's not ok. I've worked hard to get where I am, and it has nothing to do with being someone's *baby doll*. I deserve the same amount of respect as my male counterparts.

Ironically, one male participant commented that a benefit of being a male in his position as a gas station clerk was "I don't have to deal with as many creepy/horny drunks."

The Retail Professional's Quest for Work-Life Balance

Vignette 4. "*When reflecting on my career in retail, there is one tiny detail that shames me more than anything else. Do you want to know what it is? …I lied to get my first job." Sarah's lie, it turns out, was omitting the fact that she was eight weeks pregnant when asked if she had any scheduling requests or vacation plans that should be taken into consideration when assessing her application. "Of course I knew that I would need to take maternity leave in a few months, but I tried to keep that from my boss for as long as possible. If I didn't get the job, I wanted to be sure that it was because I wasn't the best candidate, instead of it being an extra side effect of my current medical condition."*

Even after being offered the job, Sarah felt nervous about telling her immediate supervisors that she was expecting her first child. "I waited until I was certain that I could no longer hide my increasing waistline behind my apron before I broke the news. And then I couldn't believe my boss's reaction. Would you believe he actually squealed a bit and gave me a hug? He didn't ask me about missing work at all. He just wanted to know if it was a boy or a girl and if we'd picked out a name yet. I couldn't believe my luck. Of course, looking back now, I don't think that should be taken as luck at all, just an example of how employers should treat pregnant women."

Vignette 5. "*Tanks daddy. I wuv you. I'm poud of you daddy."*

This is the dialogue from a video clip played at an award ceremony at work recognizing Jacob for being a "Hero at Home." Jacob is twenty-two years old and has worked for his current employer for slightly over three years. In that time, he has been promoted four times, moving from his initial position as a seasonal loader to his current role as a customer service manager. As demonstrated by the words of his two-year-old daughter Gabby, work is not Jacob's only area of expertise – he's also a "petty good dad." Not to be overshadowed by his little girl, Jacob accepted his award with the following announcement: "Hey, if you guys think she's cute, just wait until you see mini-me #2, arriving in theaters (or at least the local hospital) this November."

When asked about how he balances everything on his plate, Jacob replied, "I just do what needs to be done. Right now, I'm working a lot. I'm enjoying the overtime I'm getting because it helps pay for our new house. When I go home, I'm either experiencing the joys of being a first-time homeowner (hooray for leaky faucets and broken toilets) or helping my wife with baby prep." Jacob's wife has not worked in the

time since Gabby was born, and Jacob personally appears to be proud of the fact that she doesn't need to. "Right now [she] is happy being a full-time mom, and I'm happy that my work provides enough for our family that she can do so. She may decide to pursue her own career in a year or two, but that will be her decision."

A Mother's Choice. Motherhood, as discussed, is a major responsibility that can have many implications for women, both personally and professionally. Crittenden (2010) argues that modern women have three true choices when considering the decision to have children. First, there is the ultimatum approach of choosing either a career *or* a family. In this scenario, women buy into the belief that it is only possible to be successful in one of these realms, so they are forced to choose between the two. Second, there is the "*job then family*" (p. 33) tactic, wherein women enter the workforce initially but drop out after the birth of their first child. Finally, the "*family then job*" (p. 33) method encourages women to enter the workforce only after their children are grown.

Although Crittenden's initial discussion of these patterns was based on three generations of women graduating between 1910 and 1933, it is remarkable to consider how the behaviors and decisions of many women continue to fall in line with them. Men, however, seem far less likely to face this dilemma. In a study recap by Rhode and Kellerman (2007), they reported that in a survey of 3,000 high-achieving professionals, 40% of women reported leaving the workforce for family reasons at some point in their careers, and another 40% reported pursuing a job with fewer responsibilities and less pay in order to accommodate family responsibilities. Meanwhile, only 10% of men in the sample reported work interference resulting from family. In a related study

comparing the careers of 948 senior-level managers, Catalyst (2004) found that women in high-power positions were more likely to choose not to have children (27% compared to 3% of men) or to postpone having children (20% compared to 10% of men).

During her interview, Amanda referred to herself as a "career workaholic," claiming that she had not given much thought to having children while in her twenties because she "simply didn't have time. I was too busy with work and had no interest in putting my job on hold for the sake of kids." Now in her mid-thirties, Amanda admits to wondering if she perhaps waited too long and if her career will prevent her from being a mother. In contrast, three retail professionals surveyed reported having children currently under the age of six. In all three cases, the mothers reported leaving work when their children were born, and none had yet made the decision to return to work. Although not a study participant on her own, Jacob's wife stands as an example of Crittenden's third parental option. Specifically, when asked about his decision to have children so young, Jacob remarked, "It wasn't my choice, it was [her]'s. She wanted the experience of being a full-time mom, and I want to give her that. But at the same time, she didn't want to feel like she was giving something up when she chose to have children. This way, she can be a mom as long as she wants and then start her career whenever she's ready."

Mainiero and Sullivan (2005) counter the argument of women having only three choices relating to motherhood, proposing instead that more and more women are rejecting "the concept of linear career progression, preferring instead to create non-traditional, self-crafted careers that suited their objectives, needs, and life criteria" (p.

109). While many retail professionals would contest the categorization of their work as "low-skill" (Chang & Travaglione, 2012, p. 317), one benefit of retail work is that abilities are not as likely to deteriorate over time. Retail is an evolving field, but not so much that essential job responsibilities (cash handling, merchandise placement, customer service, etc.) have changed dramatically over the past decade. As a result, individuals are less likely to experience penalties for taking career breaks, making non-linear career tracks entirely viable.

Four study participants described their work history in retail as being non-traditional. Two were mothers who left the industry to raise children and decided to return after several years away. Both indicated having little difficulty returning to the field; one pointedly noted, "The computer systems updated quite a bit, but everything else stayed pretty much the same." The third individual was a female who chose to leave her job in a small clothing store to pursue a career in social work after obtaining her degree. When employment options became limited, however, she returned to what she knew. In her words, "I'm much happier now. Retail may not have been what I thought I wanted, but I'm good at it, the work is consistent, and the pay is better. Win, win, win." The last person in this group was a male participant who reported working at a gas station when "much younger" and returning to work in a hardware store 40 years later following his retirement. He recalled, "It started as something to keep me busy, but now I've been here ten years and can't imagine not doing this […] A lot of things changed in forty years – the stores are bigger, the work pace faster, and the merchandise a lot more expensive – but knowing how to provide customer service wasn't one of them. That is the easiest and most challenging aspect of my job."

Flexible Options. Although this supposition is not currently supported in research on a large scale, some findings from this study indicate that careers in retail *could* potentially provide women with a fourth option to the work-family quandary: the forever desired but rarely achieved "*job AND family*" balance. Chang and Travaglione (2012) describe retail labor as a type of "casual employment" (p. 318). While career advancement and longevity are possible if desired, there are no expectations or requirements for pursuing either. Further, because there are so many career choices available within the field, work in this industry can be as laid-back or as high-pressure as an employee wants to make it. For comparison, consider the roles and responsibilities of a part-time cashier in a clothing store that yields $5-million in sales annually to a regional manager who oversees 30 general merchandise stores that average $50-million in sales annually.

Perhaps one of the biggest factors working for the retail industry is the number of options available to workers. Most stores, for example, employ a mixture of salaried and hourly individuals, many of whom can pursue either full-time and part-time positions. Similarly, retail employees can choose to work days or evenings, weekdays or weekends, or a combination of these shifts. Flexible hours and scheduling mean that employees do not necessarily have to 'miss work' to attend a child's science fair presentation or schedule a doctor's appointment – instead, they could work around these events. Many major retail companies offer an added benefit of having numerous store locations nation-wide, simplifying the relocation process significantly in the event of a spouse accepting a job on the opposite coastline.

As part of the Retail Recruitment survey, participants were asked several questions relating to work-life balance. Of those surveyed, nearly 93% of women, and 90% of men answered positively to the question "Is it important to you to have flexibility in your schedule in order to plan or attend family and social events?" Likewise, the question "Is it important for you to be able to spend time with your family and friends on holidays and special occasions?" yielded a positive response of 96% for women and 88% for men. It should be noted that parents, both female and male, were 10% more likely than individuals without children to say they preferred flexible schedules to consistent ones. Although every retail company has its own set of policies and procedures relating to scheduling, survey and interview responses indicate that retail is a likely field to provide these scheduling options to employees.

Sarah, for instance, has raised two children over the course of her thirty-year retail career and is now experiencing the joys of being a grandmother. She commented, "I haven't been able to attend every family event over the years, such is the nature of retail, but I've been fortunate to work with and for some very understanding people. Any time my requests could be accommodated, they were. That's why I like to do the same thing for my people every chance I get." Jacob also complimented his boss for being willing to work with his schedule so that he could attend doctor appointments with his wife during the past few months. Another five survey participants said that scheduling was one of the things they liked best about working in retail. One of these individuals, who now works what she calls an "MF95" job jokingly remarked, "You know what I miss most about working retail? Being able to grocery shop on Tuesday mornings. I hate shopping on weekends!"

Rival Responsibilities. The 'male breadwinner' and "female homemaker' models inherently suggest that men and women have competing agendas relating to their home and work. Hochschild (2012) discusses this division in detail when describing the various ways that spouses in her study attempted to either embrace or challenge second-shift expectations. Historically, women are regarded as primary parents, even in situations where both parents work (Cha, 2013; A. Crittenden, 2010; Sinno & Killen, 2011). Men, on the other hand, are said to focus their efforts more on career advancement and "hand over" (Catalyst, 2004, p. 28) domestic responsibilities to their spouses. One has to look no further than modern media to see such arguments in action. Stereotypical 'workaholic' dads such as Fletcher Reed in *Liar Liar* (Grazer & Shaydac, 1997) and Michael Newman in *Click* (Sandler & Coraci, 2006) encourage society to believe that men are more likely to take work home with them or allow work obligations to interfere with family time. Meanwhile, 'all-star' moms like Leigh Anne Tuohy in *The Blind Side* (Johnson & Hancock, 2009) and Lorelai Gilmore in *Gilmore Girls* (Sherman-Palladino & Glatter, 2000) demonstrate the strength of a mothers' love for their children and an unerring commitment to family well-being.

Based on these suppositions, one would expect to find that men and women would express different priorities relating to work-life balance and family. In this study, however, this was not the case. As part of the Retail Recruitment survey, for instance, participants were asked a series of questions relating to the desired amount of separation between home and work activities. As illustrated in Figure 13, a higher percentage of men reported preferring either complete separation between work activities and their home lives, while more women admitted to taking their work home with them. While

they are indeed no guarantee that actions will support words, these responses do indicate a potential shift in focus towards home and family priorities for male study participants.

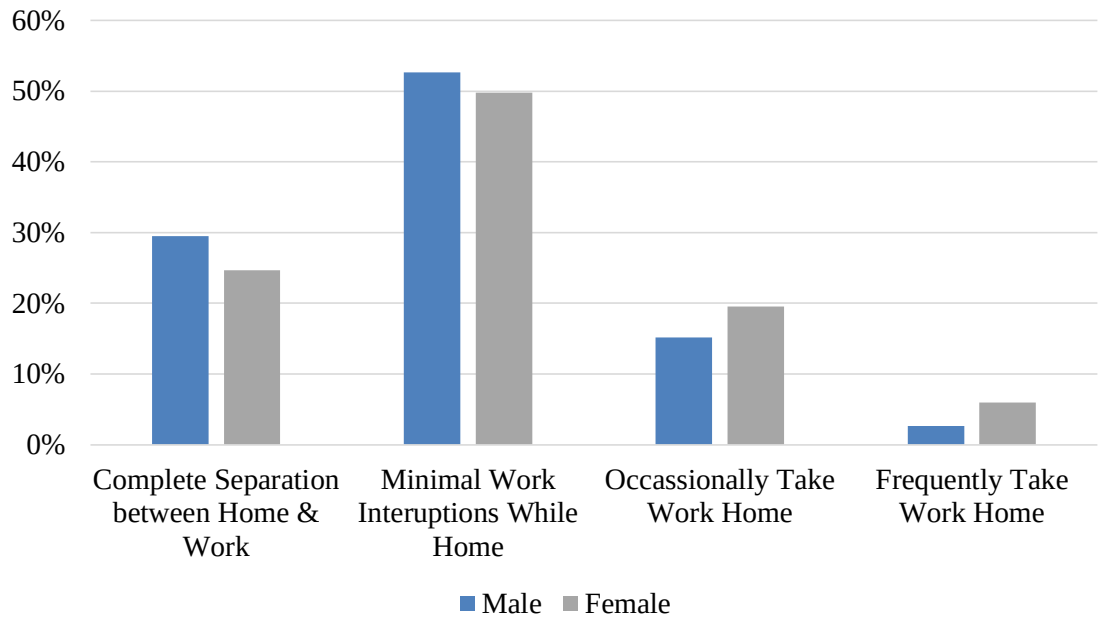

Figure 13. Gender Preferences Relating to Separation between Work and Home

Similarly, as shown in Figure 14, male participants were more likely than their female counterparts to classify common work-related activities such as reading and responding to emails or text messages and answering work phone calls as interruptions to their home lives. Interestingly, the percentage of women to label an activity as a home interruption was higher than men in only one category – last-minute schedule adjustments. Initially, this last response rate was thought to be representative of time constraints and scheduling needs centered on family activities. When comparing the number of responses attributed to mothers and fathers, however, fathers accounted for 21% of the men who classified schedule adjustments as an interruption, compared to

only 12% of mothers making the same judgment. Given the reasonably equal representation of mothers and fathers in this sample, this result was surprising.

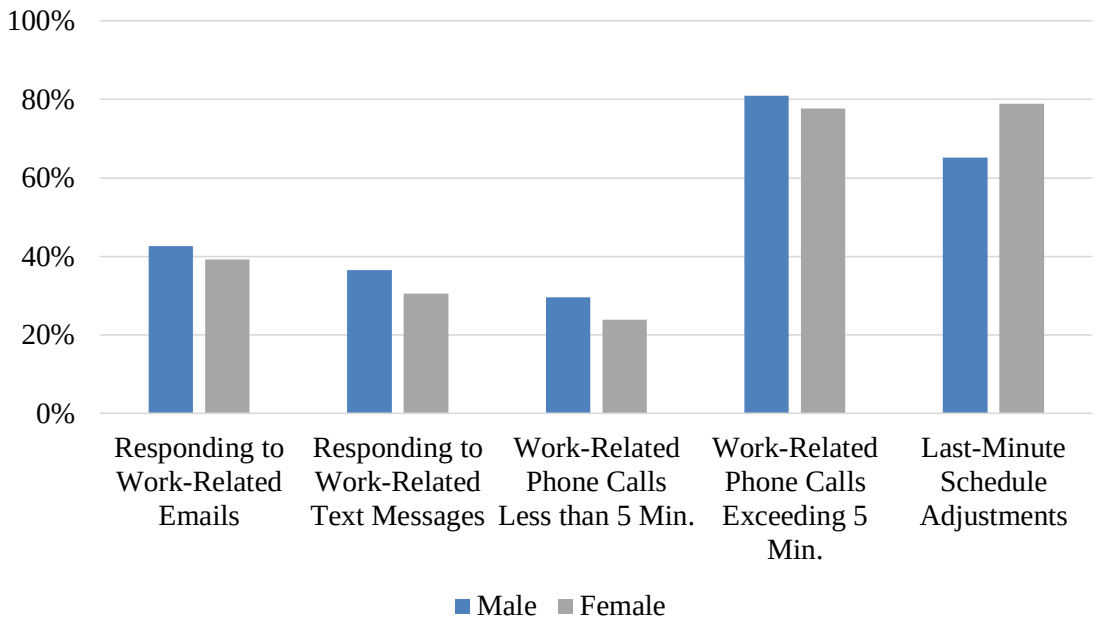

Figure 14. Gender Classifications of Work Activities as Home Interruptions

Although somewhat unexpected, these findings do support arguments from Broadbridge (2009), Cha (2013), and Mainiero and Sullivan (2005) regarding the sacrifices that many women make to further their careers. Women, they argue, are more likely to attempt to combine their personal and professional responsibilities. Such attempts inevitably lead to blurring lines between home and work. Mothers who must adjust their work schedules around daycare availability, for example, are more likely to take their work home with them in order to prevent falling behind (Broadbridge, 2009). In Sarah's interview, she acknowledges the crossover of work into the home by saying: "The amount of work to be done doesn't change just because you have to drop kids off at school or take the dog to the vet. But I don't have to be in the store to do all of my

work. If having to answer a few emails or update a couple of reports at home means I can leave work on time; I'm happy to do so because it's better for my family."

Jacob, in contrast, describes clear boundaries between his priorities when at home and work: "You can't be in two places at once, either physically or mentally. When I'm at work, I give it my all. I want to do a good job because I can really see myself going somewhere here. But when I'm at home, my family has to be the priority. I've already told [my boss] that when it comes time [for the baby], even if she comes on Thanksgiving, my only focus is going to be on my family for a few days." This last comment, although seemingly innocuous to many non-retail professionals, actually sends a distinct message regarding Jacob's commitment to his family; Thanksgiving, or more particularly the day after Thanksgiving, is traditionally the busiest shopping day of the year.

The Economy of Retail Labor

Vignette 1. *After working for the same home improvement retailer for twenty-five years, Paige is no stranger to the game of internal promotions. Over the course of her career, she has continued to climb the leadership ladder, progressing from department manager to assistant store manager, store manager, district manager, and now, regional manager. In reflecting on her professional development, Paige indicates that most of her career moves were "initiated by someone else." Specifically, she recalls several instances where she was metaphorically "tapped on the shoulder" and encouraged to apply for higher-level positions.*

Each time Paige was approached by one of her sponsors, she rose to the challenge, but admitted to wondering, "What are they thinking? This is so different than

what I'm used to!" Perseverance won out, however, as Paige now exclaims, "Why didn't I see that I could do those things?" Apparently feeling comfortable in her current role, Paige remarks, "I never raised my hand because I didn't think I could do. I was at the top when I finally realized I could do it." She attributes much of her confidence and success to "all the great people I surrounded myself with."

Vignette 3. *According to Cameron, a district manager who works for Paige, "Women seem to be afraid of certain areas or departments in our store. We see this a lot in the home improvement field, especially when we're trying to recruit leaders from big GM stores like Target and Wal-Mart. Women don't want to come work for us because they're worried about areas like the lumber department or they say they don't know anything about plumbing or electrical. But as managers, we have to do a better job at encouraging people not to be afraid."*

"Paige tells this story about when she was pretty new to the company and just getting started as a department manager in plumbing. Apparently, she didn't know much about plumbing and some guy asked her what to do about his toilet that was growling. I can't remember what she said her exact response was, but it was something like 'I don't know what you should do, but if my toilet was growling at me, I'd move.' That's the kind of story that sticks with you because it demonstrates that you don't have to know everything to be successful in a job. You just have to be willing to learn and take chances."

Measuring Capital in Career Decisions. The human capital theory argues that women anticipate working less over the course of their lifetimes, as demonstrated by the following comment from Cech (2016): "Most women are assumed to expect

employment intermittency to fulfil caregiving responsibilities, while most men are assumed to expect continuous full-time employment, especially if they anticipate acting as their family's primary financial provider" (p. 268). Based on this argument, several researchers suggest that men are more likely to prioritize pecuniary benefits when seeking employment, while women are more likely to consider non-pecuniary employment benefits as an acceptable alternative to higher earnings (Antecol & Cobb-Clark, 2013; Cech, 2016; England & Boyer, 2009; Fortin, 2008; Zafar, 2013). To test this supposition, respondents who completed the Retail Recruiting survey were asked a series of questions relating to employment benefits.

As a starting point, participants were asked a basic question relating to compensation: Which would you rather receive – better pay or better benefits. 67.05% of female respondents selected better pay, compared to 75.00% of males. Although the percentage of men selecting better pay is higher in this study, it is not believed that the average difference is enough to support claims of gender preferences on its own. In another part of the survey, participants were asked to rate the importance of thirteen factors commonly taken into consideration when evaluating job offers and career options. Figure 15 summarizes the average response rates for both male and female participants.

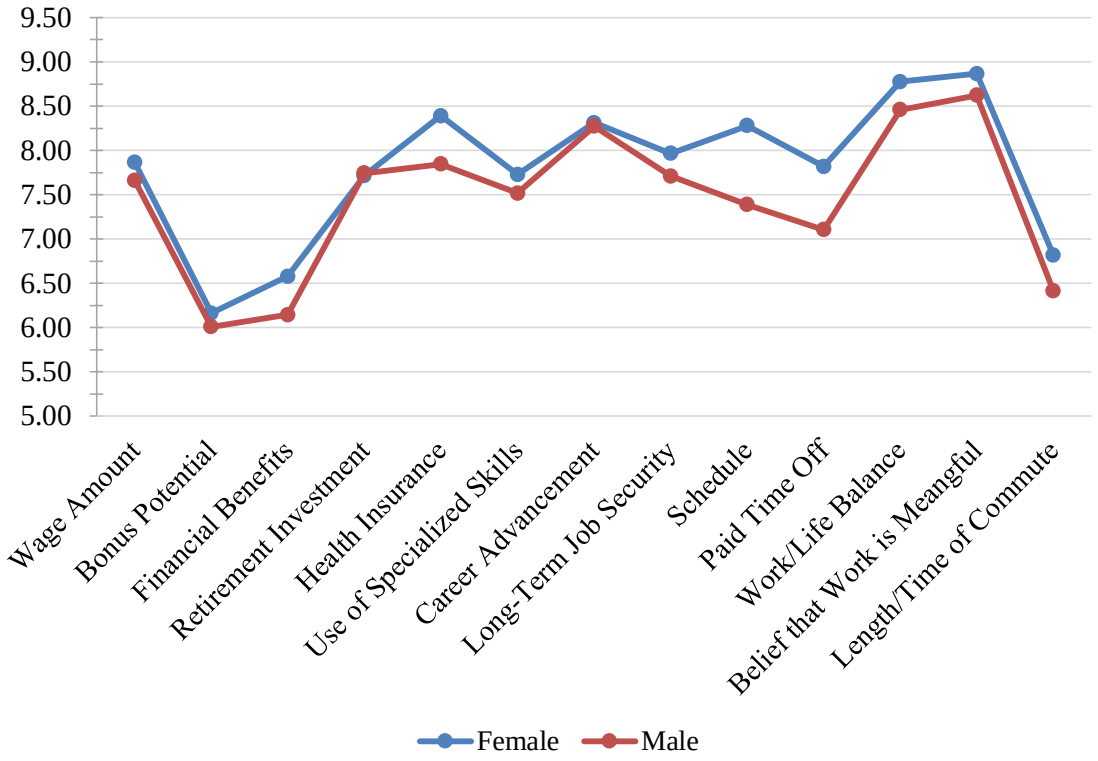

Figure 15. Gendered Preferences Regarding Pecuniary and Non-Pecuniary Employment Benefits

In support of Antecol and Cobb-Clark's (2013) claim that women primarily care about "enjoying the work" (p. 65) and Zafar's (2013) assertion that women place more focus on "reconciling work and family" (p. 549), females in this study did rate 'belief that work is meaningful' and 'work/life balance' with the highest average scores. Given men's proposed prioritization of wages and financial benefits compared to women (Antecol & Cobb-Clark, 2013; Cech, 2016; Fortin, 2008; Zafar, 2013), however, it is surprising that male participants rated wages, bonus potential, and financial benefits as less significant than their female counterparts. In fact, 'belief that work is meaningful' and 'work/life balance' were the top two employment considerations for men as well. Wage amount, on the other hand, ranked seventh on the list for both male and female participants.

Although future research should seek to test these findings on a wider scale, preliminary results of this study indicate that the supposed differences between men and women are not as significant as commonly believed, much like the findings related to family responsibilities and work-life balance demonstrated previously. Further, participants in this study as a whole indicated less interest in financial benefits and wealth when comparing career factors. Paige, for instance, discussed thankfulness towards the company that had provided her with so many incredible career opportunities and a firm belief in her employer's purpose. Similarly, Jacob remarked that he looked forward to being able to grow within his company, like so many of the other people he worked with and for in his current store: "[The store manager] here started out with [the company] as a part-time loader, the same way I did. I hope I'm on the right track towards following in his footsteps. I love that a lot of people have been in this store for a long time and still seem to enjoy working here."

Both Mitch and Amanda admitted that scheduling played a large part in their decision to continue working for their current company, with Mitch stating, "the schedule requirements for managers here are much better than most others stores. In retail, having two weekends off a month and only closing one night a week is almost unheard of." Alternatively, four Retail Professionals survey participants indicated long-term job security was a primary reason to continue working in the retail industry, with one noting "people will always want to buy stuff, and we'll be around to sell it to them." Another three mentioned career flexibility as a prime benefit, as demonstrated by one GM store employee who commented, "I like that I can do whatever I want and I'm not stuck doing any one thing. When I get bored, I learn something else or change

departments. When I feel unchallenged, I transfer to other stores and see if I can fix their problem areas." When considered as a whole, these themes indicate that the retail professionals participating in this study, both female *and* male, were much less motivated by the accumulation of capital. Instead, they measured career satisfaction and success using a different set of priorities that appeared consistent across gender lines.

Anticipatory Sorting in the Retail Industry. As discussed previously, stereotype and bias often lead men and women to pursue careers they feel best suited for or apply for jobs they believe they have the most substantial chance of being offered (Antecol & Cobb-Clark, 2013; Schechner, 2003; Zorn, 2007). Similarly, employers are likely to be influenced by bias relating to personality traits, gender norms, and even the success of the previous incumbent (Antecol & Cobb-Clark, 2013; Heilman, 2012; Konrad & Pfeffer, 1991) when narrowing the applicant pool. Fernandez-Mateo and King (2011) describe this process as "anticipatory gender-sorting" (p. 989). Although certainly not identified using the same terminology, the notion of gender sorting appeared as a common theme in this study.

Earlier, Amanda's interview recap revealed her belief that she was assigned her position in apparel and accessories because she was female. Interesting, Amanda was the only study participant to specifically mention feeling as though her employer made the placement decision for her. In all other cases, even in Amanda's later career moves, retail professionals indicated that their career progression was a result of them applying for specific transfers or promotions and being placed in a position they explicitly applied for. Both Cameron and Paige noted that women, more so than men, appeared to be intimidated by working in specific types of retail stores (like home improvement)

and even specific departments within those stores (such as lumber, plumbing, and electrical). In support of this, one department manager noted, “When I applied for my last position, I didn’t know it was going to be for the tool department. They told me at the start of the interview and asked if I was still comfortable with pursuing the position. I told them it was no problem at all, but deep down I was thinking about how little I knew about tools and wondering what I had gotten myself into.”

Individuals were also asked several questions relating to the types of stores, departments, and specific positions they would be most likely to consider if applying for work in retail. Figure 16 illustrates the percentage of male and female respondents who rated the eleven listed store types favorably when evaluating the type of store they would most likely apply to work in.

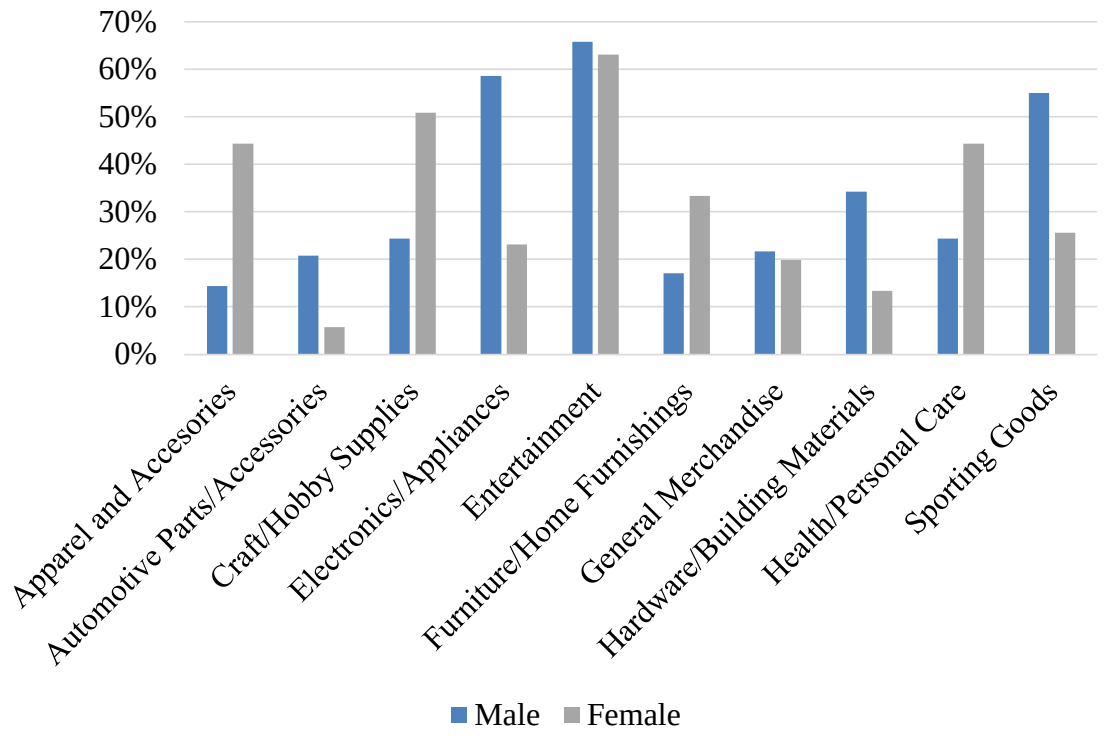

Figure 16. Gendered Preferences Relating to Store Type

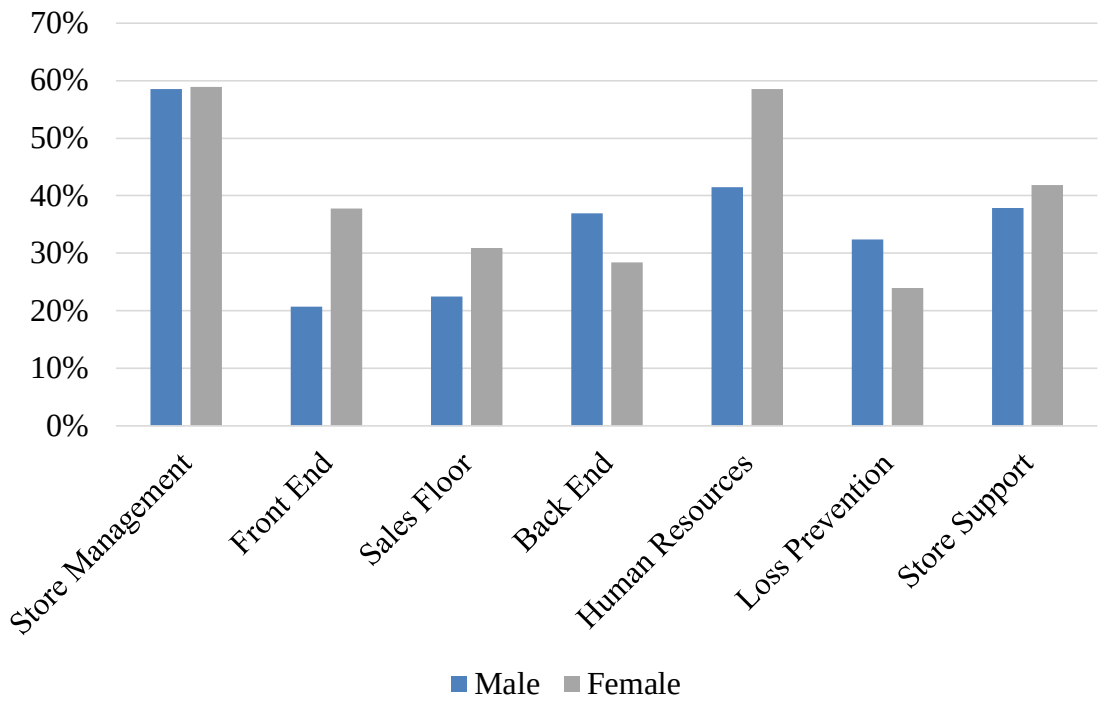

Figure 17. Gendered Preferences Relating to Store Area

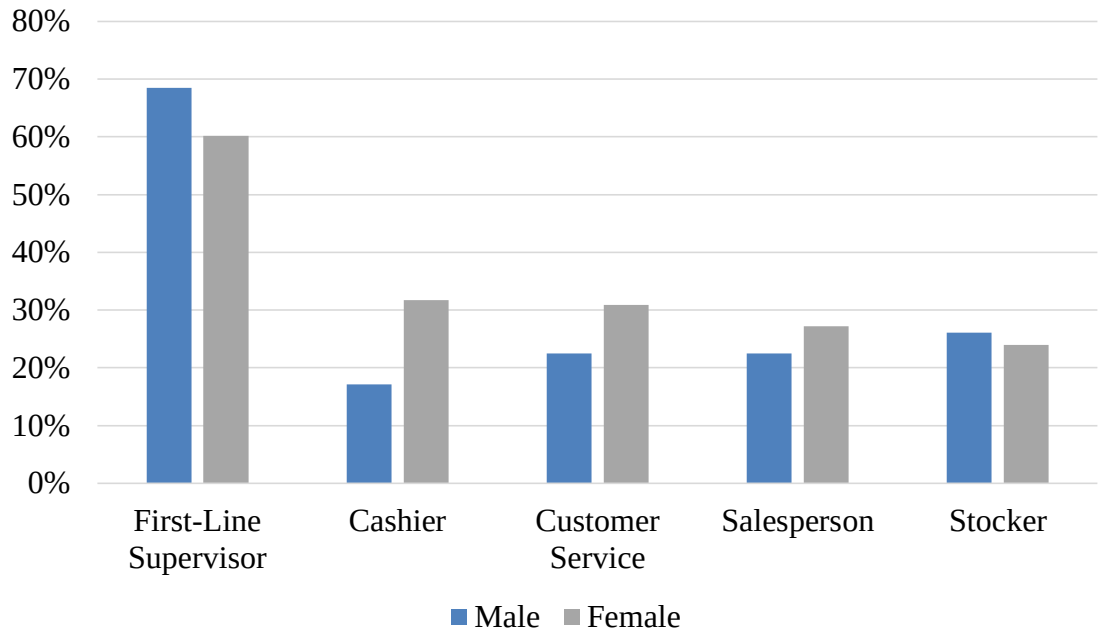

Figure 18. Gendered Preferences Relating to Retail Occupations

Similarly, figure 17 compares the percentage of male and female respondents to rate specific store areas favorably. Finally, Figure 18 denotes the percentage of male and female respondents to indicate a preference for working in each of the five primary retail occupations (first-line supervisor, cashier, customer service, salesperson, and stocker).

As demonstrated in each of these three figures, prospective retail employees have the potential to self-sort into specific store types, store areas, and occupational categories without any influence from their would-be employers whatsoever. These findings indicate that there is a high probability of supply-side factors influencing the level of segregation noted within the retail industry. Regrettably, the research parameters of this study did not allow for a detailed analysis of how demand-side elements potentially reinforce or diminish segregation as applicants flow through the interview, evaluation, and hiring process. Nevertheless, these findings strengthen arguments that researchers should consider *both* sides of the supply/demand equation when considering the broad spectrum of segregation analysis.

Self-Confidence as a Measure of Success. Lack of confidence is frequently cited as a contributor to segregation, particularly when considering the representation of women in leadership ranks (Broadbridge, 2007, 2010; Brockbank & Airey, 1994; Hughes, 2014). Heilman (2012) argues, "Lack of confidence in one's own competence can have very corrosive effects" (p. 120). Several researchers note that women are less likely to promote themselves, take risks, or seek career advancement than men (Eagly & Carli, 2007; Heilman, 2012; Hughes, 2014; Rhode & Kellerman, 2007). Similar, in multiple studies, women cite lack of self-confidence as a barrier to career progression

(Broadbridge, 2007; Brockbank & Airey, 1994; Catalyst, 2004). Both Eagly and Carli (2007) and Rhode and Kellerman (2007) point out that self-confidence also plays a role in the development of capital, as women are less likely than men to negotiate for salary or career advantage. Each of these themes relating to confidence (or lack thereof) appear to contribute to the continuation of occupational segregation. Moreover, all of them appeared at some point during the course of this study.

Much of the interview with Paige and Cameron centered on a discussion of how employees demonstrate a lack of confidence in their abilities and how leaders can potentially offset this deficiency. Paige, as discussed earlier, noted her own struggles with taking action on her own, rather than waiting for someone to approach her. Likewise, Cameron remarked that employees (both men and women) often wait to be approached by someone at the "right level" before putting themselves forward for promotional opportunities. He did point out, however, that "men raise their hands, females do not." Paige responded to some of this feedback by acknowledging that modesty was a strong contributor to her actions. She admitted that being the recipient of favourable feedback always felt awkward to her and expressed the desire to be seen as humble, rather than conceited or egotistical. She also repeatedly credited great sponsors for her career progression.

In discussing her career progression, Amanda also mentioned a pattern of being encouraged by others to apply for promotions. She confessed, "Do you know why I applied for my first supervisory position? Because all my friends were doing it and I didn't want to be left behind…" From there, Amanda's next two promotions were initiated by a supervisor encouraging her to consider specific leadership positions. "I

had been promoted three times before I ever considered moving upward on my own terms. Thankfully, by that point, I realized that I'm pretty good at what I do and I got tired of waiting for people to ask me if I was ready. I just started putting myself out there and hoped something came of it." In stark contrast to Paige and Amanda, both Mitch and Jacob expressed a strong desire to moving up the leadership ladder and seemed to have no doubts that they would succeed in their goals. Mitch remarked, I'm not ready to move up right now, but when I am, I know I'll nail the interview!" When asked about his goals, Jacob chuckled and said, "I'm by far the youngest leader in this store, but I think I'm one of the most consistent. I know where I want to go and what I need to do to get there. It's just a matter of putting in the time and constantly moving forward."

Six study participants listed confidence as a limiting career factor when completing the Retail Professionals survey, five of whom were women. In support of conclusions drawn by Brockbank and Airey (1994) and Catalyst (2004), one female survey respondent stated that she left her career in retail due to "lack of promotional opportunities," but later admitted that she had never actually applied for internal promotions. In her words, "I thought I was supposed to wait for someone to tell me I was ready. No one did, so I thought I must be doing something wrong." Two female retail professionals commented that salary ranges appeared different for male and female managers in the stores, but both also disclosed that they had never attempted to negotiate salary when their job-offers were extended. One of the two appealed, "I didn't think it was an option," while the other simply said, "I just accepted what they offered and was happy with the pay raise."

As part of the Retail Recruitment survey, participants were asked a series of questions relating to their desire to pursue leadership positions and their level confidence in personal leadership abilities. Initially, participants were asked: "Would you actively seek to be hired or promoted into a supervisory position?" The positive response rate was fairly similar between male and female respondents, with 83% of males and 82% of females stating they would pursue supervisory positions. Next, participants were asked the follow-up question: "Would you consider applying for a supervisory position if encouraged by others?" Here, the same number of male participants answered positively. The number of females to state they would consider applying for a supervisory position, however, increased by over 10%. These findings indicate that women are much more prone to seek validation from others before seeking leadership roles.

Later in the same survey, while being asked to rate their preferences for working in specific types of stores, departments, or positions, participants were also asked to rank five tiers of leadership positions common to most major retail companies: department/area supervisor, assistant store manager, store manager, and district manager. Figure 19 summarized the responses for both male and female participants.

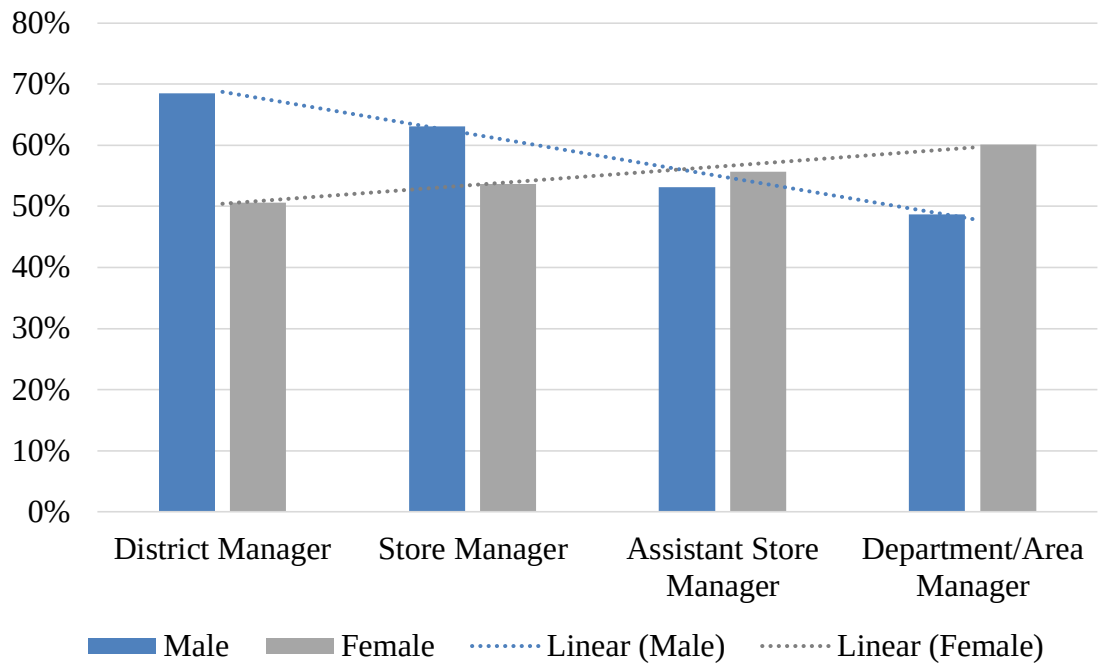

Figure 19. Gendered Preferences Relating to Types of Retail Leadership Positions

As evidenced by the linear trend lines illustrating the percentage of male and female participants to rate each of these four management positions favorably, males were more likely to rate higher-level leadership positions favorably, while the favorable response rate for females actually decreased with higher-level positions. These findings could suggest a lack of confidence in one's ability to perform well in higher positions, or they could hearken back to the supposition that women are less likely to pursue career advancement due to family-related priorities.

Discussion

The Status of Segregation in the US Workforce

Cohen (2013) argues that detail is one of the most critical aspects of segregation analysis. In his words, "Researchers almost always find that looking at the distribution of men and women in greater detail […] yields higher levels of segregation" (p. 890).

This multi-level analysis supports Cohen's hypothesis, as demonstrated by Figure 20. At each tier of this assessment, data becomes more specific and focused, and in each case, the degree of segregation is higher than it was at the previous level. Figure 20 also illustrates that time produces little difference in this pattern, as comparisons of data from two similar samples collected five years apart are nearly identical.

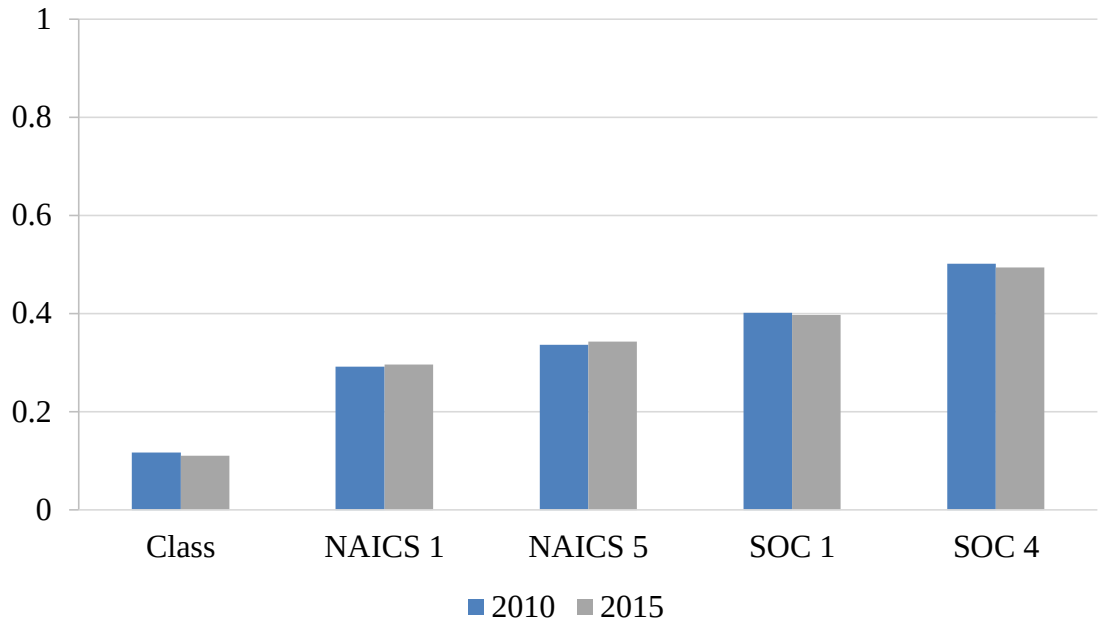

Figure 20. Five Measures of Occupational Segregation (MM) for Full-Time, Employed Labor Force in 2010 and 2015

Based on the data from this sample of U.S. employees, it seems clear that segregation does, in fact, exist at multiple levels of the occupational hierarchy, as proposed by Konrad and Pfeffer (1991), Fernandez and Basbug (1991), Fernandez and Sosa (2005), and Cohen (2013). Presumably, it follows that this trend would continue if examining segregation within specific organizations and job-titles, as proposed by Konrad and Pfeffer (1991). This study also indicates support for the belief that the process of identifying segregation trends within the workforce requires a multi-level

approach. As demonstrated by the Marginal Matching processes described previously, each level of analysis helps create a more complete view of such trends.

Finally, it important to note that gender-clustering patterns seem to evolve to fit the defining characteristics of the sample as group distinctions become more detailed. Figure 21, for example, shows how clusters of female employees potentially overlap when comparing five levels of the occupational hierarchy: employment class, industrial sector, NAICS industry, occupational order, and details SOC occupation.

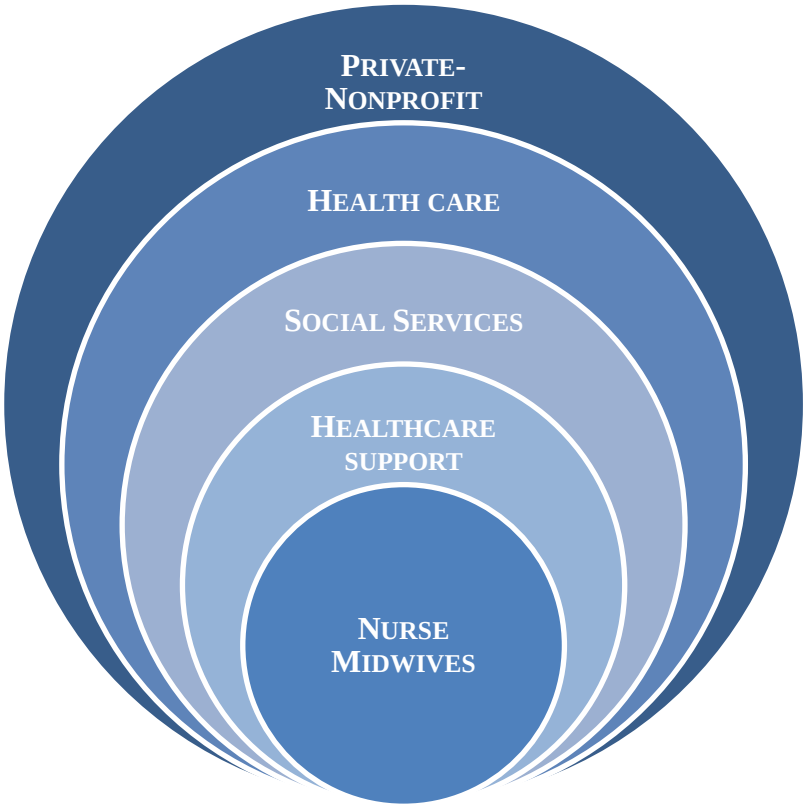

Figure 21. Overlapping Clusters of Female Employees within the U.S. Workforce

Each category shown in this diagram represents the group with the highest concentration of female employees for these five hierarchical levels. Unsurprisingly, there is a high degree of commonality between each of these distinct titles. With each new cluster, however, both employer and employee characteristics become more

evident, as do the clustering patterns. Future research would benefit from a greater review of such patterns and the relationships between them.

Challenging the Perception of Neutrality

While the retail industry may appear to be neutral at first glance, a more thorough analysis reveals segregation can and does occur within this field. This analysis supports the hypotheses that segregation does occur in different increments across varying levels of the occupational hierarchy and that these levels are potentially independent of one another. As shown, low levels of segregation at the NAICS industry level do not negate the existence of segregation at lower hierarchical levels. Similarly, the high degree of segregation observed when analyzing all detailed occupations except cashiers, retail salespersons, customer service representatives, stock clerks and order fillers, and first-line supervisors of retail sales workers does not indicate that workers in all retail organizations will be equally segregated. Findings from this study also demonstrated the validity of claims that smaller groups are more susceptible to the appearance of segregation (Fernandez & Basbug, 1991; Fernandez & Sosa, 2005; Konrad & Pfeffer, 1991). Finally, perhaps the most notable discovery from this research is the illustration that retail employment statistics are heavily skewed by data relating to a relatively small number of key occupational groups. If substantiated in future research, this finding potentially provides the key to challenging the identification of retail as a neutral industry on a much more comprehensive scale.

Interconnected Disciplinary Lenses

Gendered stereotypes, whether positive or negative, are both pervasive and deleterious in modern society. Because gender stereotypes often function as a type of

social norm, violating them frequently has consequences, particularly in the workforce. Based on this research sample, it seems clear that retail professionals are well versed in these penalties, but also willing to admit that stereotypes do sometimes work in their favor. Further, a combination of existing research relating to customer perceptions of the retail industry and participant responses from the Retail Recruitment survey indicate that specific retail sectors are at risk of being considered gendered based merely upon the connotations of products being sold within them. Unfortunately, at this time, there are few actionable solutions available to combat bias in the retail industry on a widespread scale. Simply put, the gender stereotypes that contribute to customer bias and anticipatory sorting are intractable as personal beliefs are hard to change.

Much like stereotypes, family responsibilities are frequently accepted as normative of gendered behaviors. Men and women do face different societal expectations regarding work and family, as evidenced by the 'breadwinner' and 'homemaker' familial archetypes. Sociological models of segregation theory primarily attribute employment inequality to such expectations, particularly in comparisons of part-time and full-time labor and discussions of women's representation in leadership roles. Survey and interview responses from this study, however, indicate that society may be experiencing a shift in "defined" roles. Men, it seems, are becoming less willing to sacrifice time with their families for the sake of career advancement, while more women appear willing to challenge the belief that having a successful career and a happy family are incompatible goals. In this sense, the retail profession is a realm of possibility, particularly in terms of career track and schedule flexibility. The availability of options, however, does indicate the potential for the industry to be biased towards

those who need them, as seen when comparing the number of female part-time retail employees and the number of full-time retail managers in Chapter 2.

Employers are often impugned for their role in perpetuating occupational segregation (Catalyst, 2004; C. Crittenden & Wright, 2012; Hughes, 2014; Pittinsky et al., 2007; Rhode & Kellerman, 2007), but research suggests that prospective employees are equally (if not more) likely to contribute to the establishment and continuation of segregation (Antecol & Cobb-Clark, 2013; Fernandez-Mateo & King, 2011; Fernandez & Sosa, 2005; Konrad & Pfeffer, 1991). The findings of this study largely support this argument. As a result, it seems clear that the best way to gain a thorough understanding of segregation trends to analyze both supply and demand factors relating to the employment process. Like psychological stereotypes and sociological family expectations, the economic notions of human and social capital are capable of influencing both sides of this process. Studying economic theories of segregation, however, appear to have more potential for influencing the course of occupational segregation in the future than do either the psychological or the sociological perspectives. The fundamental reasoning behind this assertion comes down to a matter of scale. It is much easier to influence the behaviors of a few people in select scenarios than it is to alter generations of conditioning related to stereotypes and family expectations.

Chapter 5: Conclusions and Recommendations for Future Research

This study sought to answer the following three questions: Do recent statistics continue to support the hypothesis that occupational gender segregation exists at multiple levels within the modern workforce? Can gender segregation and clustering occur within industries and work locations typically identified as gender-neutral? How can contemporary explanations of gender inequality be applied to the pattern of gender-specific segregation or clustering observed within the retail industry?

After comparing data from the American Community Survey (2017), the Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (2015), the United States Census Bureau (2005, 2017), and the US Bureau of Labor Statistics, it is clear that gender-based occupational segregation continues to exist in modern society. Moreover, the segregation analyses conducted within this study support the hypotheses that segregation occurs at multiple levels of the occupational hierarchy and that these levels often operate independently of one another. As a result, the absence or appearance of segregation in any one tier of the occupational hierarchy does not guarantee a similar trend in adjacent tiers.

Based upon employment data relating to the retail industry specifically and discussions relating to the real-life experiences of retail employees, it seems apparent that the retail industry is far from neutral. As in any other occupational grouping, retail professionals are subject to stereotypes, bias, social norms, and calculations relating to self-worth or human capital. Finally, as noted in Chapter 4, the most interesting discovery from this research is the illustration that retail employment statistics are heavily skewed by data relating to a relatively small number of key occupational groups, namely cashiers, retail salespersons, customer service representatives, stock

clerks, and first-line supervisors. Based on these findings, it appears that the perception of neutrality within the retail industry is based, in large part, on the distribution of men and women in these select groups.

Blackburn et al. (2002) assert, "It is impossible to give a total explanation of any phenomenon, whether we are dealing with natural or social science, but it is possible to identify key elements which significantly advance our understanding" (p. 527). As demonstrated in this study, psychological, sociological, and economic perspectives are often intertwined within explanations of gender segregation. Consider gender roles, which are frequently based on prescriptive stereotypes of should men and women are expected to behave. Similarly, economic angles incorporate both psychological and sociological concepts when applying the principles of supply and demand to the discussion of segregation. This pattern illustrates that a multidisciplinary approach is necessary to gain a thorough understanding of this topic.

Although the topic of occupational segregation has been researched for decades and myriad explanations for these trends have been offered, there is little agreement regarding a firm solution. It is widely accepted, however, that this issue stems from ingrained human behavior and societal expectations. Unfortunately, such problems are intractable, as people are hard to control and change. As a result, perhaps the best option for discovering a long-term solution to the problem of occupational segregation lies within the field of economic segregation analysis. In this way, researchers can seek to isolate specific groups or organizations to pinpoint whether segregation patterns stem from supply or demand side processes, or a combination of the two. From there, actions can be taken to influence the behaviors of a much smaller group of applicants or

employers. For example, the discussion with Paige and Cameron indicates that the home improvement retail industry could benefit from targetted recruiting and increased leadership focus on career development. Similarly, the relationship and respect apparent between Amanda and Mitch illustrate that retail employees could benefit from developing strong networks within their organizations and sharing their personal opinions with others.

Suggestions for Future Research

A brief examination of gender concentration within the retail industry suggests that there is still untapped potential within the topic of gender segregation. Initial research indicates that very few studies have carefully examined organizational or job title segregation. At this time, no other studies have been identified that include an in-depth analysis of the retail industry. This study provides a simple starting point for such research. According to Patton (2002), "Analysis finally makes clear what would have been most important to study, if only we had known beforehand." Certainly, the results of this study have provided valuable insight regarding additional questions for future projects.

While individual surveys and interviews provided many meaningful responses to the questions asked within this study, a wealth of qualitative data could also be generated by incorporating a focus group into future projects. As indicated by the overlap between stories shared by Mitch, Amanda, Cameron, and Paige, many work experiences are shared by multiple individuals. As such, it would be interesting to hear multiple perspectives relating to the same (or similar) events. Such focus groups could consist of groups from within the same organization or from multiple organizations.

Perhaps one of the best ways to gather quantitative data in future projects would be to garner the support of at least one, if not multiple, employment operations. As demonstrated by this study, thorough analysis of organizational and job-title segregation requires access to data not often made available to the public. Further, a longitudinal study of the hiring patterns within the retail industry or any other industry/occupation of choice would require the establishment of a long-term partnership.

As noted in the introduction section, affiliation with multiple minority groups increases one's odds of experiencing occupational segregation. From this, it is believed that a review of the intersectional identities of study participants would add dimension to research on occupational segregation. While this study collected demographic information relating to ethnicity and non-binary gender identity, these variables were not considered as a major point of analysis in this research. Future studies incorporating a more diverse ethnic and gender-affiliated sample would increase overall understanding of how intersectionality influences employment in the retail industry.

A final point worth noting is one interviewee's suggestion that generational differences could potentially provide a strong influence on occupational segregation patterns in years to come. Specifically, he noted two ostensible changes between older and younger retail employees: First, younger employees appear to be less constrained by "traditional" values and less motivated to work for the purely economic gain, making them more interested in sacrificing monetary rewards for the sake of meaningful work or family involvement (as shown in Chapter 6 of this study). Second, he expressed that younger employees (both male and female) appear less inclined to wait for the approval

of others before “raising their hand” to move forward. This topic has not yet been investigated further, but it would be interesting to do so in future projects.

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Appendix A: More about the ACS and PUMS Files

"The American Community Survey (ACS) is a nationwide survey designed to provide communities with reliable and timely demographic, social, economic, and housing data every year" (USCB, 2009, p. iv). Survey participants include current residents of the United States and Puerto Rico. While the ACS collects much of the same information as the decennial census, data from the ACS is collected on a continual basis. The ACS samples approximately one of forty addresses every year, with an estimate of 250,000 addresses every month. This continuous sampling method allows the United States Census Bureau to produce population and housing data yearly, rather than once per decade.

The USCB releases data from the ACS yearly in the form of summary data and microdata files. Summary data files are those designed and published by Census analysts to highlight specific topics and categories within the ACS. In contrast, microdata files contain a series of untabulated household and individual responses to the ACS. While summary products provide many significant statistics, such as gender, race, and age distributions for the United States population, such data does not meet the needs of every potential data user. The USCB distributes Public Use Microdata Sample (PUMS files) to fill this gap (USCB, 2009).

The USCB currently releases PUMS files in 1-year, 3-year, and 5-year formats. Three and five-year files are multiyear combinations of single year files with adjustments made to control for specific weight and inflation factors. The ACS questionnaire is divided into two principal parts. Answers to "household" questions are the same for all members residing in the same home (such as number of people living in

the home or number of bedrooms in the house). Alternatively, "population" questions should be answered with unique responses for each household member. These questions address a variety of topics, such as age, sex, race, education level, and occupation. Depending upon the topic(s) of interest, researchers may use household or person data individually, or they may concatenate the data to obtain a more complete picture of the sample (USCB, 2009).

Frequently Asked Questions Regarding PUMS files

Who should use the PUMS and why?

PUMS files are available for use to people who are looking for data tables not published by the USCB as pre-tabulated products. One common group of PUMS file uses are business or government researchers looking to study characteristics that are not usually cross-tabulated against each other, such as the poverty status of US residents with a specific ancestral background. PUMS files are also useful to academic researchers seeking to identify relationships between multiple variables identified within the ACS. Finally, PUMS files are beneficial to users interested in viewing statistics that do not comply with the standardized data categories found in most summary data files, such as age group or educational background (USCB, 2009).

Is PUMS data confidential?

Federal law requires that the confidentiality of all ACS participants be protected. Confidentiality is maintained using a combination of methods designed to remove all personal identifiers and recode individualized data with predetermined values. Through these methods, the USCB ensures "that it is impossible to identify individuals who

provide any response" (USCB, 2009, p. iv). No identifiable personal information is present within PUMS files.

How accurate is PUMS data?

Like all statistical data, the ACS is subject to error. Further, because PUMS data is based on a limited sample, it is unlikely that data is an exact replica of information that would be obtained by surveying all members of the population. A complete assessment of ACS accuracy may be obtained by visiting https://www2.census.gov/programs-surveys/acs/tech_docs/accuracy/ACS_Accuracy_of_Data_2016.pdf.

Obtaining More Information about the ACS and PUMS files

The USCB regularly distributes a variety of publications relating to the American Community Survey and PUMS data. To learn more about the ACS, please consider accessing the American Community Survey Information Guide, available for download at https://www.census.gov/programs-surveys/acs/about/information-guide.html. Alternatively, twelve tailored Compass handbooks are available to provide specific types of data users with detailed how-to instructions for maximizing research. These may be downloaded in pdf format at https://www.census.gov/programs-surveys/acs/guidance/handbooks.html. Finally, comprehensive guides and instructions relating to PUMS data files are obtainable by visiting https://www.census.gov/programs-surveys/acs/technical-documentation/pums.html.

Appendix B: Career Progression of Retail Professionals Survey

Hello, and thank you for expressing your interest in participating in my research project. My name is Amber Winn and I am a graduate student from the University of Oklahoma, College of Liberal Studies. I am conducting this online survey as part of an in-depth study examining how gender relates to the professional experiences of retail employees.

Before proceeding, please read the following statements. If you have any questions or concerns, please contact me directly at amber.r.winn@ou.edu.

Eligibility
To participate in this study, you must be at least 18 years of age and have experience working in the retail industry.

Participation
Should you choose to proceed, participation in this study will require you to complete an online survey on your personal computer, tablet, or cell phone. The survey may take up to 45 minutes to complete. A quiet, comfortable atmosphere is recommended.

Participation in this study is voluntary. You may withdraw your consent and exit the survey at any time without penalty. Additionally, you are free to decline to answer any question for any reason.

Benefits
You will receive no direct benefits for participating in this study.

Risks
There are no foreseeable risks involved in participating in this research study other than those encountered in day-to-day life.

Confidentiality
Your survey answers will be sent to a link at SoGoSurvey.com where data will be stored in a password-protected electronic format. SoGoSurvey does not collect identifying information such as your name, email address, or IP address, so your answers will remain anonymous. No one will be able to identify you or your answers and no one will know whether or not you participated in this study.

At the end of the survey, you will be asked if you are interested in participating in future research projects relating to this study. If you choose to provide contact information, your name and email address will no longer be anonymous to the researcher. No names or identifying information will be connected with your survey responses, however, and no confidential or personal information will be included in any publications or presentations of this research.

Contact Information
If you have any questions about this study or these procedures, you may contact me at any time by emailing amber.r.winn@ou.edu.

You can also contact the University of Oklahoma – Norman Campus Institutional Review Board at 405-325-8110 or irb@ou.edu if you have questions about your rights

as a research participant, concerns, or complaints about the research and wish to talk to someone other than myself.

You are encouraged to print and retain a copy of this document for your records.

This research has been approved by the University of Oklahoma, Norman Campus.
IRB Number: 7479 Approval Date: 11/22/2017

Would you like to proceed?

By selecting YES below, you are acknowledging that you meet the eligibility requirements for this study and are offering your consent to participate.

o Yes o No

Note: This survey uses skip logic to increase relevance to specific participants (based on responses to specific questions). Not all participants will be presented with all questions found in this list of survey questions. Questions that result in the application of skip logic will be indicated by ** before the question text.

What is your age?

- o Prefer Not to Disclose
- o Under 18 Years
- o 18-24 years
- o 25-34 years
- o 35-44 years
- o 45-54 years
- o 55-64 years
- o 65 years or older

What is your gender identity?

- o Prefer Not to Disclose
- o Male
- o Female

What is your ethnicity?

- o Prefer not to disclose
- o African American
- o Asian/Pacific Islander
- o Hispanic or Latino
- o Native American
- o White
- o Other

What is the highest level of education or degree you have completed?

- o Prefer not to disclose
- o Some primary/secondary education, no high school diploma
- o High school diploma or equivalent (GED)
- o Trade/technical/vocational training
- o Some college education, no degree
- o Associate degree

- o Undergraduate degree
- o Some graduate education
- o Graduate or professional degree
- o Doctorate or other advanced degree

What is your current employment status?

- o Prefer not to disclose
- o Disabled, unable to work
- o Employed, earning wages
- o Homemaker
- o Military
- o Self-Employed
- o Student
- o Retired
- o Unemployed, looking for work
- o Unemployed, not looking for work

****What is your current earning classification?**

- o Hourly, non-exempt
- o Salaried, exempt

****How many hours do you USUALLY work at your job?**

- o Less than 20 hours per week
- o 20 to 35 hours per week
- o More than 35 hours per week

Have you ever been employed by a retail company/worked in a retail store?

o Yes o No

****How many years of experience do you have working in retail stores?**

- o Less than 1 year
- o 1-3 years
- o 3-5 years
- o 5-10 years
- o 10-15 years
- o 15-20 years
- o More than 20 years

Are you currently employed by a retail company/working in a retail store?

o Yes o No

****How many years have you worked for your current retail employer?**

- o Less than 1 year
- o 1-3 years
- o 3-5 years
- o 5-10 years
- o 10-15 years
- o 15-20 years
- o More than 20 years

The questions on this page are designed to collect information regarding specific TYPES OF RETAIL STORES. If you have worked in a general merchandise store,

please avoid indicating specific departments in which you have worked/would like to work - these will be addressed in later questions.

****In which of the following types of retail stores do you CURRENTLY work?**

- o Apparel and Accessory Store
- o Craft/Hobby Supply Store
- o Electronics/Appliance Store
- o Furniture/Home Décor Store
- o General Merchandise Store
- o Grocery Store
- o Hardware/Home Improvement Store
- o Health/Personal Care Store
- o Sporting Goods/Outdoor Equipment Store
- o Other (Please Specify) _____

****In which of the following types of retail stores did you MOST RECENTLY work?**

- o Apparel and Accessory Store
- o Craft/Hobby Supply Store
- o Electronics/Appliance Store
- o Furniture/Home Décor Store
- o General Merchandise Store
- o Grocery Store
- o Hardware/Home Improvement Store
- o Health/Personal Care Store
- o Sporting Goods/Outdoor Equipment Store
- o Other (Please Specify) _____

****In which of the following types of retail stores have you PREVIOUSLY work? (Please select all that apply)**

- o Apparel and Accessory Store
- o Craft/Hobby Supply Store
- o Electronics/Appliance Store
- o Furniture/Home Décor Store
- o General Merchandise Store
- o Grocery Store
- o Hardware/Home Improvement Store
- o Health/Personal Care Store
- o Sporting Goods/Outdoor Equipment Store
- o Other (Please Specify) _____

If you were to pursue a new job in retail, in which of the following types of stores are you MOST LIKELY to search for work?

- o Apparel and Accessory Store
- o Craft/Hobby Supply Store
- o Electronics/Appliance Store
- o Furniture/Home Décor Store
- o General Merchandise Store
- o Grocery Store

- o Hardware/Home Improvement Store
- o Health/Personal Care Store
- o Sporting Goods/Outdoor Equipment Store
- o Other (Please Specify) _____

Please explain why you MOST LIKELY to seek work within this type of store?

If you were to pursue a new job in retail, in which of the following types of stores are you LEAST LIKELY to search for work?

- o Apparel and Accessory Store
- o Craft/Hobby Supply Store
- o Electronics/Appliance Store
- o Furniture/Home Décor Store
- o General Merchandise Store
- o Grocery Store
- o Hardware/Home Improvement Store
- o Health/Personal Care Store
- o Sporting Goods/Outdoor Equipment Store
- o Other (Please Specify) _____

Please explain why you LEAST LIKELY to seek work within this type of store?

**The questions on this page are designed to collect information regarding your experience working in APPAREL AND ACCESSORY STORES. If you have worked in other types of store, please avoid referring to your experience within those organizations - this will be addressed in later questions.

****How many years of experience do you have working in APPAREL AND ACCESSORY STORES?**

- o Less than 1 year
- o 1-3 years
- o 3-5 years
- o 5-10 years
- o More than 10 years

****Please briefly describe what you like BEST about working in this type of retail store/environment?**

****Please briefly describe what you like LEAST about working in this type of retail store/environment?**

****Using the grid below, please indicate your level of interest in working in the following areas of an APPAREL AND ACCESSORY STORE.**

	Not Interested	Somewhat Interested	Greatly Interested
Store Management	o	o	o
Front End Operations	o	o	o
Sales Floor	o	o	o
Logistical Operations	o	o	o
Store Support	o	o	o

****Using the grid below, please indicate your level of experience working in the following areas of an APPAREL AND ACCESSORY STORE.**

	No Experience	Primary Role/ Responsibility	Secondary Responsibility
Administration	o	o	o
Children's/Infants Apparel	o	o	o
Customer Service	o	o	o
Fashion Accessories	o	o	o
Intimate Apparel	o	o	o
Logistics/Freight Flow	o	o	o
Loss Prevention	o	o	o
Men's Apparel	o	o	o
Shoes	o	o	o
Women's Apparel	o	o	o

****Using the grid below, please indicate your level of interest in working in the following areas of an APPAREL AND ACCESSORY STORE.**

	Not Interested	Somewhat Interested	Greatly Interested
Administration	o	o	o
Children's/Infants Apparel	o	o	o
Customer Service	o	o	o
Fashion Accessories	o	o	o
Intimate Apparel	o	o	o
Logistics/Freight Flow	o	o	o
Loss Prevention	o	o	o
Men's Apparel	o	o	o
Shoes	o	o	o
Women's Apparel	o	o	o

**The questions on this page are designed to collect information regarding your experience working in CRAFT/HOBBY SUPPLY STORES. If you have worked in other types of store, please avoid referring to your experience within those organizations - this will be addressed in later questions.

****How many years of experience do you have working in CRAFT/HOBBY SUPPLY STORES?**

- o Less than 1 year
- o 1-3 years
- o 3-5 years
- o 5-10 years
- o More than 10 years

****Please briefly describe what you like BEST about working in this type of retail store/environment?**

****Please briefly describe what you like LEAST about working in this type of retail store/environment?**

****Using the grid below, please indicate your level of experience working in the following areas of a CRAFT/HOBBY SUPPLY STORE.**

	No Experience	Primary Role/ Responsibility	Secondary Responsibility
Store Management	o	o	o
Front End Operations	o	o	o
Sales Floor	o	o	o
Logistical Operations	o	o	o
Store Support	o	o	o

****Using the grid below, please indicate your level of interest in working in the following areas of a CRAFT/HOBBY SUPPLY STORE.**

	Not Interested	Somewhat Interested	Greatly Interested
Store Management	o	o	o
Front End Operations	o	o	o
Sales Floor	o	o	o
Logistical Operations	o	o	o
Store Support	o	o	o

**The questions on this page are designed to collect information regarding your experience working in ELECTRONICS/APPLIANCES STORES. If you have worked in other types of store, please avoid referring to your experience within those organizations - this will be addressed in later questions.

****How many years of experience do you have working in ELECTRONICS/ APPLIANCES STORES?**

- o Less than 1 year
- o 1-3 years

- o 3-5 years
- o 5-10 years
- o More than 10 years

****Please briefly describe what you like BEST about working in this type of retail store/environment?**

****Please briefly describe what you like LEAST about working in this type of retail store/environment?**

****Using the grid below, please indicate your level of experience working in the following areas of an ELECTRONICS/APPLIANCES STORE.**

	No Experience	Primary Role/ Responsibility	Secondary Responsibility
Store Management	o	o	o
Front End Operations	o	o	o
Sales Floor	o	o	o
Logistical Operations	o	o	o
Store Support	o	o	o

****Using the grid below, please indicate your level of interest in working in the following areas of an ELECTRONICS/APPLIANCES STORE.**

	Not Interested	Somewhat Interested	Greatly Interested
Store Management	o	o	o
Front End Operations	o	o	o
Sales Floor	o	o	o
Logistical Operations	o	o	o
Store Support	o	o	o

**The questions on this page are designed to collect information regarding your experience working in FURNITURE/HOME DECOR STORES. If you have worked in other types of store, please avoid referring to your experience within those organizations - this will be addressed in later questions.

****How many years of experience do you have working in FURNITURE/HOME DECOR STORES?**

- o Less than 1 year
- o 1-3 years
- o 3-5 years
- o 5-10 years
- o More than 10 years

****Please briefly describe what you like BEST about working in this type of retail store/environment?**

****Please briefly describe what you like LEAST about working in this type of retail store/environment?**

****Using the grid below, please indicate your level of experience working in the following areas of a FURNITURE/HOME DECOR STORE.**

	No Experience	Primary Role/ Responsibility	Secondary Responsibility
Store Management	o	o	o
Front End Operations	o	o	o
Sales Floor	o	o	o
Logistical Operations	o	o	o
Store Support	o	o	o

****Using the grid below, please indicate your level of interest in working in the following areas of a FURNITURE/HOME DECOR STORE.**

	Not Interested	Somewhat Interested	Greatly Interested
Store Management	o	o	o
Front End Operations	o	o	o
Sales Floor	o	o	o
Logistical Operations	o	o	o
Store Support	o	o	o

**The questions on this page are designed to collect information regarding your experience working in GENERAL MERCHANDISE STORES. If you have worked in other types of store, please avoid referring to your experience within those organizations - this will be addressed in later questions.

****How many years of experience do you have working in GENERAL MERCHANDISE STORES?**

- o Less than 1 year
- o 1-3 years
- o 3-5 years
- o 5-10 years
- o More than 10 years

****Please briefly describe what you like BEST about working in this type of retail store/environment?**

****Please briefly describe what you like LEAST about working in this type of retail store/environment?**

****Using the grid below, please indicate your level of experience working in the following areas of a GENERAL MERCHANDISE STORE.**

	No Experience	Primary Role/ Responsibility	Secondary Responsibility
Store Management	o	o	o
Front End Operations	o	o	o
Softlines	o	o	o
Hardlines	o	o	o
Logistical Operations	o	o	o
Store Support	o	o	o

****Using the grid below, please indicate your level of interest in working in the following areas of a FURNITURE/HOME DECOR STORE.**

	Not Interested	Somewhat Interested	Greatly Interested
Store Management	o	o	o
Front End Operations	o	o	o
Softlines	o	o	o
Hardlines	o	o	o
Logistical Operations	o	o	o
Store Support	o	o	o

****Using the grid below, please indicate your level of experience working in the following departments of a GENERAL MERCHANDISE STORE.**

	No Experience	Primary Role/ Responsibility	Secondary Responsibility
Administration	o	o	o
Apparel	o	o	o
Customer Service	o	o	o
Electronics/Entertainment	o	o	o
Grocery	o	o	o
Health and Beauty	o	o	o
Housewares/Domestics	o	o	o
Logistics	o	o	o
Loss Prevention	o	o	o
Luggage	o	o	o
Seasonal	o	o	o
Shoes and Accessories	o	o	o

Small Appliances	o	o	o
Sporting Goods	o	o	o
Stationary	o	o	o
Tools/Home Improvement	o	o	o
Toys	o	o	o

****Using the grid below, please indicate your level of interest in working in the following areas of a GENERAL MERCHANDISE STORE.**

	Not Interested	Somewhat Interested	Greatly Interested
Administration	o	o	o
Apparel	o	o	o
Customer Service	o	o	o
Electronics/Entertainment	o	o	o
Grocery	o	o	o
Health and Beauty	o	o	o
Housewares/Domestics	o	o	o
Logistics	o	o	o
Loss Prevention	o	o	o
Luggage	o	o	o
Seasonal	o	o	o
Shoes and Accessories	o	o	o
Small Appliances	o	o	o
Sporting Goods	o	o	o
Stationary	o	o	o
Tools/Home Improvement	o	o	o
Toys	o	o	o

**The questions on this page are designed to collect information regarding your experience working in GROCERY STORES. If you have worked in other types of store, please avoid referring to your experience within those organizations - this will be addressed in later questions.

****How many years of experience do you have working in GROCERY STORES?**

- o Less than 1 year
- o 1-3 years
- o 3-5 years
- o 5-10 years
- o More than 10 years

****Please briefly describe what you like BEST about working in this type of retail store/environment?**

****Please briefly describe what you like LEAST about working in this type of retail store/environment?**

****Using the grid below, please indicate your level of experience working in the following areas of a GROCERY STORE.**

	No Experience	Primary Role/ Responsibility	Secondary Responsibility
Store Management	o	o	o
Front End Operations	o	o	o
Sales Floor	o	o	o
Logistical Operations	o	o	o
Store Support	o	o	o

****Using the grid below, please indicate your level of interest in working in the following areas of a GROCERY STORE.**

	Not Interested	Somewhat Interested	Greatly Interested
Store Management	o	o	o
Front End Operations	o	o	o
Sales Floor	o	o	o
Logistical Operations	o	o	o
Store Support	o	o	o

**The questions on this page are designed to collect information regarding your experience working in HARDWARE/HOME IMPROVEMENT STORES. If you have worked in other types of store, please avoid referring to your experience within those organizations - this will be addressed in later questions.

****How many years of experience do you have working in HARDWARE/HOME IMPROVEMENT STORES?**

- o Less than 1 year
- o 1-3 years
- o 3-5 years
- o 5-10 years
- o More than 10 years

****Please briefly describe what you like BEST about working in this type of retail store/environment?**

****Please briefly describe what you like LEAST about working in this type of retail store/environment?**

****Using the grid below, please indicate your level of experience working in the following areas of a HARDWARE/HOME IMPROVEMENT STORE.**

	No Experience	Primary Role/ Responsibility	Secondary Responsibility
Store Management	o	o	o
Front End Operations	o	o	o
Sales Floor	o	o	o
Logistical Operations	o	o	o
Store Support	o	o	o

****Using the grid below, please indicate your level of interest in working in the following areas of a HARDWARE/HOME IMPROVEMENT STORE.**

	Not Interested	Somewhat Interested	Greatly Interested
Store Management	o	o	o
Front End Operations	o	o	o
Sales Floor	o	o	o
Logistical Operations	o	o	o
Store Support	o	o	o

****Using the grid below, please indicate your level of experience working in the following departments of a HARDWARE/HOME IMPROVEMENT STORE.**

	No Experience	Primary Role/ Responsibility	Secondary Responsibility
Administration	o	o	o
Appliances	o	o	o
Cabinets	o	o	o
Customer Service	o	o	o
Delivery	o	o	o
Electrical	o	o	o
Flooring	o	o	o
Hardware	o	o	o
Home Décor	o	o	o
Human Resources	o	o	o
Installed Sales	o	o	o
Logistics	o	o	o
Loss Prevention	o	o	o
Millwork	o	o	o
Nursery	o	o	o
Outdoor Power Equipment	o	o	o
Paint	o	o	o
Plumbing	o	o	o
Seasonal	o	o	o
Tools	o	o	o

****Using the grid below, please indicate your level of interest in working in the following areas of a HARDWARE/HOME IMPROVEMENT STORE.**

	Not Interested	Somewhat Interested	Greatly Interested
Administration	o	o	o
Appliances	o	o	o
Cabinets	o	o	o
Customer Service	o	o	o
Delivery	o	o	o
Electrical	o	o	o
Flooring	o	o	o
Hardware	o	o	o
Home Décor	o	o	o
Human Resources	o	o	o
Installed Sales	o	o	o
Logistics	o	o	o
Loss Prevention	o	o	o
Millwork	o	o	o
Nursery	o	o	o
Outdoor Power Equipment	o	o	o
Paint	o	o	o
Plumbing	o	o	o
Seasonal	o	o	o
Tools	o	o	o

**The questions on this page are designed to collect information regarding your experience working in HEALTH/PERSONAL CARE STORES. If you have worked in other types of store, please avoid referring to your experience within those organizations - this will be addressed in later questions.

****How many years of experience do you have working in HEALTH/PERSONAL CARE STORES?**

- o Less than 1 year
- o 1-3 years
- o 3-5 years
- o 5-10 years
- o More than 10 years

****Please briefly describe what you like BEST about working in this type of retail store/environment?**

****Please briefly describe what you like LEAST about working in this type of retail store/environment?**

****Using the grid below, please indicate your level of experience working in the following areas of a HEALTH/PERSONAL CARE STORE.**

	No Experience	Primary Role/ Responsibility	Secondary Responsibility
Store Management	o	o	o
Front End Operations	o	o	o
Sales Floor	o	o	o
Logistical Operations	o	o	o
Store Support	o	o	o

****Using the grid below, please indicate your level of interest in working in the following areas of a HEALTH/PERSONAL CARE STORE.**

	Not Interested	Somewhat Interested	Greatly Interested
Store Management	o	o	o
Front End Operations	o	o	o
Sales Floor	o	o	o
Logistical Operations	o	o	o
Store Support	o	o	o

**The questions on this page are designed to collect information regarding your experience working in SPORTING GOODS/OUTDOOR EQUIPMENT STORES. If you have worked in other types of store, please avoid referring to your experience within those organizations - this will be addressed in later questions.

****How many years of experience do you have working in SPORTING GOODS/OUTDOOR EQUIPMENT STORES?**

- o Less than 1 year
- o 1-3 years
- o 3-5 years
- o 5-10 years
- o More than 10 years

****Please briefly describe what you like BEST about working in this type of retail store/environment?**

****Please briefly describe what you like LEAST about working in this type of retail store/environment?**

****Using the grid below, please indicate your level of experience working in the following areas of a SPORTING GOODS/OUTDOOR EQUIPMENT STORE.**

	No Experience	Primary Role/ Responsibility	Secondary Responsibility
Store Management	o	o	o
Front End Operations	o	o	o
Sales Floor	o	o	o
Logistical Operations	o	o	o
Store Support	o	o	o

****Using the grid below, please indicate your level of interest in working in the following areas of a SPORTING GOODS/OUTDOOR EQUIPMENT STORE.**

	Not Interested	Somewhat Interested	Greatly Interested
Store Management	o	o	o
Front End Operations	o	o	o
Sales Floor	o	o	o
Logistical Operations	o	o	o
Store Support	o	o	o

The questions on this page refer to your professional development within the retail industry.

Because your answer are based on personal experiences, please be advised that there are no 'right' or 'wrong' answers. You are welcome to respond in as much or as little detail as you feel comfortable.

Should you find that the space provided is not enough to fully answer any of the questions below and you would like to provide more details, you are invited to contact the researcher directly at amber.r.winn@ou.edu.

If you choose, you may also elect not to reply to any or all of these questions without impacting your participation in this study.

****What is your current job title?**

****How long have you worked in your current position?**

- o Less than 1 year
- o 1-3 years
- o 3-5 years
- o 5-10 years
- o More than 10 years

****What was your most recent job title?**

****How long did you work in this position?**

- o Less than 1 year
- o 1-3 years
- o 3-5 years
- o 5-10 years
- o More than 10 years

Please select the statement below that most closely describes how you obtained this position:

- o I applied to work for a generic job opening and was assigned to the position or department after interviewing
- o I applied to work in a specific position/department and was offered that position
- o I applied to work in a specific position/department but was offered a different position
- o I applied for a generic promotion and was assigned to the position/department after interviewing
- o I applied for a specific promotion and was offered that position
- o I changed positions as part of a lateral store or department transfer that I initiated or requested
- o I changed positions as part of a lateral store or department transfer that a supervisor initiated or requested

****Why did you choose to pursue this particular position?**

****Were any reasons provided by your employer regarding your assignment to this position? If yes, please explain.**

What do/did you like MOST about this particular position?

What do/did you like LEAST about this particular position?

Do you have experience supervising/managing employees within a retail store?

- o Yes
- o No

****How many years of experience do you have supervising/managing employees in a retail store?**

- o Less than 1 year
- o 1-3 years
- o 3-5 years
- o 5-10 years

o More than 10 years

Please select the statement below that most closely describes your career in the retail industry:

o I have held only one position working for one retail company
o I have made 1 or more lateral store or department transfers while working for one retail company
o I have been promoted 1 or more times while working for one retail company
o I have held the same retail position in multiple retail companies
o I have held multiple positions in multiple retail companies

Please select the statement below that most closely describes your future career aspirations in the retail industry:

o I am not currently working retail and have no aspirations to resume my career in this field
o I am happy in my current position and have no interest in pursuing a different job
o I am interested in pursuing lateral transfers to other stores or departments within my current company
o I am interested in pursuing promotional opportunities within my current company
o I am interested in pursuing the same type of position within a different company
o I am interested in pursuing promotional opportunities within a different company

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The questions on this page are intended to address your perceptions of how gender influences work within the retail industry.

Because your answer are based on personal experiences, please be advised that there are no 'right' or 'wrong' answers. You are welcome to respond in as much or as little detail as you feel comfortable.

Should you find that the space provided is not enough to fully answer any of the questions below and you would like to provide more details, you are invited to contact the researcher directly at amber.r.winn@ou.edu.

If you choose, you may also elect not to reply to any or all of these questions without impacting your participation in this study.

Have you ever noticed any patterns in the TYPES OF JOBS that men and women do within a retail store or organization? If yes, please explain.

Have you ever noticed any patterns in the DEPARTMENTS or STORE AREAS that men and women work in within a retail store or organization? If yes, please explain.

While working in retail, have you ever felt that customers treat you differently than other people doing a similar job because you are male/female? Please explain is as much or as little detail as you are comfortable.

While working in retail, have you ever felt that your coworkers treat you differently than other people doing a similar job because you are male/female? Please explain is as much or as little detail as you are comfortable.

Do you feel that there are any specific struggles associated with being a male/female in your current or most recent retail position? Please explain is as much or as little detail as you are comfortable.

Do you feel that there are any specific benefits associated with being a male/female in your current or most recent retail position? Please explain is as much or as little detail as you are comfortable.

Thinking back on your retail career, do you think that being male/female has had any influence on your professional development or chosen career path? Please explain is as much or as little detail as you are comfortable.

If you would like to be contacted regarding opportunities to participate in future studies or you would like to receive more information regarding the progress and results (including any associated publications) of this study, please provide the following information below.

Please note, in order to preserve participant anonymity, no previous survey responses will be associated with the information provided here.

First Name: _____

Last Name: _____

Email Address: _____

Appendix C: Retail Recruitment Survey

Hello, and thank you for expressing your interest in participating in my research project. My name is Amber Winn and I am a graduate student from the University of Oklahoma, College of Professional and Continuing Studies. I am conducting this online survey as part of an in-depth study examining employee recruitment in the retail industry.

Before proceeding, please read the following statements. If you have any questions or concerns, please contact me directly at amber.r.winn@ou.edu.

Eligibility
To participate in this study, you must be at least 18 years of age.

Participation
Should you choose to proceed, participation in this study will require you to complete an online survey on your personal computer, tablet, or cell phone. The survey may take up to 20 minutes to complete.

Participation in this study is voluntary. You may withdraw your consent and exit the survey at any time without penalty. Additionally, you are free to decline to answer any question for any reason.

Benefits
You will receive no direct benefits for participating in this study.

Risks
There are no foreseeable risks involved in participating in this research study other than those encountered in day-to-day life.

Confidentiality
Your survey answers will be sent to a link at SurveyHero.com where data will be stored in a password-protected electronic format. SurveyHero does not collect identifying information such as your name, email address, or IP address, so your answers will remain anonymous. No one will be able to identify you or your answers and no one will know whether or not you participated in this study.

At the end of the survey, you will be asked if you are interested in participating in future research projects relating to this study. If you choose to provide contact information, your name and email address will no longer be anonymous to the researcher. No names or identifying information will be connected with your survey responses, however, and no confidential or personal information will be included in any publications or presentations of this research.

Contact Information
If you have any questions about this study or these procedures, you may contact me at any time by emailing amber.r.winn@ou.edu.

You can also contact the University of Oklahoma – Norman Campus Institutional Review Board at 405-325-8110 or irb@ou.edu if you have questions about your rights

as a research participant, concerns, or complaints about the research and wish to talk to someone other than myself.

You are encouraged to print and retain a copy of this document for your records.

This research has been approved by the University of Oklahoma, Norman Campus.
IRB Number: 8503 Approval Date: 09/21/2017

Would you like to proceed?

By selecting YES below, you are acknowledging that you meet the eligibility requirements for this study and are offering your consent to participate.

o Yes o No

What is your age?

- o Prefer Not to Disclose
- o Under 18 Years
- o 18-24 years
- o 25-34 years
- o 35-44 years
- o 45-54 years
- o 55-64 years
- o 65 years or older

What is your gender identity?

- o Prefer Not to Disclose
- o Male
- o Female
- o Nonbinary/Other

What is your ethnicity?

- o Prefer not to disclose
- o African American
- o Asian/Pacific Islander
- o Hispanic or Latino
- o Native American
- o White
- o Other

What is the highest level of education or degree you have completed?

- o Prefer not to disclose
- o Some primary/secondary education, no high school diploma
- o High school diploma or equivalent (GED)
- o Trade/technical/vocational training
- o Some college education, no degree
- o Associate degree
- o Undergraduate degree
- o Some graduate education
- o Graduate or professional degree
- o Doctorate or other advanced degree

What is your current military service status?

- o Prefer not to disclose
- o Civilian, no military service record
- o Active duty
- o Reserve
- o National Guard
- o Veteran or retiree

What is your current marital status?

- o Prefer not to disclose
- o Single, never married
- o Married, or in a domestic partnership
- o Widowed
- o Divorced
- o Separated

If you are the spouse or domestic partner of a current or former military service member, what is your current status?

- o Prefer not to disclose
- o Not applicable
- o Spouse/partner of a current active duty service member
- o Spouse/partner of a current member of the National Guard or Reserve
- o Spouse/partner of a veteran or retiree
- o Spouse/partner of a deceased service member

Do you have any children?

- o Prefer not to disclose
- o Yes
- o No

If *YES*, how many children do you have that are

Under age 6 _____

Between ages 6 and 18 _____

Over age 18 _____

What is your current household income?

- o Prefer not to disclose
- o Less than $20,000
- o $35,000 to $49,999
- o $50,000 to $74,999
- o $75,000 to $99,999
- o Over $100,000

What is your current employment status?

- o Prefer not to disclose
- o Disabled, unable to work
- o Employed, earning wages
- o Homemaker
- o Military
- o Self-employed

- o Student
- o Retired
- o Unemployed, looking for work
- o Unemployed, not looking for work

What is your current earning classification?

- o Not Applicable
- o Hourly (non-exempt)
- o Salaried (exempt)
- o Other (commission, stipend, etc.)

How many hours per week do you *usually* work?

- o Not Applicable
- o Less than 20 hours per week
- o 20 to 32 hours per week
- o 33 to 40 hours per week
- o More than 40 hours per week

Please indicate which statement is most true regarding your interest in pursuing or continuing a career in the retail industry?

- o I have no interest in pursuing a job or career in the retail industry
- o I have no retail experience but would be interested in pursuing a short-term job in the industry given the right conditions.
- o I have no retail experience but would consider pursuing a long-term career in the industry given the right conditions.
- o I have previous retail experience but have no interest in pursuing work in the industry in the future
- o I have previous retail experience and would consider returning to work in the industry in the future
- o I currently work in retail but would prefer to pursue career opportunities in another industry
- o I currently work in retail and would prefer to continue pursuing a long-term career in this industry

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Career Factors

Within this section, you will be presented with a list of factors commonly considered when applying for a new job or beginning a career path. You are asked to assess how important each factor is to you when making employment decisions or pursuing your ideal career.

	Not at all important										Extremely important
	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Wage Amount	o	o	o	o	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
Bonus Potential	o	o	o	o	o	o	o	o	o	o	o

Supplemental Financial Benefits	o	o	o	o	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
Health Insurance	o	o	o	o	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
Retirement Investment	o	o	o	o	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
Schedule	o	o	o	o	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
Paid Time Off	o	o	o	o	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
Career Advancement Opportunities	o	o	o	o	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
Relocation Availability/ Opportunity	o	o	o	o	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
Ability to use Specialized Skills and Knowledge	o	o	o	o	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
Belief that Work is Meaningful/ Enjoyable	o	o	o	o	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
Work/Life Balance	o	o	o	o	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
Length of Commute	o	o	o	o	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
Availability of Child Care	o	o	o	o	o	o	o	o	o	o	o
Long Term Job Security	o	o	o	o	o	o	o	o	o	o	o

Compensation

Within this section, you will be presented with a series of questions related to various types of employment compensation. You are asked to consider your **IDEAL** work environment and answer the questions based on those preferences, rather than your current work situation.

How would you prefer your earnings be calculated?

o Hourly Wages o Annual Salary

What type of earnings would you prefer to receive?

o Standardized Earnings o Commission/Performance Based Earnings

Which of the following benefits is most important to you?

o Health Insurance o Paid Time Off o Retirement Investment

Which of the following supplemental financial benefits would most likely influence your decision to pursue/accept a particular job or career?

Please select all that apply

o Employee Discount Programs o Stock Purchase Option
o Paid/Discounted Childcare o Adoption Assistance
o Tuition Reimbursement o Paid Vocational Training/Certification

Which of the following would you rather receive?

o Better Pay o Better Benefits

Time at Work

Within this section, you will be presented with a series of questions related to work scheduling and how you would prefer to spend your time at work. You are asked to consider your **IDEAL** work environment and answer the questions based on those preferences, rather than your current work situation.

How many hours a week would you prefer to work?

o Less than 32 hours (Part-time) o More than 32 hours (Full-time)

Which type of schedule would you prefer?

o Set/Consistent Schedule o Flexible/Rotating Schedule

What time of day would you prefer to work?

o Days (Before 5pm) o Evenings (After 5pm) o Combination of Days/Evenings

What days of the week would you prefer to work?

o Weekdays (Mon-Fri) o Weekends (Sat-Sun) o Combination of Weekdays/Weekends

If you worked the same number of hours per week, what type of shifts would you prefer to work?

o Longer shifts per day but fewer days per week (i.e. 10 hour shifts 3 days per week)

o Shorter shifts per day but more days per week (i.e. 6 hour shifts 5 days per week)

How much of your time at work would you prefer to spend doing the following activities?

	< 25%	25-50%	50-75%	> 75%
Working at computer/desk	o	o	o	o
Physical Activities (walking, lifting, etc.)	o	o	o	o
Traveling	o	o	o	o
Working from Home	o	o	o	o
Working Independently	o	o	o	o

Working in Groups/Teams	o	o	o	o
Supervising Others	o	o	o	o

Work/Life Balance

Within this section, you will be presented with a series of questions related to work/life balance. You are asked to consider your **IDEAL** work environment and answer the questions based on those preferences, rather than your current work situation.

Please indicate which statement is most true regarding your preferred level of separation between your work activities and your home life?

- o I prefer complete separation between work and home activities
- o I do not mind minimal work interruptions while at home if the situation is important enough
- o I occasionally take my work home with me and/or I encourage my employer/employees to contact me at home if needed
- o I frequently take my work home with me and/or I stay in regular contact with my employer/employees when not at work

Which of the following activities would you consider to be an interruption to your home life?

Please select all that apply

- o Reading/responding to work-related emails
- o Reading/responding to work-related text messages
- o Short-notice or last-minute work schedule adjustments
- o Work-related phone calls lasting less than 5 minutes
- o Work-related phone calls lasting more than 5 minutes
- o Conversations between family/friends relating to work

If you did not have a set/standardized work schedule, how far in advance would you prefer to know your work schedule?

Please select all that apply

- o Less than one week in advance
- o One to two weeks in advance
- o Three to four weeks in advance
- o More than four weeks in advance

Is it important for you to be have flexibility in your schedule in order to plan or attend family/social events?

- o Yes
- o No

Is it important for you to be able to spend time with family and friends on holidays and special occasions?

- o Yes
- o No

If financial considerations were not a factor, would you choose to work less in order to spend more time at home/with family?

- o Yes
- o No

If financial considerations were not a factor, would you choose to work less in order to have more personal leisure time?

- o Yes
- o No

Leadership/Management Potential

Within this section, you will be presented with a series of questions related to supervisory positions available within a career track. You are asked to consider your **IDEAL** career path and answer the questions based on those preferences, rather than your current work situation.

How would you rather see your employer select candidates for supervisory positions?

o Internal Promotions o External Hiring

Would you actively seek to be hired or promoted into a supervisory position?

o Yes o No

Would you consider applying for a supervisory position if encouraged by others?

o Yes o No

What is the maximum number of employees you would feel comfortable supervising DIRECTLY?

(Note: Direct subordinates are those who would report to you as their immediate supervisor)

o 0
o 1 to 9
o 10 to 24
o 25 to 50
o More than 50

What is the maximum number of employees you would feel comfortable supervising INDIRECTLY?

(Note: Indirect subordinates are those who report to someone else as an immediate supervisor but still view you as a leader/manager)

o 0
o 1 to 24
o 25 to 49
o 50 to 74
o 75 to 100
o More than 100

How confident are you in your ability to succeed in a supervisory position?

Not at all confident									Extremely Confident
o	o	o	o	o	o	o	o	o	o

Retail Preferences

Within this section, you will be presented with a series of questions related to work in the retail industry. For each question, you are asked to presume that you **WOULD** consider pursuing a job or career in the retail industry if conditions or circumstances were appropriate.

How would you rate the prospect of working in each of the following types of retail stores?

	Highly unfavorable	Unfavorable	Neutral	Favorable	Highly favorable
Apparel/ Accessories	o	o	o	o	o
Automotive	o	o	o	o	o
Craft/ Hobby	o	o	o	o	o
Electronics/ Appliances	o	o	o	o	o
Entertain-ment	o	o	o	o	o
Furniture	o	o	o	o	o
General Merchandise	o	o	o	o	o
Hardware	o	o	o	o	o
Health/ Personal	o	o	o	o	o
Sporting Goods	o	o	o	o	o

How would you rate the prospect of working in each of the following areas of a retail store?

	Highly unfavorable	Unfavorable	Neutral	Favorable	Highly favorable
Store Management	o	o	o	o	o
Front End Operations	o	o	o	o	o
Sales Floor	o	o	o	o	o
Back End Operations	o	o	o	o	o
Human Resources	o	o	o	o	o
Loss Prevention	o	o	o	o	o
Store Support	o	o	o	o	o

How would you rate the prospect of working in each of the following retail positions?

	Highly unfavorable	Unfavorable	Neutral	Favorable	Highly favorable
Department/ Area Supervisor	o	o	o	o	o
Cashier	o	o	o	o	o

Salesperson	o	o	o	o	o
Stocker	o	o	o	o	o

How would you rate the prospect of working in each of the following retail management positions?

	Highly unfavorable	Unfavorable	Neutral	Favorable	Highly favorable
District Manager	o	o	o	o	o
Store Manager	o	o	o	o	o
Asst. Store Manager	o	o	o	o	o
Department Manager	o	o	o	o	o

Retail Locations

Within this section, you will be presented with several choices relating to types of retail locations. For each pair, you are asked to choose which type of location you would prefer to work in.

---

o National Chain	o Local Retailer
o Large Store	o Small Store
o General Merchandise Retailer	o Specialized Retailer
o Wholesale Club	o Department Store
o Physical (Brick and Mortar) Store	o Online Retailer

o Front End o Sales Floor o Stock Room

Retail Tasks/Work

Within this section, you will be presented with several choices relating to types of work within retail stores. For each pair, you are asked to choose which type of work you would prefer to do.

---

o Customer Service	o Store Operations
o Stocker	o Cashier
o Pricing	o Receiving
o Loader/Cart Attendant	o Store/Zone Recovery
o Freight Flow	o Merchandise Presentation
o Human Resources	o Loss Prevention
o Sales	o Service
o In-Home Services	o Product Support/Selection
o Telephone Operator	o Building Maintenance
o Supervisory	o Non-Supervisory

Retail Products

Within this section, you will be presented with several choices relating to types of products commonly sold in retail stores. For each pair, you are asked to choose which type of product you would feel most comfortable working with or selling. Alternatively, you may consider which type of product you are more knowledgeable about

---

o Apparel/Accessories	o Electronics
o Grocery	o Seasonal/Holiday Living
o Lumber/Building Materials	o Home Décor
o Pet Supplies	o Cleaning Supplies
o Lighting	o Electrical Repair
o Women's Apparel	o Men's Apparel
o Housewares/Domestics	o Hardware/Tools
o Windows/Doors	o Cabinets
o Sporting Goods	o Craft/Hobby Supplies
o Home Storage/Organization	o Nursery/Garden
o Shoes	o Jewelry/Accessories
o Cars/Automotive Parts	o Furniture
o Paint	o Outdoor Power Equipment
o Entertainment	o Health and Beauty
o Appliances	o Flooring
o Intimate Apparel	o Sports Apparel
o Stationary/Office Supplies	o Toys
o Plumbing Repair	o Kitchen/Bath Fixtures

If you would like to be contacted regarding opportunities to participate in future studies or you would like to receive more information regarding the progress and results (including any associated publications) of this study, please provide the following information below.

Please note, in order to preserve participant anonymity, no previous survey responses will be associated with the information provided here.

First Name: _____

Last Name: _____

Email Address: _____

Appendix D: Interview Protocol Form

Project: Career Progression of Retail Professionals Qualitative Interviews

Date: _____

Time: _____

Location: _____

Interviewer: _____

Interviewee #/Pseudonym: _____

Release form signed? _____

Notes to interviewee:

Thank you for your participation. I believe your input will be valuable to this research and in helping increase understanding of the retail profession.

Confidentiality of responses is guaranteed

Approximate length of interview: 60 minutes, seven major questions

Purpose of research:

Existing research typically examines the topic of gender segregation from one of three perspectives: psychological, sociological, or economic. The purpose of this study is to explore how these perspectives relate to the actual experiences of people currently or previously employed in the retail industry. Potential themes to be explored include:

a.) Gender-Based Stereotypes
b.) Individual/Group Bias
c.) Socially Defined Gender and Family Roles
d.) Work-Life Balance
e.) Human Capital
f.) Supply vs. Demand Factors

This research has been approved by the University of Oklahoma, Norman Campus.
IRB Number: 7479 Approval Date: 11/22/2016

1. Please briefly describe your career in the retail industry.
    Why did you start working in retail?
    How would you describe your professional development?
    What are your current career aspirations within the retail industry?

Response from Interviewee:

Reflection by Interviewer

---

2. How would you describe the current gender distribution of your store or organization?
    What is the approximate ratio of males to females?
    Is this number consistent or does it change significantly over time?

Response from Interviewee:

Reflection by Interviewer

3. Have you ever noticed any patterns in the types of jobs that men and women do, or in the departments or store areas that men and women work in within your store or organization?

    If yes, how would you explain these patterns?

Response from Interviewee:

Reflection by Interviewer

---

4. While working in retail, have you ever felt that people treated you differently because you are male/female?

    Customers?
    Coworkers/Peers?
    Supervisors?

Response from Interviewee:

Reflection by Interviewer

5. Do you think there are any advantages or disadvantages associated with being either male or female in the retail industry?

    Are there any specific benefits or struggles you would associate with being male/female in certain roles or departments?

Response from Interviewee:

Reflection by Interviewer

---

6. Do you think being female has had any influence on your professional development or your chosen career path?

    Do you believe your gender has even been a factor of consideration during an interview for a retail position?

Response from Interviewee:

Reflection by Interviewer

7. Imagine you were a female in your current professional role. How might your job be different?

Response from Interviewee:

Reflection by Interviewer

Closure

- Thank you to interviewee
- reassure confidentiality
- ask permission to follow-up _____

Appendix E: 2012 North American Industry Classification (NAICS)[2]

Sectors (NAICS-2) and Subsectors (NAICS-3)

11: Agriculture, Forestry, Fishing and Hunting

- 111 Crop Production
- 112 Animal Production
- 113 Forestry and Logging
- 114 Fishing, Hunting and Trapping
- 115 Support Activities for Agriculture and Forestry

21: Mining

- 211 Oil and Gas Extraction
- 212 Mining (except Oil and Gas)
- 213 Support Activities for Mining

22: Utilities

- 221 Utilities

23: Construction

- 233 Building, Developing, and General Contracting
- 234 Heavy Construction
- 235 Special Trade Contractors

31-33: Manufacturing

- 311 Food Manufacturing
- 312 Beverage and Tobacco Product Manufacturing
- 313 Textile Mills
- 314 Textile Product Mills
- 315 Apparel Manufacturing
- 316 Leather and Allied Product Manufacturing
- 321 Wood Product Manufacturing
- 322 Paper Manufacturing
- 323 Printing and Related Support Activities
- 324 Petroleum and Coal Products Manufacturing
- 325 Chemical Manufacturing
- 326 Plastics and Rubber Products Manufacturing
- 327 Nonmetallic Mineral Product Manufacturing
- 331 Primary Metal Manufacturing
- 332 Fabricated Metal Product Manufacturing
- 333 Machinery Manufacturing
- 334 Computer and Electronic Product Manufacturing
- 335 Electrical Equipment, Appliance, and Component Manufacturing
- 336 Transportation Equipment Manufacturing

[2] Table adapted from (United States Census Bureau, 2012)

337 Furniture and Related Product Manufacturing
339 Miscellaneous Manufacturing

42: Wholesale Trade

421 Wholesale Trade, Durable Goods
422 Wholesale Trade, Nondurable Goods

44-45: Retail Trade

441 Motor Vehicle and Parts Dealers
442 Furniture and Home Furnishings Stores
443 Electronics and Appliance Stores
444 Building Material and Garden Equipment and Supplies Dealers
445 Food and Beverage Stores
446 Health and Personal Care Stores
447 Gasoline Stations
448 Clothing and Clothing Accessories Stores
451 Sporting Goods, Hobby, Book, and Music Stores
452 General Merchandise Stores
453 Miscellaneous Store Retailers
454 Non-store Retailers

48-49: Transportation and Warehousing

481 Air Transportation
482 Rail Transportation
483 Water Transportation
484 Truck Transportation
485 Transit and Ground Passenger Transportation
486 Pipeline Transportation
487 Scenic and Sightseeing Transportation
488 Support Activities for Transportation
491 Postal Service
492 Couriers and Messengers
493 Warehousing and Storage

51: Information

511 Publishing Industries
512 Motion Picture and Sound Recording Industries
513 Broadcasting and Telecommunications
514 Information Services and Data Processing Services

52: Finance and Insurance

521 Monetary Authorities - Central Bank
522 Credit Intermediation and Related Activities
523 Securities/Commodity Contracts/Other Investments & Related Activities
524 Insurance Carriers and Related Activities
525 Funds, Trusts, and Other Financial Vehicles

53: Real Estate and Rental and Leasing

531 Real Estate

532 Rental and Leasing Services

533 Lessors of Nonfinancial Intangible Assets

54: Professional, Scientific, and Technical Services

541 Professional, Scientific, and Technical Services

55: Management of Companies and Enterprises

551 Management of Companies and Enterprises

56: Administrative/Support and Waste Management/Remediation Services

561 Administrative and Support Services

562 Waste Management and Remediation Services

61: Educational Services

611 Educational Services

62: Health Care and Social Assistance

621 Ambulatory Health Care Services

622 Hospitals

623 Nursing and Residential Care Facilities

624 Social Assistance

71: Arts, Entertainment, and Recreation

711 Performing Arts, Spectator Sports, and Related Industries

712 Museums, Historical Sites, and Similar Institutions

713 Amusement, Gambling, and Recreation Industries

72: Accommodation and Food Services

721 Accommodation

722 Food Services and Drinking Places

81: Other Services (except Public Administration)

811 Repair and Maintenance

812 Personal and Laundry Services

813 Religious, Grantmaking, Civic, Professional, and Similar Organizations

814 Private Households

92: Public Administration

921 Executive, Legislative, and Other General Government Support

922 Justice, Public Order, and Safety Activities

923 Administration of Human Resource Programs

924 Administration of Environmental Quality Programs

925 Administration of Housing Programs/Urban & Community Planning

926 Administration of Economic Programs

927 Space Research and Technology

928 National Security and International Affairs

Appendix F: Retail Trade (44-45) NAICS Index[3]

NAICS – 2, 3, 4, 5, and 6

441: Motor Vehicle and Parts Dealers
- 4411 Automobile Dealers
  - 44111 New Car Dealers
  - 44112 Used Car Dealers
- 4412 Other Motor Vehicle Dealers
  - 44121 Recreational Vehicle Dealers
  - 44122 Motorcycle, Boat, and Other Motor Vehicle Dealers
    - 441221 Motorcycle Dealers
    - 441222 Boat Dealers
    - 441229 All Other Motor Vehicle Dealers
- 4413 Automotive Parts, Accessories, and Tire Stores
  - 44131 Automotive Parts and Accessories Stores
  - 44132 Tire Dealers

442: Furniture and Home Furnishings Stores
- 4421 Furniture Stores
  - 44211 Furniture Stores
- 4422 Home Furnishings Stores
  - 44221 Floor Covering Stores
  - 44229 Other Home Furnishings Stores
    - 442291 Window Treatment Stores
    - 442299 All Other Home Furnishings Stores

443: Electronics and Appliance Stores
- 4431 Electronics and Appliance Stores
  - 44311 Appliance, Television, and Other Electronics Stores
    - 443111 Household Appliance Stores
    - 443112 Radio/Television/Other Electronics Stores
  - 44312 Computer and Software Stores
  - 44313 Camera and Photographic Supplies Stores

444: Building Material and Garden Equipment and Supplies Dealers
- 4441 Building Material and Supplies Dealers
  - 44411 Home Centers
  - 44412 Paint and Wallpaper Stores
  - 44413 Hardware Stores
  - 44419 Other Building Material Dealers
- 4442 Lawn and Garden Equipment and Supplies Stores
  - 44421 Outdoor Power Equipment Stores
  - 44422 Nursery and Garden Centers

445: Food and Beverage Stores

[3] Table adapted from (USCB, 2012)

4451 Grocery Stores
- 44511 Supermarkets and Other Grocery Stores
- 44512 Convenience Stores

4452 Specialty Food Stores
- 44521 Meat Markets
- 44522 Fish and Seafood Markets
- 44523 Fruit and Vegetable Markets
- 44529 Other Specialty Food Stores
  - 445291 Baked Goods Stores
  - 445292 Confectionery and Nut Stores
  - 445299 All Other Specialty Food Stores

4453 Beer, Wine, and Liquor Stores
- 44531 Beer, Wine, and Liquor Stores

446: Health and Personal Care Stores

4461 Health and Personal Care Stores
- 44611 Pharmacies and Drug Stores
- 44612 Cosmetics, Beauty Supplies, and Perfume Stores
- 44613 Optical Goods Stores
- 44619 Other Health and Personal Care Stores
  - 446191 Food (Health) Supplement Stores
  - 446199 All Other Health and Personal Care Stores

447: Gasoline Stations

4471 Gasoline Stations
- 44711 Gasoline Stations with Convenience Stores
- 44719 Other Gasoline Stations

448: Clothing and Clothing Accessories Stores

4481 Clothing Stores
- 44811 Men's Clothing Stores
- 44812 Women's Clothing Stores
- 44813 Children's and Infants' Clothing Stores
- 44814 Family Clothing Stores
- 44815 Clothing Accessories Stores
- 44819 Other Clothing Stores

4482 Shoe Stores
- 44821 Shoe Stores

4483 Jewelry, Luggage, and Leather Goods Stores
- 44831 Jewelry Stores
- 44832 Luggage and Leather Goods Stores

451: Sporting Goods, Hobby, Book, and Music Stores

4511 Sporting Goods, Hobby, and Musical Instrument Stores
- 45111 Sporting Goods Stores
- 45112 Hobby, Toy, and Game Stores
- 45113 Sewing, Needlework, and Piece Goods Stores

45114 Musical Instrument and Supplies Stores
4512 Book, Periodical, and Music Stores
45121 Book Stores and News Dealers
451211 Book Stores
451212 News Dealers and Newsstands
45122 Prerecorded Tape, Compact Disc, and Record Stores

452: General Merchandise Stores

4521 Department Stores
45211 Department Stores
4529 Other General Merchandise Stores
45291 Warehouse Clubs and Superstores
45299 All Other General Merchandise Stores

453: Miscellaneous Store Retailers

4531 Florists
45311 Florists
4532 Office Supplies, Stationery, and Gift Stores
45321 Office Supplies and Stationery Stores
45322 Gift, Novelty, and Souvenir Stores
4533 Used Merchandise Stores
45331 Used Merchandise Stores
4539 Other Miscellaneous Store Retailers
45391 Pet and Pet Supplies Stores
45392 Art Dealers
45393 Manufactured (Mobile) Home Dealers
45399 All Other Miscellaneous Store Retailers
453991 Tobacco Stores
453998 All Other Miscellaneous Store Retailers

454: Non-store Retailers

4541 Electronic Shopping and Mail-Order Houses
45411 Electronic Shopping and Mail-Order Houses
4542 Vending Machine Operators
45421 Vending Machine Operators
4543 Direct Selling Establishments
45431 Fuel Dealers
454311 Heating Oil Dealers
454312 Liquefied Petroleum Gas Dealers
454319 Other Fuel Dealers
45439 Other Direct Selling Establishments

Appendix G: 2010 Standard Occupation Classification (SOC)[4]

Major Groups and Minor Groups

11: Management
- 11-1000 Top Executives
- 11-2000 Advertising, Marketing, Promotions, Public Relations, and Sales Managers
- 11-3000 Operations Specialties Managers
- 11-9000 Other Management Occupations

13: Business and Financial Operations
- 13-1000 Business Operations Specialists
- 13-2000 Financial Specialists

15: Computer and Mathematical
- 15-1100 Computer Occupations
- 15-2000 Mathematical Science Occupations

17: Architecture and Engineering
- 17-1000 Architects, Surveyors, and Cartographers
- 17-2000 Engineers
- 17-3000 Drafters, Engineering Technicians, and Mapping Technicians

19: Life, Physical, and Social Science
- 19-1000 Life Scientists
- 19-2000 Physical Scientists
- 19-3000 Social Scientists and Related Workers
- 19-4000 Life, Physical, and Social Science Technicians

21: Community and Social Service
- 21-1000 Counselors, Social Workers, and Community or Social Service Specialists
- 21-2000 Religious Workers

23: Legal
- 23-1000 Lawyers, Judges, and Related Workers
- 23-2000 Legal Support Workers

25: Education, Training, and Library
- 25-1000 Postsecondary Teachers
- 25-2000 Preschool, Primary, Secondary, and Special Education School Teachers
- 25-3000 Other Teachers and Instructors
- 25-4000 Librarians, Curators, and Archivists
- 25-9000 Other Education, Training, and Library Occupations

27: Arts, Design, Entertain., Sports, and Media
- 27-1000 Art and Design Workers
- 27-2000 Entertainers and Performers, Sports and Related Workers
- 27-3000 Media and Communication Workers
- 27-4000 Media and Communication Equipment Workers

[4] Table adapted from (US BLS, 2010)

29: Healthcare Practitioners and Technical

29-1000 Health Diagnosing and Treating Practitioners
29-2000 Health Technologists and Technicians
29-9000 Other Healthcare Practitioners and Technical Occupations

31: Healthcare Support

31-1000 Nursing, Psychiatric, and Home Health Aides
31-2000 Occupational Therapy and Physical Therapist Assistants and Aides
31-9000 Other Healthcare Support Occupations

33: Protective Service

33-1000 Supervisors of Protective Service Workers
33-2000 Fire Fighting and Prevention Workers
33-3000 Law Enforcement Workers
33-9000 Other Protective Service Workers

35: Food Preparation and Serving Related

35-1000 Supervisors of Food Preparation and Serving Workers
35-2000 Cooks and Food Preparation Workers
35-3000 Food and Beverage Serving Workers
35-9000 Other Food Preparation and Serving Related Workers

37: Building and Grounds Cleaning and Maintenance

37-1000 Supervisors of Building and Grounds Cleaning and Maintenance Workers
37-2000 Building Cleaning and Pest Control Workers
37-3000 Grounds Maintenance Workers

39: Personal Care and Service

39-1000 Supervisors of Personal Care and Service Workers
39-2000 Animal Care and Service Workers
39-3000 Entertainment Attendants and Related Workers
39-4000 Funeral Service Workers
39-5000 Personal Appearance Workers
39-6000 Baggage Porters, Bellhops, and Concierges
39-7000 Tour and Travel Guides
39-9000 Other Personal Care and Service Workers

41: Sales and Related

41-1000 Supervisors of Sales Workers
41-2000 Retail Sales Workers
41-3000 Sales Representatives, Services
41-4000 Sales Representatives, Wholesale and Manufacturing
41-9000 Other Sales and Related Workers

43: Office and Administrative Support

43-1000 Supervisors of Office and Administrative Support Workers
43-2000 Communications Equipment Operators
43-3000 Financial Clerks
43-4000 Information and Record Clerks

43-5000 Material Recording, Scheduling, Dispatching, and Distributing Workers
43-6000 Secretaries and Administrative Assistants
43-9000 Other Office and Administrative Support Workers

45: Farming, Fishing, and Forestry

45-1000 Supervisors of Farming, Fishing, and Forestry Workers
45-2000 Agricultural Workers
45-3000 Fishing and Hunting Workers
45-4000 Forest, Conservation, and Logging Workers

47: Construction and Extraction

47-1000 Supervisors of Construction and Extraction Workers
47-2000 Construction Trades Workers
47-3000 Helpers, Construction Trades
47-4000 Other Construction and Related Workers
47-5000 Extraction Workers

49: Installation, Maintenance, and Repair

49-1000 Supervisors of Installation, Maintenance, and Repair Workers
49-2000 Electrical and Electronic Equipment Mechanics, Installers, and Repairers
49-3000 Vehicle and Mobile Equipment Mechanics, Installers, and Repairers
49-9000 Other Installation, Maintenance, and Repair Occupations

51: Production

51-1000 Supervisors of Production Workers
51-2000 Assemblers and Fabricators
51-3000 Food Processing Workers
51-4000 Metal Workers and Plastic Workers
51-5100 Printing Workers
51-6000 Textile, Apparel, and Furnishings Workers
51-7000 Woodworkers
51-8000 Plant and System Operators
51-9000 Other Production Occupations

53: Transportation and Material Moving

53-1000 Supervisors of Transportation and Material Moving Workers
53-2000 Air Transportation Workers
53-3000 Motor Vehicle Operators
53-4000 Rail Transportation Workers
53-5000 Water Transportation Workers
53-6000 Other Transportation Workers
53-7000 Material Moving Workers

55: Military Specific

55-1000 Military Officer Special and Tactical Operations Leaders
55-2000 First-Line Enlisted Military Supervisors
55-3000 Military Enlisted Tactical Operations, Air/Weapons Specialists, and Crew