UNIVERSITY OF OKLAHOMA

GRADUATE COLLEGE

GENDER DIFFERENCES IN THE PROPENSITY TO INITIATE NEGOTIATIONS: ORGANIZATIONAL TRANSPARENCY, DIVERSITY CLIMATE, AND THE MEDIATING ROLE OF ORGANIZATIONAL TRUST

A DISSERTATION

SUBMITTED TO THE GRADUATE FACULTY

in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the

Degree of

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

By

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Norman, Oklahoma
2018

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GENDER DIFFERENCES IN THE PROPENSITY TO INITIATE NEGOTIATIONS: ORGANIZATIONAL TRANSPARENCY, DIVERSITY CLIMATE, AND THE MEDIATING ROLE OF ORGANIZATIONAL TRUST

A DISSERTATION APPROVED FOR THE
DEPARTMENT OF PSYCHOLOGY

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Acknowledgements

I wish to extend my sincerest thanks to everyone who contributed to the completion of this project and my learning and growth in general. First, I would like to thank my parents, William and Beryl, for always encouraging me to pursue my educational goals, no matter how big or small. Second, to my best friend, Katrine Fantini, thank you for being a constant cheerleader and friend in my times of need. To Sean Singh, you have been a wonderful light in my life and a shoulder to lean on when I needed it most. I would like to thank my undergraduate research assistants, Kristen Dunham, Kyrsten Willcutt, and Cody Boatman for their help collecting data and contributions in the early stages of this project. Additionally, I would like to thank Anusha Sadruddin, Alise Dabdoub, and Ally Finken for serving as expert raters for this project. Finally, I wish to extend my gratitude to Dr. Nancy LaGreca and Dr. Kathleeen Shea-Smith for providing mentorship and support in the final stages.

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Abstract

While much research has been conducted on gender and negotiation outcomes, fewer studies have explored the propensity to initiate negotiation and how employee gender impacts this decision. Characteristics of organizations, such as transparency, may also play a role in negotiation scenarios, as found in recent studies. While diversity climate has been shown to correspond to female and minority candidates' attraction to, contentment with, and performance in an organization, whether it influences negotiation behaviors is not yet known. Organizational transparency and diversity climate may influence negotiation behaviors through organizational trust, a key component in employee engagement. This two-study paper examined the mediating role of organizational trust in the relationship between organizational transparency, diversity climate, and gender in propensity to initiate negotiations. In the first study, organizational transparency and diversity climate were manipulated in a laboratory study to explore their effects on propensity to initiate negotiation among men and women. Results indicated that women were less likely than men to initiate negotiation. The second study surveyed working adults about initiation of and participation in negotiations, as well as the organization's transparency regarding policies and procedures, its diversity climate, and employee perceptions of organizational trust. Results indicated that organizational transparency and diversity climate influence initiation of negotiation and perception of negotiation outcomes. Trust was also found to be a significant mediator of the transparency and negotiation initiation and diversity climate and successful pay negotiations relationships.

Introduction

In April of 2017, the 9th U.S. Circuit Court of Appeals overturned a lower court ruling that pay differences based on prior salaries were discriminatory, ruling that it's not discriminatory to pay women less than men for the same job, so long as they applied previous salary information reasonably and had a business policy that justified it (Associated Press, 2017). This decision illuminates a larger issue: the fact that women make less money than their male counterparts for the same jobs and levels of experience persists (DeNavas-Walt & Proctor, 2015). Increased media attention on this pay disparity has placed greater pressure on organizations to address wage inequality as a social justice issue, as was seen in the Obama-era "Equal Pay Pledge" initiative, which numerous organizations signed (2016). While the current administration has yet to clarify whether they still support this initiative, one key provision requiring that pay reports be broken down by gender, race, and ethnicity has already been halted (Peck, 2017). Initial salary negotiation plays a role in setting up these gender disparities, as men tend to fare better in these negotiations (Bowles, Babcock, & Lai, 2007). Eliminating negotiation when hiring won't necessarily eliminate gender disparities in pay, however. Further research is needed to identify additional factors that impact negotiation initiation differences for men and women and the potential ways to eliminate these differences.

In negotiation, both parties must agree to negotiate for a negotiation to occur. This process typically involves one person explicitly approaching the other party with a negotiation attempt and the other party either accepting the invitation or rejecting it. This interchange is critical because it determines whether a negotiation will occur, let

alone an agreement be reached. When faced with negotiation attempts, there are several choices: engaging in negotiation, involving a third party, or avoiding negotiation (Bear, 2011). Though the bulk of the research has looked at the negotiation process and its outcomes, very little is known about the initiation of negotiation. Some research indicates that gender plays a role in determining the propensity to initiate negotiation, with evidence that women are less likely than men to initiate a negotiation (Babcock, Gelfand, Small, & Stayn, 2006; Small, Gelfand, Babcock, & Gettman, 2007). The presence of gender differences in the propensity to initiate negotiation has the potential to affect salary earnings for women compared to men, resulting in both current and lifetime earnings for women being less than those of their male counterparts (Misra & Murray-Close, 2014).

While a multitude of research and pop culture articles have prescribed how women can improve their negotiation skills in an attempt to diminish the wage gap, attention must also be paid to contextual factors that may influence initiation of negotiation (Stuhlmacher & Walters, 1999), including organizational level factors. Organizations may be able to meaningfully impact the initiation of negotiation through organizational level factors that have already shown promise in a variety of beneficial employee, organization, and shareholder outcomes. Specifically, organizational transparency, diversity climate, and organizational trust have been more recently researched and promoted as beneficial to organizational bottom lines and issues of employee retention and satisfaction (e.g., Gonzalez & DeNisi, 2009; Avery, McKay, Wilson, & Tonidandel, 2007; Hehman et al., 2012; Gower, 2006). Understanding and adopting organizational policies that increase transparency and promote high diversity

climates have the potential to increase organizational trust and further extend to the negotiation between employees and the organization, impacting the prominent gender differences at play in these negotiations (e.g., Babcock & Laschever, 2007; Pradel, Bowles, & McGinn,2005; Kray & Gelfand, 2009; Thus, the current research seeks to examine two potential ways to diminish or eliminate differences in negotiation initiation for men and women. Specifically, I will explore the potential impact of organizational transparency and diversity climate in the propensity to initiate negotiations for both men and women, through the mediating role of organizational trust. I will examine whether the degree of organizational transparency regarding policies and procedures and the degree of diversity climate differentially impact perceptions of organizational trust, which in turn may affect men's and women's propensity to initiate negotiations in their jobs. It is my hope that these studies will help researchers to better understand the first step in negotiations – their initiation – and the role of gender in this decision. I would like to understand how organizational transparency and/or diversity climate may motivate gender differences in the propensity to negotiate over resources such as compensation. Findings that increased organizational transparency and/or high diversity climate can diminish gender differences in propensity to initiate negotiation would have various practical implications, including suggestions for organizations when communicating about transparency and diversity climate.

Literature Review

One of the most commonly studied issues by economists and sociologists in recent years is the gender wage gap – the inequality of compensation for women compared to men (Misra & Murray-Close, 2014). The gender wage gap has become

more widely recognized as women have had an increased presence in the work force, have surpassed men in overall rates of college graduation and have almost reached parity with men in rates of earning doctoral and professional degrees (Mandel & Semyonov, 2014). In addition, levels of sex segregation have declined, and women have increased their representation in male-dominated occupations, particularly in managerial and high-status professional occupations (Blau, Ferber, & Winkler, 2013; Charles & Grusky 2004; Cotter, Hermsen, & Vanneman, 2004; DiPrete and Buchmann 2013; England, 2010; Jacobs & Lim, 1992). As a result, the gender wage gap has decreased with time, from 40% in 1960 to 22% in 2013, but has remained relatively constant since 2001 (Hegewisch, Williams, & Henderson, 2011; Hegewisch & Hartmann, 2014b). Thus, in 2017, the median wage for a woman working full-time in the United States was 80.5 percent of the median wage for a man working full-time (Hegewisch & Williams-Baron, 2018) The pay gap also extends to full compensation packages, with women less likely to be offered employer health insurance, retirement savings plans, or access to paid leave (DeNavas-Walt & Proctor, 2014).

Research has suggested that these pay gaps reflect, in part, the choices of men and women, especially the choice of college major and the type of job pursued after graduation (Hegewisch & Hartmann, 2014a). However, the gender pay gap is not fully accounted for by these choices (Blau & Kahn, 2007; Jagsi et al., 2012). After accounting for college major, occupation, economic sector, hours worked, months unemployed since graduation, GPA, type of undergraduate institution, institution selectivity, age, geographical region, and marital status, there remains a 7 percent difference in the earnings of male and female college graduates one year after

graduation that is still unexplained (Corbett & Hill, 2015). Similarly, research has indicated a 12 percent unexplained difference in earnings between male and female full-time workers 10 years after college graduation (Dey & Hill, 2007).

In general, the pay gap increases over time, with young people tending to start their careers with more similar salaries, with a larger gender gap emerging over time (DeNavas-Walt & Proctor, 2014). Studies of MBA and law school graduates found that although men and women had fairly similar earnings at graduation, ten to fifteen years later men earned approximately 55-60 percent more than women (Bertrand, Goldin, & Katz, 2010; Goldin, 2014). Even after accounting for time out of work and job tenure, a 13 percent gender wage gap remained (Goldin, 2014). Although gaps in work experience can account for some of the pay difference as women progress in their careers, a gap still remains between men and women with similar levels of experience, tenure, and credentials. This remaining gender wage gap could be due to a few factors. Gender discrimination (from the organization or management) is one possible explanation, and studies have borne this out (e.g., Goldin & Rouse, 2000; Steinpreis, Anders, & Ritzke, 1999; Moss-Racusin, Dovidio, Brescoll, Graham, & Handelsman, 2012; Neumark, Bank, & Van Nort, 1996). However, another possible explanation is differences in negotiating salaries. Starting with an individual's first job, the decision whether to negotiate and the relative success of negotiation outcomes may compound over time, increasing the lifetime gender wage gap.

Gender and Negotiation

Most of the early research that examined gender effects in negotiations focused on skills (Stevens, Bavetta, & Gist, 1993), strategies (Kaman & Hartel, 1994),

aspirations (Major, McFarlin, & Gagnon, 1984), preferences for equity (King & Hinson, 1994), and rewards for negotiating (Gerhart & Rynes, 1991). The findings were often linked to blatant discrimination in offers to male versus female negotiators (Ayres & Siegelman, 1995) and indicated that these negotiation differences accumulated over the course of their careers (Wood, Corcoran, & Courant, 1993). In more recent years, the research on gender and negotiation has focused almost exclusively on negotiation outcomes (Bear, 2011). In most of the lab studies on negotiation, individuals are given a task and instructed to conduct a negotiation. Participants are often given explicit instructions about the situation, such as to make offers and receive counteroffers or to achieve as much value for one's self as possible. Depending on the study, researchers may include best alternative to negotiated agreements (BATNAs) or target values (Babcock, Bowles, & Bear, 2012).

The gender discrepancy in negotiation outcomes is relatively robust in the literature. When women initiate negotiations, they ask for less, are more willing to accept offers, and make more generous offers to their negotiation partners than do men (Eckel, de Oliveira, & Grossman, 2008). Women report feeling intimidated by negotiations and express more relief than men do at having their first offers accepted (Kray & Gelfand, 2009). These accommodating behaviors invite exploitation; believing that women will accept less than men, negotiation opponents routinely make lower opening offers to women (Glick & Croson, 2001; Solnick, 2001). As a result, female negotiators obtain poorer individual outcomes than male negotiators (Amanatullah, Morris, & Curham, 2008; Stuhlmacher & Walters, 1999), and two women negotiating together build less total value than do two male negotiators (Curhan, Neale, Ross, &

Rosencranz-Engelmann, 2008; Miles & LaSalle, 2009). The gender disadvantage in negotiation is observed across a variety of contextual factors, including the relative power of the female negotiator and the integrative potential of the negotiating task (Stuhlmacher & Walters, 1999).

Several meta-analyses have examined the relationship between gender and negotiation. One meta-analysis (Stuhlmacher & Walters, 1999) indicated that women may be particularly disadvantaged when negotiations take place within an employment context (e.g., between an employee and an employer). Stuhlmacher and Walters (1999) found that gender effects in negotiation were smaller in studies in which there was no interaction outside the experiment and gender effects were larger in studies in which negotiators anticipated some future interaction. Women's relational concerns are particularly likely to be activated when there is a strong bond between negotiators and an expectation of ongoing interdependence (Gelfand, Major, Raver, Nishii, & O'Brien, 2006). These conditions are salient in employment negotiations when an employee expects a long-term working relationship with his or her negotiation opponent (e.g., when the person on the other side of the table is a supervisor or an upper level manager). A more recent meta-analysis found similar results, revealing that men achieved better economic outcomes than women on average, but gender differences strongly depended on the context (Mazei et al., 2014). These gender differences were found to be contextually bound and were reduced when negotiators had negotiation experience, when they received information about the bargaining range, and when they negotiated on behalf of another individual.

However, there is also evidence showing that, in certain negotiation situations, women perform as well as or outperform men. Walters, Stuhlmacher, and Meyer (1998) showed that gender accounted for less than 1% of the variance in negotiating competitiveness. This small gender difference was reduced in contexts that constrained negotiators' strategy choices (e.g., in prisoner's dilemma games) and was actually reversed when negotiators had greater freedom to communicate (Walters et al., 1998). Another situation when women may outperform men is when negotiating on behalf of others. Research has indicated that women's negotiation performance was slightly better than that of men when negotiating on behalf of others, rather than for themselves (Bowles, Babcock, & McGinn, 2005). In addition, when told that typical feminine characteristics are associated with success at the bargaining table, women also outperformed men (Kray, Galinsky, & Thompson, 2002). In a survey of Harvard MBA graduates, when men and women had equal knowledge about the current average salaries for their jobs, this difference in negotiation outcomes disappeared (Babcock & Laschever, 2007). These findings indicate that the gender differences in negotiation are not simply because one gender is objectively better at negotiating than the other. Rather, there may be many reasons for the gender discrepancy in negotiation, such as prescribed gender roles (Eagly, 1987) and situational structure.

Gender Roles

Gender is one of the most salient roles in people's lives. Our gender roles frequently set the expectations and norms that guide behavior in a given situation (Katz & Kahn, 1978) and are simple and easily accessible for the creation of stereotypes. These stereotypes can reflect society's segregation of men and women based on

prescribed roles, such as stereotypes of female nurses or male mechanics. According to social role theory (Eagly & Steffen, 1984) and the gender role framework (Gutek, Searle, & Klepa, 1991), gender role stereotypes are determined in part by society and reflect occupational and societal trends (Diekman & Eagly, 2000; Eagly & Steffen, 1984). Early research identified the masculine gender role as agency and the feminine gender role as communality (Bakan, 1966); agency is characterized by assertive and independent behavior while communality is characterized by caretaking and concern for others. Differences in gender roles, such as the tendency for women to fulfill the domestic role and for men to fulfill the breadwinner role (Diekman & Goodfriend, 2006; Eagly, Wood, & Diekman, 2000), might be based on early role divisions in which men, due to their physical strength, were hunters and home builders, while women fulfilled caregiving roles (Feingold, 1994). The gender roles were derived from the types of work traditionally performed by each sex. Similar occupational gender roles and stereotyping still exist today, with substantially more men than women in managerial, executive, and leadership roles in the workplace (Brady, Kaiser, Major, & Kirby, 2011).

Gender role stereotypes in the workplace are particularly important when considering that an increasing number of women are pursuing traditionally masculine jobs as well as higher-level managerial positions (Diekman & Goodfriend, 2006; Galanaki et al., 2009). The same, however, is not true for men, as they have not for the most part moved into traditionally feminine jobs at a similar rate (Diekman & Eagly, 2000; Diekman & Goodfriend, 2006; Eagly & Sczesny, 2009). Despite advances in women's role in the workplace, occupational segregation between genders still exists,

and as such, stereotypes related to gender roles are likely to remain present and affect social interactions in the workplace (Mihail, 2006).

Because of the saliency of gender roles, it is important to consider the outcomes associated with gender role stereotypes in the workplace. Gender role stereotypes influence occupation choice by affecting perceived ability and interest in different jobs (Oswald, 2008; Rudman & Phelan, 2010). Additionally, they can lead to varying perceptions and expectations of leaders (Cabrera, Sauer, & Thomas-Hunt, 2009; Embry, Padgett, & Caldwell, 2008), influence performance ratings (Bauer & Baltes, 2002; Bowen, Swim, & Jacobs, 2000) and affect income (Blau et al., 2013). Violating a gender role stereotype can influence other's judgments about the violator, with research showing that such violations are associated with more negative perceptions of job applicants (Wiley & Eskilson, 1985) and lower performance appraisal ratings (Butler & Skattebo, 2004). Being aware of a stereotype may also cause an individual to intentionally reduce performance to avoid outperforming an individual of the opposite sex on a task on which they are gender incongruent (Steele & Aronson, 1995). This reduction in performance may also extend to performance in negotiations (Kray, Thompson, & Galinsky, 2001; Bear, 2011).

The general tendency for women to engage in more accommodating behavior than men may reflect women's greater concern for relationships (Gelfand et al., 2006; Kray & Gelfand, 2009) or women's awareness that competitive behaviors may damage their social outcomes (Greig, 2008). As a result, women and men enter negotiations with different social utility functions (Loewenstein, Thompson, & Bazerman, 1989; Novemsky & Schweitzer, 2004). For women, social outcomes weigh more heavily than

economic outcomes, whereas for men the opposite may be true. These social utility functions indicate that women are generally more sensitive to perceived social costs than men are, favoring strategies that protect their social outcomes, often at the expense of their economic outcomes (Amanatullah et al., 2008; Niederle & Vesterlund, 2008). These social utility functions may also indicate that women assessing their overall outcomes will experience greater subjective value (Curhan et al., 2006) and be more satisfied than men when they end negotiations because they succeed in preserving relationships while placing less emphasis on improving their economic outcomes.

Early researchers in the negotiation literature classified effective negotiators in a way that may be viewed through the lens of gender roles. Effective negotiators were classified as assertive, rational, decisive, constructive, and intelligent (Raiffa, 1982) while ineffective negotiators were classified as weak, emotional, irrational, and too conciliatory (Lax & Sebenius, 1986). Many of these "effective" negotiator traits are perceived as masculine, while the traits of ineffective negotiators are perceived to be feminine (Williams & Best, 1982). Kray et al. (2001) conducted a series of studies examining how gender stereotypes affect negotiation performance. When negotiations were linked to gender-specific traits, men outperformed women. The authors suggested that the threat of negative stereotype confirmation hurt women's negotiation performance relative to men.

Other research has found that gender role incongruence with negotiation situation (topic being negotiated) influences a person's willingness to accept or avoid the negotiation attempt (Bear, 2011). Bear (2011) conducted two studies examining how incongruence between gender role and negotiation topic influence the likelihood of

avoiding the negotiation. Bear's (2011) studies demonstrated a two way interaction between gender and negotiation topic on avoidance. Women were significantly more likely to avoid negotiation about a masculine topic – compensation – than men. Conversely, men were significantly more likely to avoid negotiation about a feminine topic – access to a lactation room – than women. This interaction was mediated by feelings of aversion to the negotiation situation.

Gender and Propensity to Initiate Negotiation

While much of the negotiation literature has looked at negotiation outcomes, a lack of understanding about negotiation initiation persists. Generally speaking, there can be many reasons for an individual to not choose to negotiate, such as fear of failure, discomfort, and lack or perceived lack of (negotiation) skills (Bear, 2011). Though less is known about how gender relates to the propensity to initiate negotiations, some more recent studies have indicated that gender differences in negotiation initiation do exist. One of the earlier studies (Gerhart & Rynes, 1991) asked graduating MBA students whether they negotiated their job offer with their new employer. They found that 15% of women versus 23% of men initiated negotiation, though in this particular case it did not reach statistical significance. More recent studies have supported the notion that women are less likely to negotiate their first job offer than men, finding that when MBAs were surveyed about whether they attempted to negotiate when they received their job offer, 7% of women attempted to negotiate, while 57% of men did (Babcock & Laschever, 2007). Of those negotiating, the average salary increase obtained was about 7%. Other researchers have indicated that in general, women are less likely than men to initiate negotiations (Babcock, et al., 2006; Small et al., 2007).

There can be many reasons why an individual may not initiate a negotiation, but with regards to gender, one possibility is the extent to which individuals recognize opportunities to initiate negotiations (Babcock et al., 2012). The ability to perceive these opportunities can be influenced by intra-individual processes (such as locus of control) or by structural factors like having access to information about organizational resources. Oftentimes, this refers to social networks – mentors, other department members – who may help employees learn what is and is not negotiable in the organization (Babcock et al., 2012). Studies have shown that women have less access to these social networks than men (Ibarra, 1992) and their networks tend to be less dense and less connected to central decision makers (Brass, 1985; Mehra, Kilduff, & Brass, 1998), implying that women may receive less advice and/or encouragement to pursue negotiation.

Additionally, women may have a greater tendency to avoid negotiation because of negative associations about the activity. Findings from previous research on gender and negotiation support the prediction that women are more likely than men to perceive negotiation as aversive. Studies have indicated that women rate negotiating as significantly more aversive than men (Small et al., 2007) and that initiation of a negotiation elicits greater nervousness on the part of women than men (Babcock et al., 2006; Bowles et al., 2007).

Although negotiation can lead to greater career prospects and higher wages, it can also be socially detrimental, particularly for women. Bowles et al., (2007) had participants read and watch a variety of negotiation scenarios and found that women were more often penalized for initiating negotiations, largely because female

negotiators, while perceived as technically competent, were also viewed as socially incompetent. Often, women who choose to initiate a negotiation face a dilemma of how to reap the social benefits of an accommodating style (i.e., maintaining warmth) while improving their economic outcomes (i.e., by acting competently) (Kulik & Olekalns, 2012).

Competitive behaviors may evoke negative reactions if the behaviors are attributed directly to the female negotiator ("She's pushy") rather than to the negotiating context ("The offer is below industry standards"). Because dispositional attributions are automatic (Kunda, 1999), counter-normative behaviors displayed by a woman are more likely to be attributed to her personal characteristics than to external variables. This effect can be amplified during negotiations because negotiation contexts present a great deal of ambiguity about what might be appropriate behavior (Bowles et al., 2005). In such "weak" situations, individual behavior is likely to be attributed to personal characteristics (Bowles et al., 2005; Mischel, 1977). As a result, when a woman employs competitive tactics during the negotiation, her negotiation partner may be likely to conclude that she has deliberately chosen to violate prescriptive norms and to perceive her as unlikeable and pushy.

To prevent backlash for women initiating and participating in negotiations, there may be some solutions. Over the years, many have placed the burden on women, focusing on suggestions like "she has to ask, she has to work around double binds, she has to deal with backlash" (Kolb, 2009, p.526). While women can certainly individually strive to improve their negotiation outcomes, it is important to consider gender and negotiation issues in a broader, institutional frame. The literature has indicated the

importance of the situational context and as such, organizations may be able to make changes that impact the negotiation situation. Given the impact of situational ambiguity, perceptions of communication of clear and consistently applied organizational policy and procedures may serve as cues about the acceptability of initiating negotiation.

Organizational Transparency

Transparency has been tied to trust, corporate social responsibility (CSR), and ethics (Rawlins, 2008a, 2008b). At its simplest, transparency is the opposite of secrecy. It means deliberately revealing one's actions. Balkin (1999) identified three types of transparency that work together but are analytically distinct: informational, participatory, and accountability. Transparency efforts of organizations need all three qualities to build and restore trust with stakeholders. Therefore, transparency is defined as having these three important elements: information that is truthful, substantial, and useful; participation of stakeholders in identifying the information they need; and objective, balanced reporting of an organization's activities and policies that holds the organization accountable. Transparency can be described as the organization's attempts to have their actions and decisions ''ascertainable and understandable by a party interested in those actions or decisions'' (Gower, 2006, p. 95). In addition to the information provided is the perception of how it is delivered. The stakeholders, which can include any number of individuals who can affect or are affected by the organization, need to perceive or believe that the organization is transparent and that they are being told everything they need to know (Gower, 2006).

Lack of clarity in negotiation situations can lead to increases in gender differences. While gaps in negotiated salaries are small in "low-ambiguity situations,"

in “high-ambiguity situations”, women received about $10,000 less than similarly-qualified men (Babcock & Laschever, 2007). In highly ambiguous negotiations, when there is a high degree of secrecy and uncertainty, it is more likely that gender triggers (i.e., situational cues priming male/female differences) will influence negotiation behaviors and outcomes (Pradel et al., 2005). This is particularly problematic if competition is high, as men tend to be more competitive, and thus may be more likely to succeed in the ambiguous negotiation scenarios (Pradel et al., 2005).

Recent research has borne this out. In a series of studies examining the relationship between gender and reactions to having one’s first offer accepted in negotiations, Kray and Gelfand (2009) found that when behavioral norms regarding negotiation are ambiguous, women were more likely to experience relief following a first offer acceptance than men. Pradel et al., (2005) made recommendations for ways women can prepare for negotiations, including obtaining information about the industry and organization. Bowles et al. (2005) demonstrated that when negotiators knew their negotiating limits and had clear and specific information about what would be a good agreement price in their negotiations, there were no gender differences in pre-negotiation targets, intended first offers, or final negotiated outcomes. In contexts that prime negotiators to feel powerful, women experience less aversion to negotiation (Small et al., 2007) and their economic outcomes improve (Kray, Reb, Galinsky, & Thompson, 2004). These findings highlight that women’s behavior is not static but dynamic and highly responsive to cues in the situational context (Bowles & McGinn, 2008; Small et al., 2007). Thus, organizations have the ability to modify negotiation contexts to reduce gender differences in negotiation.

Organizations could potentially minimize negative violations for women who negotiate by creating strong situations (Mischel, 1977) that clearly specify when it is legitimate to pursue improved economic outcomes and signal that negotiation behaviors are normative for both men and women. When organizations create strong situations, they develop transparent criteria for negotiation processes and reduce the potential for under-the-table "preferential" deal making that favors some employees over others (Rousseau, 2004). For example, researchers have recommended that organizations clearly establish a "zone of negotiability" (Rousseau, 2005) that specifies the conditions of employment that can be negotiated without violating workplace norms. When a zone has not been explicitly defined, employment negotiations take on a political tone (Rousseau, 2005) and women may be particularly reluctant to initiate a negotiation (Small et al., 2007), especially around pay and other employment terms (Bear, 2011). It has been suggested that if the negotiation terms are made explicit, male and female employees are equally likely to recognize opportunities for successful negotiation (Rousseau, Ho, & Greenberg, 2006) and women may incur fewer penalties for negotiating. Clarifying the zones of negotiability is important because they define what is negotiable (Rousseau, 2005). Because women may be uncertain about what they are entitled to (Barron, 2003), organizations that provide transparent information about what is negotiable may be more likely to narrow the gender gap in salary.

These zones of negotiability also define how much is negotiable by specifying the range across which employment terms might vary. Organizations usually do not systematically disseminate information about the customized deals employees have negotiated, and therefore employees' perceptions of the negotiable range depend on the

fragmented information they can piece together from their social networks. But men and women have different social networks, and so they access different information (Ely & Meyerson, 2000; Sturm, 2009). Without reliable organizational data on negotiable ranges, women are likely to base their negotiations on the economic outcomes of other women within their social networks; these women, however, may constitute a disadvantaged in-group and establish an artificially low standard (Bylsma & Major, 1994). Further, these zones of negotiability specify when to negotiate by clarifying the conditions (e.g., performance criteria) the organization requires to negotiate certain employment terms (Rousseau, 2005). If an organization is explicit about "what it takes" to negotiate alternative levels of employment terms, idiosyncratic deals may be discussed openly among coworkers and fairness across employees could be maintained. In this type of situation, women may be more motivated to negotiate economic outcomes because they know they are operating within a legitimate organizational framework for outcome distribution. More aggressive tactics (e.g., threats to reject the offer or generating counteroffers) are likely less necessary in these situations (Rousseau, 2005), encouraging female negotiators by clarifying that the behavior is not gender counter-normative and therefore is unlikely to generate backlash.

Field and laboratory studies have provided evidence suggesting that the gender gap may be reduced when organizations pay attention to zones of negotiability. Bowles et al., (2005) surveyed graduating MBA students to examine the effects of structural ambiguity on salary negotiations. Participants were asked about their new jobs, including company name, job function, industry, location, and base salary. There were no gender differences in male and female MBA starting salaries in low structural

ambiguity industries (i.e., when participants indicated that they had knowledge of the explicit norms about salary ranges and appropriate standards for deviations from that base within a particular industry), whereas these gender differences were apparent in high structural ambiguity industries (Bowles et al., 2005). Some research has suggested that organizations may be more successful in eliminating gender gaps if they frame opportunities as "asking" zones rather than zones of negotiability. Small et al. (2007) investigated when men and women initiate negotiations in the absence of overt prescriptions to negotiate. In their series of studies, they had participants play the word game "Boggle" and were all told that they would be compensated between $3 and $10 after the researcher scored their rounds. When they added explicitly telling research participants that payment is negotiable, it increased women's negotiation rates but not to the level of men's rates. When participants were instructed that they could ask for more and told that many participants had previously asked for more, women negotiated at the same rate as men (Small et al., 2007). This study presents initial evidence that greater clarity about the acceptability of negotiation can influence the propensity to initiate negotiation. However, it should be noted that there was an explicit compensation range (so participants knew the maximum they could receive) and it was indicated that their compensation was tied to their performance on the word game. Additionally, the scenario used in this study may not have had high fidelity to actual salary negotiations for a new job. When negotiating for salary at a new organization, the stakes are much higher than a $7 payment for a lab study. Thus, it is necessary to examine gender and the propensity to initiate negotiation in organizational contexts and how organizational context variables might affect this phenomenon.

A recent field study (Leibbrandt & List, 2015) sought to examine gender differences in the willingness to enter negotiations and negotiable workplaces in actual labor markets. This study does look explicitly at gender and a "cue" to negotiate in an organizational setting. In their natural field experiment, they posted job openings with varying information regarding the negotiability of the wages (none versus explicit information that wages are negotiable) and the gendered nature of the job tasks to be performed for the administrative assistant position (a general or gender neutral description vs a masculine, sports-focused description). The researchers found that when there was no explicit statement that wages are negotiable, men were more likely to negotiate for a higher wage, whereas women were more likely to signal their willingness to work for a lower wage. When the response email to job-seekers who signaled interest in the job explicitly mentioned the possibility that wages are negotiable, these differences disappeared. The researchers noted that men, in contrast to women, prefer job environments where the "rules of wage determination" are ambiguous. This leads to the gender gap being much more pronounced in jobs that leave negotiation of wage ambiguous. Leibbrandt and List's (2015) field study provides initial support that organizations may be able to eliminate or diminish gender differences in initiation of negotiation if they are transparent about their willingness to engage in negotiation.

While Leibbrandt and List's (2015) study indicated that making zones of negotiability clear influences negotiation behaviors, it may be the case that organizational transparency more generally influences negotiation. Research in the field of academia has indicated the potential role of organizational transparency with regards

to gender equality in the recruitment and selection process (Van den Brink, Benschop, & Jansen, 2010). Specifically, enhancing transparency during recruitment and selection may be one important aspect of promoting gender equality (Van den Brink et al. 2010). Within the academic system, which has traditionally been seen as an "informal, closed decision-making process" (Van den Brink & Benschop, 2012), the need for more transparency and accountability has the potential to benefit women (Van den Brink et al., 2010). This is consistent with previous research indicating that more gender bias occurs in situations when criteria aren't made clear and the processes are kept confidential (Allen, 1988; Husu, 2000; Ledwith & Manfredi 2000; Martin 1994; Rees, 2005; Ziegler, 2001). While this research has focused on recruitment and selection in academia, it is likely that transparency may also play an important role in the initiation of negotiation for both potential and current employees in the private sector as well. Thus, the present study seeks to examine how organization transparency in general (i.e., transparency of organizational procedures, accountability) may help mitigate potential gender differences in the propensity to initiate negotiation.

Diversity Climate

Although organizational transparency has shown preliminary evidence of diminishing gender differences in negotiations, it may not be the only way for an organization to impact gender differences in negotiation. Transparency may signal that the organization is open to negotiation, but it may not be enough to overcome these pronounced gender differences in negotiation. Since women may experience backlash for acting incongruently with gender role stereotypes, such as initiating and proactively negotiating for themselves (Rudman & Glick, 2001), organizations that convey they are

accepting of behavior that falls outside gender stereotype norms may additionally promote equality in negotiation initiation. One such way to communicate this value is through diversity climate.

Organizational efforts and investments in the intentional management of diversity continue to grow (Carrell, Mann, & Sigler, 2006; Frankel, 2009). Diversity is defined as the degree of intra-organizational representation of people with different group affiliations of cultural significance (Cox. 1994). It has been suggested that diversity can lead to expanding the number of perspectives and experiences within an organization and can serve as a strategic resource to the organization in securing a competitive advantage (Richard, 2000). The implementation of diversity initiatives in an organization should lead to changes in employee perceptions regarding the importance of diversity within the organization (Cox & Blake, 1991; Gelfand et al., 2006). As such, it becomes important to understand the diversity climate, or "aggregate perceptions about the organization's diversity-related formal structure characteristics and informal values" (Gonzalez & DeNisi, 2009, p. 24).

Diversity climate provides important information regarding the efficacy of organizational diversity programs by providing direct insight into the actual employee experience with the organization (Schneider et al., 2003). Previous research supports the associations between diversity climate and a wide array of important organizational outcomes, including the heterogeneity of an organization (Kossek & Zonia, 1993), turnover intentions (McKay et al., 2007), organizational commitment, job satisfaction, career commitment, career satisfaction, and satisfaction with managers (Hickes-Clarke & Iles, 2000). Diversity climate has also been shown to mitigate the adverse effects of

diversity such as increased relationship conflict, decreased productivity and intention to quit, and lower organizational commitment (Gonzalez & DeNisi, 2009). Additionally, employee perceptions of the organization's support for diversity, a construct that is conceptually similar to diversity climate perception, were positively associated with organizational commitment and decreased absenteeism across various racial-ethnic groups, including non-minority employees (Avery et al., 2007). The decreased adverse effects could potentially extend to gender negotiation differences, with those organizations with high diversity climates potentially mitigating these differences.

Diversity climate research has indicated that perceived openness to differences may particularly influence minorities' responses. Hehman et al. (2012) found that members of both racial-ethnic and situational minority (i.e., minority status is only present in a specific situation, such as with White students in a predominantly Black school) groups prefer pluralistic, multiculturalist perspectives more than members of majority groups. Organizations that acknowledge and value diversity are positively associated with minority employees' employment status and negatively associated with retention intentions (Konrad & Linehan, 1995; McKay et al., 2007). The salient presence of diversity cues has been found to influence minority, but not White-majority job-seekers' perceptions of organizational attractiveness (Perkins, Thomas, & Taylor, 2000; Walker, Field, Berneth, & Beckon, 2012). For those in the White-majority, the extent to which an organization is open to differences appears to be less influential, because being different is seen as a minority attribute while the White-majority group is considered the default racial-ethnic category (McDermott & Samsom, 2005; Unzueta & Binning, 2010). Majority group members often perceive that diversity initiatives do not

apply to them while minority group members associate diversity initiatives more strongly with their self-concept (Plaut, Garnett, Buffardi, & Sanchez-Burks, 2011). Increasing the situational salience of different diversity ideologies affects minorities', but not majorities', self-perceptions and performance (e.g., Holoien & Shelton, 2010). Though much of the research on diversity climate has focused more on racial-ethnic differences than on gender differences, the results may still generally apply to women (who are often the minority) versus men (who are often the majority) within many organizations.

Organizations that have a strong diversity climate and are shown to value and seek out diversity are also likely to have differential effects on employees' career-related self-perceptions and decisions. Social cognitive career development models have shown that career related goals and behaviors are strongly tied with contextual variables, which can either form support- or barrier-like mechanisms (e.g., Lent & Brown, 2013). In an academic context, diversity-related contextual supports, such as a positive campus climate which entails safe intergroup relations with limited perceived discrimination, are positively associated with minority students' academic self-efficacy, and academic goal pursuits in areas in which they are typically underrepresented (Byars-Winston, Estrada, Howard, Davis & Zalapa, 2010). Similar to the way in which strong academic diversity climates result in minority (non-White and female) students increasing both their interest in and pursuit of the areas in which they have been underrepresented, organizations with a strong diversity climate may create an environment open to differences, which then could form contextual support for minorities to have more positive expectations regarding working at the organization.

These positive expectations regarding working at the organization may extend not only to interest and pursuit in a particular organization, but in the ability of minorities (non-White and female) to negotiate. Since the threat of negative stereotype confirmation can hurt women's negotiation performance relative to men (Kray et al., 2001), it becomes important for the organization to consider its role in this threat. Organizations that show support for diversity may indicate to women (and other minorities) that they are not male-centered or male-dominated and as such, are more open to the influence of women's perceptions and work-related preferences in their organization. Organizations perceived as having a strong diversity climate may lead women to feel that their decisions and choices will be respected and attended to equally to their male counterparts. As such, women may be more likely to initiate negotiations in organizations perceived as valuing diversity. This could then lead to better negotiation outcomes for women, such that gender wage gaps are reduced.

Current Research

The current research seeks to examine the effects of organizational transparency, diversity climate, and gender on negotiation in two studies. The first study empirically tested the links between gender, organizational transparency, diversity climate, and propensity to initiate negotiation in an experimental setting. The second study addressed potential weaknesses of the first study as well as introduced a mediating model to test these relationships. A survey of working adults examined actual negotiation initiation and outcomes in participants' first and current jobs with their organization and perceptions of organizational transparency, diversity climate, and organizational trust. The goal of both studies was to examine whether and how gender effects on negotiation

are mitigated by organizational transparency of pay, promotion, and negotiation policies and procedures and strong diversity climate.

Study 1

In the first study, I utilized a student sample to examine the effects of participant gender, organizational transparency, and diversity climate on propensity to initiate negotiations in an experimental setting. Organizational transparency and diversity climate were manipulated and the focus was on the propensity to initiate negotiation in a role-playing scenario. Participants took on the role of a recently graduated student who was offered a job from a company and is expected to craft a response to the job offer, with the potential for initiating a negotiation about the initial offer. Additionally, I examined the impact of organizational transparency, that is, the clarity about the organization's policies and procedures regarding pay and promotion, as well as diversity climate. Previous research has indicated that overall, men will initiate negotiations more than women when starting a new job and within their current job (Babcock et al. 2006; Small et al., 2007). This finding has been fairly robust in the literature, so my study seeks to confirm this general finding. My first set of hypotheses is consistent with this line of research, anticipating gender differences to arise in propensity to initiate negotiations:

H1: Men will initiate negotiations more than women when considering a job offer.

Given the overall robustness of the finding that men both initiate and achieve greater negotiation outcomes then women, it is important to consider the way in which these effects can be mitigated or diminished. Some researchers have suggested that the

situation itself influences the success of a negotiation (Babcock & Laschever, 2007; Mazei et al., 2014). Specifically, the ambiguity of the situation can play a role in negotiations, such that a lack of certainty or understanding can lead to confusion and the decision to avoid negotiation all together, or acquiesce sooner or for less in a negotiation. As organizational transparency refers to the organization providing clear and defined information on the policies and procedures regarding pay/promotion/negotiation, I anticipate that organizational transparency will lead to a less ambiguous situation that allows for participants to more successfully navigate negotiations. In the current study, organizational transparency was manipulated to examine high and low transparency in a situation that is relatively amenable to negotiation. Transparency was made explicit in the high condition through the company's website and the job listing, whereas in the low transparency condition, little information was provided to indicate organizational transparency. I thus expected that increasing the organization's transparency leads to a less ambiguous situation, which should allow for participants to be more willing to initiate negotiation:

H2: Organizational transparency will be positively related to initiating negotiation.

Previous research has indicated that when situations are more ambiguous and norms less clear, the potential impact of negative stereotypes and preconceptions is stronger (Pradel et al., 2005). For women in particular, the uncertainty can lead to a reliance on gender stereotypes of warmth and compassion rather than assertiveness and control (Fiske, Cuddy, Glick, & Xu, 2002; Eagly, 1997), affecting inclination to negotiate due to fear of being perceived negatively. As a result they may be less likely to receive pay increases or promotions than the more "assertive" men (Eagly, 1997).

Because organizational transparency creates a less ambiguous situation, there is less potential room for stereotypes to negatively impact negotiation. Therefore, I believe that organizational transparency will lead to decreased differences between men and women in negotiations:

H3: There will be an interaction effect, such that there will be reduced differences in initiating negotiations for men and women provided with organizational transparency, while there will be greater gender differences for the non-transparent control group.

In addition to organizational transparency, it is important to consider other ways gender differences in negotiation can be diminished. Research has indicated that placing importance on diversity programs and the development of a diversity climate serve to attract and retain minority employees (e.g. Avery et al., 2007, Gonzalez & DeNisi, 2009), with little or no influence on majority employees (e.g., Perkins et al. 2000; McDermott & Samsom, 2005; Unzueta & Binning, 2010). It stands to reason that this positive effect may also extend to minority employees' initiation of and performance in negotiations. Since diversity climate seems intrinsically tied to minority and not majority members' perceptions and outcomes, I believe differences in perceived levels of diversity climate will only matter for women (in comparison to men) in negotiations. By indicating their support of diversity, high diversity climate organizations may become not only more attractive to women (and other minorities), but indicate that they are receptive and supportive of them. The organization may be seen as less male-centered or male-dominant, and as such more open to non-stereotypical behavior by women in their organization. Thus, women may be more likely to initiate negotiations in organizations perceived as valuing diversity. Specifically, the current study examined high and low

diversity climate in a situation that is relatively amenable to negotiation. High diversity climate was manipulated through the company's website and the job listing whereas in the low diversity climate condition, the company information did not promote diversity beyond the federal/state compliance requirements.

H4: There will be an interaction effect, such that there will be reduced differences in initiating negotiations for men and women in organizations with strong diversity climate, while there will be greater gender differences for those with weak diversity climate.

In addition to examining the effects of organizational transparency and diversity climate on gender and negotiation separately, I investigated how the two factors may work together to affect gender differences in initiation of negotiation. Because greater organizational transparency and high diversity climate are predicted to diminish gender differences in negotiation, I predict that the condition that includes both of these characteristics will lead to the smallest gender differences in initiating negotiations. Additionally, those participants who experience low organizational transparency and low (or not apparent) diversity climate will have the greatest gender differences in initiating negotiation.

H5: There will be a three-way interaction effect, such that there will be reduced differences in initiating negotiation for men and women in organizations with high diversity climate and increased organizational transparency, while there will be greater gender differences for those in the non-transparent and low diversity climate group.

Method

Participants

A total of 254 (102 male and 152 female) students at a large public university in the Southwestern United States participated in the study for course credit. Participants provided demographic information including age, ethnicity, year in school, major(s), GPA, and work history. On average, participants were 20 years of age and a majority (79%) were in their first or second year of undergraduate education. A variety of races and ethnicities were reported, with 71% Caucasian, 13% Asian, 8% African-American, 9% Native American, 7% Hispanic, 4% Middle Eastern, and 2% Other (participants could select multiple ethnicities, so these percentages exceed 100). While only 41% of participants indicated that they were currently employed, 89% of participants had previous work experience. On average, participants had 27 months of part or full time work experience.

A power analysis was conducted using the software package GPower (Faul, Erdfelder, Buchner, & Lang, 2009). A sample size of 250 was used for the statistical power analysis and the 3 way (2x2x2) ANOVA. I used the effect size conventions for small (f=.10), medium (f=.25), and large (f=.40) and alpha level p<.05 for the power analyses. The analysis indicated that statistical power for the omnibus tests (df=1 and df=2) exceeded the .80 level for the medium to large effect sizes, though there was less than adequate statistical power at the small effect size. While analyses for the simple effects indicated that power did not reach .80 for any of the effect sizes, there was adequate power for detecting effects in the omnibus analyses.

Procedure

This study used a 2 (participant gender) by 2 (organizational transparency present or not) by 2 (diversity climate high or low) between-subjects design to assess propensity to initiate negotiations. Participants were randomly assigned to one of one of four groups: high organizational transparency, high diversity climate; high organizational transparency, low diversity climate; low organizational transparency, high diversity climate; or low organizational transparency, low diversity climate. Participants completed various measures and demographic information. They then took on a role in a job scenario, were offered a job, and were asked to make a decision about the job and potentially initiate negotiation about the terms of the position. Participants answered follow-up questions about their decision and filled out additional individual difference measures.

Job Scenario

Participants were brought into the lab for a study on workplace hiring practices and decision making processes. They read a scenario that asked them to take on the role of newly graduated student applying for a job in marketing. They were provided with a resume that described their major, degree, GPA, skills and qualifications, internships, courses taken, and awards. They were told they have applied to positions at a lot of companies, but are ultimately hoping to work for Dynamic Marketing Solutions, with whom they have already interviewed. Information about Dynamic Marketing Solutions was provided via a company website which highlighted the company and included the manipulations of organization transparency and diversity climate. Additionally, participants were given the listing of the job that they applied for, including the job

description, relevant task, skills, and abilities, necessary qualifications, and a further manipulation of organizational transparency and diversity, consistent with the information found on the company website. In the scenario, participants received a job offer from Dynamic Marketing Solutions, indicating a starting salary and benefits, and requesting response from the participant: "We would like you to start work in 3 weeks, with a starting salary of $35,000, 1 week vacation, with an additional vacation day added for every 6 months worked at the company (up to 3 weeks total), and access to the company health, dental, and vision plans. Please give us your final decision by the end of the day. If you have any additional questions or would like to further discuss the offer, please let us know." (See Appendix A).

Organizational Transparency

The manipulation of organizational transparency occurred in the company information page as well as the job listing page. On the company page, transparency was manipulated in how the company is described, with the high organizational transparency condition discussing openness with employees, encouraging communication and discussion, seeking feedback from employees, and being open to hearing employee ideas and suggestions. The low transparency/control condition excluded any explicit information about the company's transparency and instead focused on how the company strives to hire the best people and help them be successful (which is also included in the "high" transparency condition). The job listing included a statement about Dynamic Marketing Solutions' core values and culture, with a focus on being authentic, open-minded, collaborative and empowering their employees to do great work. The low condition eliminated these indicators of high transparency and

openness to employees, focusing on organizational effectiveness and performance (See Appendix B).

Diversity Climate

To manipulate diversity climate, the company information page and job listing page were altered. On the company page, the high diversity climate condition discussed the importance of diversity in the organization and specific ways they seek to address it. The low diversity climate/control condition only included a generic statement about being an equal employment opportunity employer. On the job listing page, the high diversity climate condition included a section stating the importance of diversity and inclusion and how and why it's important. In the low diversity condition, there was a statement regarding compliance with the EEO and law requirements (See Appendix B).

Negotiation Response

After reading through the scenario, participants were directed to answer open-ended questions about the job offer, including whether they would accept the job. They were then asked to respond to the hiring manager's email offer. Participants were directed to be as detailed and specific as possible and include any questions and points of discussion, as well as their decision about the job.

Ratings of Email Responses

In order to examine whether participants initiated negotiation, three raters familiar with negotiation research coded the participant email responses. Raters were trained via frame-of-reference (FOR) training (Bernadin & Buckley, 1981) by becoming familiar with the questions and rating scales in a 2 hour training program.

Raters were provided operational definitions of the dimensions of interest, including whether negotiation was attempted, whether participants accepted the job offer, and tactics employed if participants negotiated. Practice and feedback on a series of sample responses was required by the raters. Interrater reliability analysis using the Kappa statistic was performed to determine consistency among raters. Strong agreement was found for both negotiation initiation and acceptance of job offer (Fleiss' Kappa = 0.74, p <.0.001; Fleiss' Kappa = 0.67, p<0.0001, respectively).

Negotiation Questions

Following completion of the scenario responses, participants were prompted to answer questions regarding the scenario and whether they considered negotiating. They were prompted to specify the topics on which they wanted to negotiate. If they did not consider negotiation, they were asked to specify reasons why, such as if they were happy with the offer or worried they might lose the offer.

Interest and Manipulation Check

To ensure that participants were engaged and that the manipulations worked as expected, manipulation check questions assessed perceptions of the extent to which Dynamic Marketing Solutions values and/or promotes diversity and possesses transparency on a 5-point Likert scale, from "not at all" to "to a great extent". In addition, participants were asked to report how interested they were in the specific job and in working for Dynamic Marketing Solutions on a 5-point scale from "not at all" to "to a great extent".

Results

The goal of this study was to examine how gender, organizational transparency, and diversity climate may impact the propensity to initiate negotiations. Participants took on the role of a job seeker and responded to a job offer from a company, with the potential to initiate a negotiation. In addition to assessing the hypotheses, I also assessed follow-up negotiation questions, interest/engagement in the study, and manipulation checks.

Ratings of Email Responses

Interrater reliability analysis using the Kappa statistic was performed to determine consistency among the three email raters. Strong agreement was found for both negotiation initiation and acceptance of job offer (Fleiss' Kappa = 0.74, p <.0.001; Fleiss' Kappa = 0.67, p<0.0001, respectively). Only 22% of the participants initiated a negotiation in their email response to the job offer.

Negotiation Questions

Fifty percent (127) of the participants indicated that they considered negotiating. Results of a binary logistic regression indicated that there was no significant association between negotiation consideration and gender ($\chi^2(1) = .59$, $p > .05$). For those participants who considered negotiating, they were asked to select all topics on which they were interested in negotiating, with the majority indicating that they had considered negotiating for salary (73%). Other topics of negotiation considered included benefits (35%), vacation time (31%), start date (25%), bonuses (16%),

schedule (9%), work equipment (8.6%), job duties/responsibilities (6%), office space (5.5%), and company car (4.7%).

Of those who did not consider negotiation, the majority responded that they were satisfied with the job offer (69%), while 53% indicated that they were worried about asking for too much, and 46% worried they would lose the job offer if they did. Chi-square analyses were also conducted to examine whether men and women differed in their reasons for not negotiating. See Table 1 for a breakdown of reasons negotiation was not considered, including rates for males and female and results of chi-square tests. Women were more likely than men to worry about asking for too much, while more men than women reported feeling satisfied with the job offer.

Interest and Manipulation Check

To ensure that participants were engaged and that the manipulations worked as expected, I assessed perceptions and knowledge about the research scenario. There was no significant effect of gender on job interest (t (252) = -.347, $p > .05$), company interest (t (252) = -.71, $p > .05$), extent to which they thought negotiation was possible ((t (252) = -.921, $p > .05$), or perception of the hiring director's gender ($\chi^2(2) = 2.51., p > .05$). The majority of participants reported the hiring director's gender as male (48%) or gender unknown (47%). Additionally, only 2% of participants reported taking previous courses in negotiation. Participants indicated having taken an average of .60 business courses (SD=1.36).

Perceptions of diversity and transparency of the company were assessed. There was no significant effect of diversity condition on diversity perceptions (t (252) = -

1.599, $p > .05$, M=4.30, SD=.81, M=4.45, SD=.68) nor transparency condition on transparency perceptions (t (252) = -.811, $p > .05$; M=4.33, SD=.77; M=4.41, SD=.78). Additionally, there was no significant effect of gender on either perceptions of diversity (t (252) = -1.225, $p > .05$) or transparency (t (252) = -1.452, $p > .05$). This indicates that the manipulations of organizational transparency and diversity climate did not effectively change the perceptions of transparency or diversity within the scenarios. Participants rated transparency and diversity climate relatively high, regardless of condition.

Hypothesis Testing

To test whether there was a gender difference in initiating negotiations (H1), a chi square analysis was conducted. Results indicated that there was a significant association between participant gender and initiating a negotiation ($\chi^2(1) = 4.759$, $p < .05$). Twenty-nine percent of male participants initiated a negotiation while only 18% of female participants did.

To test whether there was an effect of organizational transparency on initiating of negotiation (H2), a logistic regression was performed. Transparency was not a statistically significant predictor of negotiation initiation ($\chi^2(1) = .564$, $p > .05$). While not specifically predicted, the effect of diversity on negotiation initiation was also analyzed using a logistic regression. Results also indicated that diversity was not a statistically significant predictor of negotiation initiation ($\chi^2(1) = 1.108$, $p > .05$).

Binary logistic regression was performed to examine the interactive effects of gender and organizational transparency on negotiation initiation (H3). Results indicated

that there was not a significant overall association between gender, transparency, and negotiation initiation ($\chi^2(3) = 6.611$, $p > .05$). Neither gender, transparency, nor its interaction term were significant predictors of initiating negotiations ($\chi^2(1) = .730$, $p > .05$; $\chi^2(1) = .216$, $p = .642$; $\chi^2(1) = 1.668$, $p > .05$). Thus, there was no interaction effect for organizational transparency and gender on initiation of negotiation.

Binary logistic regression was performed to examine the interactive effects of gender and diversity climate on negotiation initiation (H4). Results of the binary logistic regression indicated that there was not a significant overall association between gender, diversity, and negotiation initiation ($\chi^2(3) = 6.441$, $p > .05$). Neither gender, diversity, nor its interaction term were significant predictors of initiating negotiations ($\chi^2(1) = .791$, $p > .05$; $\chi^2(1) = .045$, $p > .05$; $\chi^2(1) = .620$, $p > .05$). Thus, there was no interaction effect for diversity climate and gender on initiation of negotiation.

The three way interaction between gender, diversity, and transparency on negotiation initiation was tested using binary logistic regression (H5). There was not a significant overall association between gender, diversity, transparency, and negotiation initiation ($\chi^2(6) = 7.348$, $p > .05$). Neither gender, diversity, transparency, nor their interaction term were significant predictors of initiating negotiations ($\chi^2(1) = .877$, $p > .05$; $\chi^2(1) = .050$, $p > .05$; $\chi^2(1) = .159$, $p > .05$; $\chi^2(1) = .672$, $p > .05$). There was no three way interaction effect for diversity climate, transparency, and gender on initiation of negotiation.

Discussion

The purpose of this study was to expand our understanding of gender differences in the propensity to initiate negotiation and how organizational factors may impact these differences. While the bulk of the research has examined the negotiation process and its outcomes, less research has been done to examine the initiation of negotiation, particularly empirically. Understanding what factors may cause an individual to initiate a negotiation without prompting has been limited by the fact that most research has chosen to focus on forced negotiation scenarios (i.e., participants are told that they will be negotiating). The design of the current study attempted to empirically examine propensity to initiate a negotiation while manipulating organizational transparency and diversity climate. Examining initiation of negotiation in this setting allowed for a more specific investigation of gender differences in negotiation, as participants make the choice about whether to initiate themselves.

Previous research has shown some evidence for gender differences in negotiation initiation, with women being less likely to initiate a negotiation than their male counterparts (Babcock et al., 2006; Small et al., 2007). Our first hypothesis was consistent with this research and predicted similar findings. The results supported this hypothesis; women were less likely to initiate negotiations than men in response to the job offer in the experimental setting. This adds further support to the literature and indicates that gender differences occur not only within the negotiations themselves, but in the initiation of that process. Interestingly, there were no gender differences in reported consideration of negotiation, with 50% of all participants indicating that they had at least considered negotiation. Additionally, of those who did not consider

negotiation, women were more likely than men to worry about asking for too much, while more men than women reported feeling satisfied with the job offer. This indicates that while men and women equally think about and are aware of negotiation possibilities, there is something that makes women less likely to actually initiate the negotiation. It is not that women do not consider negotiation, but rather some other factor(s) that result in lower actual initiation behavior. The literature has pointed to numerous possible reasons for gender differences in the negotiation process, including blatant discrimination (Ayres & Siegelman, 1995), gender role stereotypes (e.g., Diekman & Goodfriend, 2006), and organizational level factors (Stuhlman & Walters, 1999).

This study sought to explore some of the possible organizational level factors that may play a role in the negotiation process, particular in the early initiation phase. Some research has indicated that situational ambiguity, i.e., a lack of transparency, can lead to confusion and possibly avoidance of initiating a negotiation (Babcock & Laschever, 2007; Mazei et al., 2014). In this study, organizational transparency was manipulated to create high transparency and low transparency scenarios for the fictional company. The low transparency condition was meant to simply lack information, thus resulting in a more ambiguous situation, while the high condition provided more detailed information for the participants. Though the prediction that organizational transparency would be positively related to initiating negotiation was not supported, this may be the result of study and design factors rather than a lack of effect. The results of the manipulation check revealed that participants rated transparency relatively high, regardless of condition they were assigned to. It may be that participants did not attend

to the underlying differences present in the scenarios. Because participants were mostly first year undergraduates who did not have much work experience, it may be unlikely that these students have encountered the types of post-Bachelor's degree job listings utilized in this study. Participants may thus not have fully examined the organizational information regarding policies and procedures. These types of organizational factors may often be subtle and only become more apparent with time, so that unless the situation is initially problematic, an employee may not attend closely. Transparency information may often be conveyed more directly (i.e., during the job interview), so alternate methods of communication of the information may have different effects. Additionally, the stakes were not very high – even though the scenario was crafted to incite some sense of urgency with the participants, they may not have fully taken on the role or felt any real pressure to obtain a better offer.

Building on the previous hypothesis, I sought to examine potential interaction effects with gender and organizational transparency on propensity to initiate negotiations. It was predicted that transparency would have positive effects on negotiation initiation for women in particular. Previous research has shown that for women in particular, uncertainty (i.e. less transparency) can lead to greater reliance on gender stereotypes, which in turn can lead to reduced pay and promotion opportunities (Fisk et al., 2002). The results did not support the interaction between gender and transparency on negotiation. While it is possible that organizational transparency may not impact negotiation initiation, this is most likely the result of participants not perceiving the differences in the transparency conditions in the job listing and company

webpage. Since most participants simply rated transparency as high, there wouldn't be any potential for an interactive effect.

The next hypothesis examined the interactive effect of gender and diversity climate on negotiation initiations. Diversity climate has been linked to an array of positive outcomes, including organizational commitment (Avery et al., 2007) and perceptions of organizational attractiveness (Walker et al., 2012). Although previous research has not explicitly linked diversity climate to negotiation, the overall positive effects of diversity climate are likely to extend to negotiation scenarios. It was predicted that gender differences would be reduced for initiation of negotiation when diversity climate was high. The results did not support this prediction. While it is possible that diversity climate does not impact negotiations or impact gender, the lack of findings may also be due to study design issues. In addition, the presence of a three-way interaction between organizational transparency, diversity climate, and gender on negotiation initiation or outcomes was not supported.

The results of the manipulation check revealed that participants rated diversity climate relatively high, regardless of condition they were assigned to. With regard to diversity, low diversity simply offered a legal-ease EEOC statement, while the high diversity company offered a whole page on the importance of diversity. When seeing these two side by side it becomes clear that the diversity policies are very different for the two conditions, but for participants who have not really encountered many job listings and company pages, they may see the inclusion of the diversity compliance statement as acceptable. One caveat to mention is that the majority of the participants in this study classified themselves as white. Though women can be considered a minority,

it is possible that white females may not consider themselves to be minorities or believe that diversity impacts them directly. It would be worthwhile to explore the individual participants' diversity valuing behaviors and how that may interplay with gender and race.

Limitations

There are some potential limitations in this study. The biggest issue likely occurred with the four conditions present in the study. Since participants in both high and low diversity conditions and high and low organizational transparency conditions rated them relatively high, there was not a clear distinction between the experimental conditions. This didn't allow for the potential effects of these variables to be detectable. It would be worthwhile to do some pilot work for future studies and utilize trained judges to develop clearer high and low groups for the transparency and diversity conditions. Additionally, the smaller sample size may have limited our interaction hypotheses. While the power analysis revealed our sample size adequate for the omnibus tests, there was not adequate power for the simple effects. This may not have impacted the results given the similarity in perception of the high and low conditions, but it is still an issue that should be considered for future studies and analyses.

Another potential limitation may pertain to the nature of conducting a lab study with undergraduates asked to take on a role. Because participants were mostly first year undergraduates, it may be unlikely that they are considering all the stakes involved in a career job search. In particular, students may not have an awareness of what to look for in an organization relevant to transparency and diversity climate. This could be why there were no differences found between the perceptions of the high and low conditions

for organizational transparency or diversity climate. Studying initiation of negotiation in a lab setting is particularly difficult, as participants shouldn't be prompted to negotiate but may also lack real world motivation to do so.

The design of the study was such that only those participants who indicated they considered negotiation were asked what they considered negotiating for, while those who said no were asked for reasons they did not want to negotiate. This makes comparison across the whole sample impossible, particularly with regards to reasons not to negotiate. While those who did not consider negotiation did not initiate negotiations, there were still a substantial number of participants who considered negotiation (50%) in comparison to those who actually initiated (22%). Particularly for those participants, it would be important to know why they considered negotiation, but ultimately did not make the choice to negotiate. Those reasons would be particularly illuminating for future research, as it would pinpoint some of the issues that prevent people from initiating negotiation.

Future Directions

Several directions for future research would add to the findings of this study. It would be beneficial to explore the relationships among gender, transparency, diversity, and negotiation initiation in a working adult sample. Since many organizational cues may become more explicit over time, it is likely that working adults would may be better equipped to pick up on differences in organizational cues and place greater importance on them. Additionally, as transparency and diversity may reveal themselves in more direct ways, utilizing a real world, working sample would provide greater range in perceptions of these factors. This would enable me to examine the initiation and

outcomes of actual negotiations. While many companies may present one portrait of themselves on their website or even in an initial interview, the way policies are actually enacted and the realities of the organization may present themselves after working there for some period of time. Information and relationships conveyed informally are often more reflective of the way work is actually done in the organization (Cross, Borgatti, & Parker, 2002). Research on work-family policies has found that informal organizational policies such as managerial support, career consequences, and organizational culture better predict employee outcomes than more formal measures (Behson, 2005; Anderson, Coffey, & Byerly, 2002).

While organizational transparency and diversity climate have the potential to make an impact on individuals' propensity to initiate negotiations, it is also likely that these have more of an indirect effect. There may be other factors that are impacted by increases in transparency and diversity, which in turn impact negotiation. It becomes important to explore what potential mediators may affect the relationship between organizational transparency and diversity climate on negotiation initiation, particularly with regards to gender.

Study 2

To address potential limitations in the first study and further explore the roles of organizational transparency and diversity climate in gender differences in the propensity to initiate negotiation, the second study surveyed working adults and incorporated a potential mediating variable, organizational trust. Working adults in a variety of industries and professions were surveyed to examine their propensity to initiate negotiation and the actual outcomes of their negotiations in their current positions. This

study focused on the same variables as study 1, except that organizational transparency and diversity climate were not manipulated, and additionally, I examined the potentially mediating variable of organizational trust.

While negotiation outcomes are an important consideration, particularly over time, the propensity to initiate negotiation is when the disparity in salaries and other job benefits between men and women begins. It is thus important to isolate and focus on differences in initiation of negotiation in men and women. The first hypotheses for study two are therefore consistent with the previous research and predict that:

H6a: Men will initiate negotiations more than women when starting a new job.

H6b: Men will initiate negotiations more than women within their current job.

In addition to differences in the propensity to initiate a negotiation, previous research has shown similar effects for actual negotiation outcomes for men and women (Stuhlmacher & Waters, 1999; Walters et al., 1998). Overall, when negotiating for themselves/on their own behalf, men have more favorable negotiation outcomes than women. It is anticipated that in this study, I will find similar results:

H7: Overall, men will have more positive negotiation outcomes than women.

As in the first study, organizational transparency and diversity climate were the other main variables of interest. Specifically, I examined organizational transparency and diversity climate in the current organization of the participant. Following the logic from study 1, I expect that increasing the organization's transparency leads to a less ambiguous situation, which should allow for participants to be more willing to initiate negotiation:

H8a: Organizational transparency (about policies and procedures for pay/promotion/negotiation process) will be positively related to initiating negotiations.

H8b: Organizational transparency will be positively related to negotiation outcomes (i.e., pay increase, more vacation, etc.).

Building on the first set of hypotheses, there should be an interaction between gender and organizational transparency. Since organizational transparency creates greater clarity about procedures and what steps may be taken, individuals should be less likely to rely on potential negative gender stereotypes. Men and women should equally initiate negotiation when there is transparency surrounding the organization's procedures and policies, while lack of clarity is likely to be associated with gender disparities in initiating negotiation.

H9a: There will be an interaction effect, such that there will be reduced differences in initiating negotiations for men and women reporting high organizational transparency, while there will be greater gender differences for those with little to no transparency.

H9b: There will be an interaction effect, such that there will be reduced differences in negotiation outcomes for men and women reporting high organizational transparency, while there will be greater gender differences for those working in organizations with little to no transparency.

Consistent with study 1, I predicted that organizations that show support for diversity may indicate to women (and other minorities) that they are not male-centered or male-dominated and as such are more open to women exhibiting non-stereotypical behavior in their organization. Organizations perceived as having a strong diversity

climate may lead women to feel that their decisions and choices will be respected and attended to equally to their male counterparts. As such, women may be more likely to initiate negotiations in organizations perceived as valuing diversity. This could then lead to better negotiation outcomes for women, such that they negotiate for outcomes similar to that of their male counterparts:

H10a: There will be an interaction effect, such that there will be reduced differences in initiating negotiations for men and women in organizations with high diversity climate, while there will be greater gender differences for those with weak diversity climate.

H10b: There will be an interaction effect, such that there will be reduced differences in negotiating outcomes for men and women in organizations with high diversity climate, while there will be greater gender differences for those with weak diversity climate.

In addition to examining the direct effects of organizational transparency and diversity climate on gender and negotiation, I would like to examine how a potential mediator may affect gender differences in initiation of negotiation. While organizational transparency and diversity climate may have effects on negotiation initiation and outcomes, this may occur through a mediating variable rather than directly. Given the many positive associations with increased transparency and diversity climate within the organization, one potential mediator is organizational trust.

Organizational Trust

Organizational trust can be defined as "the global evaluation of an organization's trustworthiness as perceived by the employee, … an employee's feeling of confidence that the organization will perform actions that are beneficial, or at least not detrimental, to him or her" (Tan & Tan, 2000, p. 243). As such, employees may

always be monitoring their environment to assess whether to trust their organization. When organizational trust is present within an organization, many positive outcomes may occur for the employees, including increased job satisfaction, productivity, performance, creativity, and critical thinking; greater freedom to express their ideas; more confidence in their organization; greater enjoyment of their work; embracing the organization's vision, mission, and values; and displaying organizational citizenship behaviors (see Colquitt, Scott, & LePine, 2007; Gilbert and Tang 1998; O'Brien, 2001; Reina & Reina, 1999). Additionally, the organization itself can also benefit, as Shockley-Zalabak et al. (2000) found that organizations with higher levels of organizational trust were more successful and innovative than institutions with lower levels of trust, because they tend to produce high quality products and services at lower cost.

The absence of organizational trust has been associated with negative outcomes, including increased turnover, retirement, complacency, defiance, absenteeism, lateness, and interest in the organization (Kowalski & Cangemi, 1993). Other researchers have indicated that these negative effects may be permanent, as it can be almost impossible for the organization to regain trust once it's been lost (Currall & Epstein, 2003). It thus becomes important for organizational trust to be maintained on a daily basis (Petrovs, 2005).

Previous research has indicated that organizational justice (including procedural justice and distributive justice), and organizational support are correlated with trust (Konovsky & Cropanzano, 1991; Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Davis-LasMastro, 1990). However, more recently there has been a link with both organizational transparency and

diversity to organizational trust. The link to transparency is more apparent and straightforward in the literature. The nature of transparency requires trust, as "being transparent requires a willingness to be vulnerable" (Rawlins, 2008, p.2). Organizations that are transparent, through participation, sharing information, and accountability, are in turn more likely to be trusted (Rawlins, 2008).

Additionally, it has been suggested that the importance of organizational trust is likely to increase during the coming years as organizations become more demographically diverse (Mayer, Davis, & Schoorman, 1995; Mannix & Neale, 2005). For minorities in particular, it becomes a matter of whether they can feel safe and trust the organization (Purdie-Vaughns, Steele, Davies, Ditlmann, & Crosby, 2008). Recent research has explored how low minority representation cues coupled with colorblindness (as opposed to valuing diversity) may affect minorities' perceptions of trust (Purdie-Vaughns, Steele, Davies, Ditlmann, & Crosby, 2008). By failing to value diversity, African Americans perceived threatening identity contingencies (i.e., judgments, stereotypes, opportunities, restrictions, and treatments are tied to one's social identity in a given setting) and distrust of the setting. The researchers concluded that having an explicit cue conveying fair practices (valuing diversity) may prevent threat appraisals and distrust.

Given the relationships between organizational trust and positive employee and organizational outcomes, it is likely that trust may also play an important role in the initiation of negotiation for both potential and current employees in the private sector as well. Previous studies have indicated the importance of trust in a negotiation scenario (see Kemp & Smith, 1994; Thompson, 1991; Mayer, Davis, & Schooman, 1995). These

studies, however, involved explicit role play negotiation scenarios. It is likely that the same positive relationship with trust may extend to potential employees when considering initiating a negotiation. Thus, the present study seeks to examine how organizational trust may mediate the relationship between organizational transparency, diversity climate, and gender in the propensity to initiate negotiation.

It is predicted that the relationship between organizational transparency/diversity climate and negotiation outcomes will be mediated by organizational trust. Specifically:

H11a: Organizational trust will mediate the relationship between organizational transparency and negotiation initiation, such that increased organizational transparency will lead to increased organizational trust, which will in turn lead to increased propensity to initiate negotiations.

H11b: Organizational trust will mediate the relationship between organizational transparency and negotiation outcomes, such that increased organizational transparency will lead to increased organizational trust, which will in turn lead to positive negotiation outcomes.

H12a: Organizational trust will mediate the relationship between diversity climate and negotiation initiation, such that higher diversity climate will lead to increased organizational trust, which will in turn lead to increased propensity to initiate negotiations.

H12b: Organizational trust will mediate the relationship between diversity climate and negotiation outcomes, such that higher diversity climate will lead to increased organizational trust, which will in turn lead to positive negotiation outcomes.

Building on the previous hypotheses, I propose that there will be a moderated mediation model that incorporates organizational transparency, diversity climate, organizational trust, gender, and negotiation. Specifically,

H13a: Organizational trust will mediate the interactive effect of organizational transparency and gender on propensity to initiate negotiations, such that women in organizations with little to no transparency will report less trust in their organization, which in turn will correspond to less negotiation initiation.

H13b: Organizational trust will mediate the interactive effect of organizational transparency and gender on negotiation outcomes, such that women in organizations with little to no transparency will report less trust in their organization, which in turn lead to lower negotiation outcomes (See Figure 1).

H13c: Organizational trust will mediate the interactive effect of diversity climate and gender on propensity to initiate negotiations, such that women in organizations with higher diversity climate will report more trust in their organization, which in turn will correspond to negotiation initiation.

H13d: Organizational trust will mediate the interactive effect of diversity climate and gender on negotiation outcomes, such that women in organizations with higher diversity climate will report more trust in their organization, which in turn will lead to better negotiation outcomes (See Figure 2).

Further, I propose a fully integrated model that incorporates the effects of both organizational transparency and diversity climate. Specifically,

H14a: Organizational trust will mediate the interactive effects of organizational transparency, diversity climate, and gender on negotiation initiation, such that women in organizations with higher diversity climate and greater transparency will report more trust in their organization, which in turn will lead to greater propensity to initiate negotiation.

H14b: Organizational trust will mediate the interactive effects of organizational transparency, diversity climate, and gender on negotiation outcomes, such that women in organizations with higher diversity climate and greater transparency will report more trust in their organization, which in turn will lead to better negotiation outcomes.

Method

Participants

The participants in this study were 510 (236 male, 274 female) working adults in a variety of industries and professions, contacted via Amazon Mechanical Turk. Working adults who reside in the United States, speak fluent English, are over 18, and have an Amazon Mechanical Turk (mTurk) account were eligible for participation. Previous research has indicated that mTurk participants are at least as diverse as and more representative of non-college populations than those of typical Internet and traditional samples and the quality of the data provided meets or exceeds psychometric standards associated with published research (e.g., Buhrmester, Kwang, & Gosling, 2011; Mason & Suri, 2012; Mason & Watts, 2009; Paolacci, Chandler, & Ipeirotis, 2010). In order to qualify, these working adults had to be any full-time (average minimum 30 hours/week) employed adult, not self-employed, and not currently in a labor union. They were compensated for their participation via Amazon Mechanical

Turk. These working adults also reported information about length of time within their job, organization, and industry.

Participants ranged from 21 to 70, with an average age of 38. A variety of races and ethnicities were reported, with 82% Caucasian, 6% Asian, 8% African-American, 1% Native American, and 7% Hispanic (participants could select multiple ethnicities, so these percentages exceed 100). The majority (69%) of participants graduated from college, while 25% had some college or technical training. They worked in a wide variety of industries, with healthcare (14%), education (11%), and retail (10%) representing the greatest frequency. On average, participants worked 42 hours a week and had been at their current job an average of 5.5 years, their organization for 7 years, and their industry for 10 years.

Procedure

Participants completed an online survey examining actual negotiation initiation and outcomes in their current jobs, as well as organizational transparency, diversity climate, and organizational trust. The first part of the survey asked information regarding their profession, industry/field, tenure in their job, tenure in their organization, tenure in their industry/field, education level, and both starting and current salaries.

Negotiations

A negotiation survey was developed to look specifically at negotiations the participant's first and current jobs within their current organization. These questions were developed and expanded from questions about employment negotiation used in previous research, such as negotiation topic and outcome (e.g., O'Shea & Bush, 2002;

Bowles et al., 2005). However, since there is less research specifically regarding the initiation of negotiation (rather than simply the participation in a negotiation), questions in the current study assessed whether participants initiated negotiations before accepting their first job in their current organization. If participants indicated that they had initiated a negotiation, they were asked free-response questions regarding what they negotiated for (compensation, benefits, vacation, start date, etc.), the outcome of the negotiation, whether the negotiation was successful, and why they perceive that the negotiation was successful or not. Additionally, using a Likert scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) all participants indicated how satisfied they were with the job offer, how much they believed negotiation was possible, how worried they were that negotiation might cause the offer to be withdrawn, and how much aversion of negotiation they experienced. Additional questions inquired about negotiations subsequent to hiring within their current organization, asking the same questions as above.

Organizational Transparency

Organizational transparency was assessed using both Rawlins' (2008b) measure of transparency and follow-up questions developed for this study to assess the policies and procedures of the organization and department in which the participants work. Rawlins' (2008b) 27-item scale asks respondents to rate a series of statements on a seven-point Likert scale ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree." Sample items include "the organization provides information that is useful to people like me for making informed decisions" and "The organization wants to be accountable to people

like me for its actions". The scale provides 5 sub-scores: overall transparency, participative, substantial information, accountability, and secrecy.

The follow-up questions asked participants to rate the extent to which they feel that their current organization has provided detailed and clear information regarding various policies and procedures, including pay, benefits, and promotion on a 5 point Likert scale ranging from "not at all" to "to a great extent". Organizational transparency was measured twice in the survey, with separate instructions for their initial perceptions of the organization (when accepting their first job) and their perceptions at the time of any negotiations following acceptance of the first job. Alpha reliabilities for the initial and current sub-scales for the Rawlins' (2008b) measure of transparency ranged from .89 to .95.

Diversity Climate

Diversity climate was assessed using McKay et al.'s (2007) 8 item measure. Participants rated the extent to which they perceived their current organization to value diversity on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from "not at all" to "to a great extent". Sample items included the organization emphasizes "recruiting from diverse sources" and "top leaders [are] visibly committed to diversity". Diversity climate was also measured twice in the survey, with separate instructions for their initial perceptions of the organization (when accepting their first job) and their perceptions at the time of any negotiations following acceptance of the first job. Alpha reliabilities for initial and current perceptions were .95 and .97, respectively.

Organizational Trust

Organizational trust was assessed using Gabarro and Athos' (1976) 7-item measure of trust. Participants rated the extent they agree or disagree with the statements about their organization on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree". Sample items include "I believe my employer has high integrity" and "I am not sure I fully trust my employer". Organizational trust was measured twice in the survey, with separate instructions for their initial perceptions of the organization (when accepting their first job) and their perceptions at the time of any negotiations following acceptance of the first job. Alpha reliabilities for initial and current perceptions were .87 and .89, respectively.

Results

The goal of this study was to examine how gender, organizational transparency, diversity climate, and organizational trust may impact the propensity to initiate negotiations and negotiation outcomes. Participants from a wide variety of industries were surveyed to examine real negotiations and how their perceptions of the organization may have impacted the decision to engage in negotiation.

Negotiations

When offered their first job at their current organization, 38% of participants initiated negotiation. At any point within their current job, 23% of participants initiated negotiation. Frequencies of topics on which participants negotiated and whether they considered those negotiation successful are presented in Table 2. All participants rated their agreement about reasons to or not to negotiate before starting their job at their current organization. Participants, on average, were satisfied with the job

offer/benefits/salary (M=3.84, SD=.87). There was slight concern about asking for too much (M=3.41, SD=1.19). Initiation of negotiation was coded as 1 for *yes* and 0 for *no*.

To test whether there was a gender difference in initiating negotiations (H6), chi square analysis was conducted. Results indicated that there was not a significant association between participant gender and initiating a negotiation when starting a new job ($\chi^2(1) = .617$, $p > .05$).

There was also not a significant association between participant gender and initiating a negotiation within their current job ($\chi^2(1) = .242$, $p > .05$).

To test whether there were gender differences in negotiation outcomes (H7), chi-square tests were performed on participants' ratings of success for each type of negotiation they initiated both before starting their first job and within their current job. Negotiation types were as follows: pay, promotion, job duties/responsibilities, vacation time, schedule, start date, benefits, office space, bonuses, company car, work equipment, maternity/paternity leave, and other. Success of negotiation outcomes was coded as 1 for *yes* and 0 for *no*.

Initial. There was a significant relationship between gender and success of negotiation for benefits ($\chi^2(1) = 5.546$, $p < .05$). Men considered 100% of their initial job benefits negotiations a success while women only considered only 71% of their negotiations a success. No significant effects of gender were found for success of negotiation for pay ($\chi^2(1) = 2.129$, $p > .05$), promotion ($\chi^2(1) = 2.400$, $p > .05$), job duties ($\chi^2(1) = .014$, $p > .05$), vacation time ($\chi^2(1) = .052$, $p > .05$), schedule ($\chi^2(1) = .792$, $p > .05$), start date ($\chi^2(1) = .699$, $p > .05$), bonuses ($\chi^2(1) = 1.003$, $p > .05$), or

company car ($\chi^2(1) = 3.000$, $p > .05$). There were not enough participants who negotiated for office space or work equipment to conduct analyses.

Current. There was no significant effect of gender on negotiation success for pay ($\chi^2(1) = 2.252$, $p > .05$), promotion ($\chi^2(1) = .400$, $p > .05$), job duties ($\chi^2(1) = .337$, $p > .05$), vacation time ($\chi^2(1) = .011$, $p > .05$), schedule ($\chi^2(1) = .070$, $p > .05$), start date ($\chi^2(1) = .313$, $p > .05$), bonuses ($\chi^2(1) = 1.120$, $p > .05$), office space ($\chi^2(1) = .032$ $p > .05$), or work equipment ($\chi^2(1) = 2.933$ $p > .05$). There were not enough participants who negotiated for company car or maternity leave to conduct analyses.

To test whether organizational transparency was related to negotiation initiation (H8a), separate logistic regressions were performed for each of the 5 sub-scales of organizational transparency both before starting the first job and within the current job.

Initial. Results of omnibus tests revealed that there was a significant effect of overall transparency ($\chi^2(1) = 19.595$, $p < .001$), participative ($\chi^2(1) = 19.580$, $p < .001$), substantial ($\chi^2(1) = 15.301$, $p < .001$), and accountability ($\chi^2(1) = 19.580$, $p < .001$). There was no significant effect of secrecy ($\chi^2(1) = 3.407$, $p > .05$). The partial logistic regression coefficients (b), the standard errors of the partial slope coefficients (se), the Wald test, the significance level, and the change in odds ratio are provided in Table 3. These results are consistent with the omnibus tests. All the organizational transparency measures (except secrecy) predict the initiation of negotiation. Higher ratings of transparency are more likely to result in negotiation initiation before starting the first job than lower scores of transparency.

Current. Results of omnibus tests revealed that there was no significant effect for overall transparency ($\chi^2(1) = 1.312$, $p > .05$), participative ($\chi^2(1) = 2.447$, $p > .05$),

substantial ($\chi^2(1) = .431$, $p > .05$), accountability ($\chi^2(1) = 3.821$, $p > .05$), or secrecy ($\chi^2(1) = .460$, $p > .05$). The partial logistic regression coefficients (b), the standard errors of the partial slope coefficients (se), the Wald test, the significance level, and the change in odds ratio are provided in Table 3. These results are consistent with the omnibus tests. None of the organizational transparency measures predict the initiation of negotiation in the current job.

Diversity Climate. Though there was not a specific hypothesis with regards to diversity climate and initiation of negotiations, logistic regression analyses were also run. Results from the omnibus tests indicated that there was a significant overall effect of diversity on initiation of negotiation before starting the first job ($\chi^2(1) = 14.711$, $p < .001$). Higher ratings of perceived organizational diversity climate were more likely to result in negotiation initiation than lower scores of diversity. There was no effect of diversity climate on negotiation initiation within the current job ($\chi^2(1) = 3.548$, $p > .05$). Partial logistic regression coefficients (b), standard errors of the partial slope coefficients (se), Wald test, significance levels, and change in odds ratio are provided in Table 3.

To test whether organizational transparency was positively related to negotiation outcomes (H8b), separate logistic regressions were performed for relationship of overall transparency to perceptions of success for each type of negotiation initiated.

Initial. Results of omnibus tests revealed that there was a significant effect of overall transparency on success of negotiations for pay ($\chi^2(1) = 7.177$, $p < .01$) and schedule ($\chi^2(1) = 6.770$, $p < .01$). There was no significant effect for promotion ($\chi^2(1) = 1.784$, $> .05$), job duties ($\chi^2(1) = 2.094$, $> .05$), vacation ($\chi^2(1) = .028$, $> .05$), start date

($\chi^2(1) = .116$, > *.05*), benefits ($\chi^2(1) = .034$, > *.05*), bonus ($\chi^2(1) = .001$, > *.05*), company car ($\chi^2(1) = .040$, > *.05*). There were not enough negotiations for office, equipment, and other to conduct analyses. The partial logistic regression coefficients (b), the standard errors of the partial slope coefficients (se), the Wald test, the significance level, and the change in odds ratio are provided in Table 4. These results are consistent with the omnibus tests. Higher ratings of overall transparency are associated with successful pay and schedule negotiations in their first job.

Current. Results of omnibus tests revealed that there was a significant effect of overall transparency on success of negotiations for pay ($\chi^2(1) = 16.555$, $p < .001$), promotion ($\chi^2(1) = 5.994$, $p < .05$), job duties ($\chi^2(1) = 18.810$, $p < .001$), and schedule ($\chi^2(1) = 4.720$, $p < .05$). There was no significant effect for vacation ($\chi^2(1) = .921$, > *.05*), benefits ($\chi^2(1) = 2.013$, > *.05*), office ($\chi^2(1) = 1.565$, > *.05*), bonus ($\chi^2(1) = 1.449$, > *.05*), or equipment ($\chi^2(1) = 1.462$, > *.05*). There were not enough negotiations for start date, company car, or maternity/paternity leave other to conduct analyses. The partial logistic regression coefficients (b), the standard errors of the partial slope coefficients (se), the Wald test, the significance level, and the change in odds ratio are provided in Table 4. These results are consistent with the omnibus tests. Higher ratings of overall transparency are associated with perceptions of successful pay, promotion, job duties, and schedule negotiations in the current job.

Diversity Climate. Though there was not a specific hypothesis with regards to diversity climate and negotiation success, logistic regression analyses were also run. Separate logistic regressions were performed for the relationship of diversity climate to perceptions of success for each type of initiation negotiated.

Initial. Results of omnibus tests revealed that there was a significant effect of diversity climate on success of negotiations for pay ($\chi^2(1) = 11.775$, $p < .001$). There was no significant effect for promotion ($\chi^2(1) = 2.982$, $p > .05$), job duties ($\chi^2(1) = 2.033$, $p > .05$), vacation ($\chi^2(1) = 1.578$, $p > .05$), schedule ($\chi^2(1) = 1.273$, $p > .05$), start date ($\chi^2(1) = 1.384$, $p > .05$), benefits ($\chi^2(1) = .936$, $p > .05$), bonus ($\chi^2(1) = .002$, $p > .05$), company car ($\chi^2(1) = 1.046$, $p > .05$). There were not enough negotiations for office, equipment, and other to conduct analyses. The partial logistic regression coefficients (b), the standard errors of the partial slope coefficients (se), the Wald test, the significance level, and the change in odds ratio are provided in Table 5. These results are consistent with the omnibus tests. Higher ratings of diversity climate are associated with successful pay negotiations in the first job.

Current. Results of omnibus tests revealed that there was a significant effect of diversity climate on success of negotiations for pay ($\chi^2(1) = 7.589$, $p < .01$) and schedule ($\chi^2(1) = 5.138$, $p < .05$. There was no significant effect for promotion ($\chi^2(1) = 3.066$, $p > .05$), job duties ($\chi^2(1) = 3.079$, $p > .05$) vacation ($\chi^2(1) = .000$, $> .05$), benefits ($\chi^2(1) = .316$, $> .05$), office ($\chi^2(1) = 1.421$, $> .05$), bonus ($\chi^2(1) = .013$, $> .05$), start date ($\chi^2(1) = .000$, $> .05$, or equipment ($\chi^2(1) = 2.989$, $> .05$). There were not enough negotiations for company car, maternity/paternity leave, or other to conduct analyses. The partial logistic regression coefficients (b), the standard errors of the partial slope coefficients (se), the Wald test, the significance level, and the change in odds ratio are provided in Table 4. These results are consistent with the omnibus tests. Higher ratings of diversity climate are associated with perceptions of successful pay and schedule negotiations in the current job.

The remaining hypotheses deal with moderation, mediation, and moderated mediation effects. For ease in analyzing and describing these more complex models, overall transparency was used as the sole transparency measure and initiation and success of pay negotiation were examined as negotiation outcomes. Correlations were computed for the relationships between organizational transparency, diversity climate, and organizational trust. Large correlation coefficients in the correlation matrix of predictor variables may indicate multicollinearity is present. As seen in Table 6 and Table 7, all predictor variables were positively correlated with one another. To address potential issues of multicollinearity, all predictor variables were mean centered for the remaining analyses.

To examine the potential interactive effect of gender and organizational transparency on initiation of negotiations (H9a), logistic regression was performed to predict negotiation initiation from gender (dummy coded 1 = male, 2= female), organizational transparency, and a product term to represent a gender x transparency interaction.

Initial. The overall regression was statistically significant and fits the data better than the model with no independent variables ($\chi^2(3) = 22.137$, $p < .001$). Overall transparency had a significant effect on propensity to initiate pay negotiations ($b = .392$, $\chi^2\ (1) = 14.521$, $p < .001$). The effect for gender was not statistically significant ($b = -1.029$, $\chi^2\ (1) = 1.884$, $> .05$). The interaction between gender and overall transparency was not statistically significant ($b = =.166$, $\chi^2\ (1) = 1.278$, $> .05$). These results indicate that, gender, overall transparency, and their interaction effect are significant jointly.

However, only overall transparency was an individual predictor of negotiation initiation.

Current. The overall regression was not statistically significant ($\chi^2(3) = 3.956$, $p > .05$). None of the individual predictors were significant (gender, $b = 1.070$, χ^2 (1) = 2.591, $p > .05$; overall transparency, $b = .027$, χ^2 (1) = .082, $p > .05$; interaction, $b = -.215$, χ^2 (1) = 2.446, $p > .05$). These results indicate that, gender, overall transparency, and their interaction effects do not significantly predict negotiation initiation within the current job.

To examine the potential interactive effect of gender and organizational transparency on negotiation outcomes (H9b), logistic regression was performed to predict negotiation outcomes from gender (dummy coded 1 = male, 2= female), organizational transparency, and a product term to represent a gender x transparency interaction.

Initial. The overall regression was statistically significant ($\chi^2(3) = 9.655$, $p < .05$). Overall transparency was significantly related to successful pay negotiation ($b = .465$, χ^2 (1) = 3.967, $p < .05$). Neither gender ($b = -.013$, χ^2 (1) = .000, = .993) nor the gender x transparency interaction ($b = -.099$, χ^2 (1) = .108, $p > .05$) were significant. These results indicate that overall transparency significantly predicts pay negotiation outcomes within the initial job, but no support was found for an interactive effect.

Current. The overall regression was statistically significant and fit the data better than the model with no independent variables ($\chi^2(3) = 19.776$, $p < .001$). None of the individual predictors were significant (gender, $b = -3.105$, χ^2 (1) = 2.841, = .092; overall transparency ($b = .356$, χ^2 (1) = 1.81, $p > .05$; interaction, $b = .746$, χ^2 (1) =

2.760, $p > .05$). These results indicate that, gender, overall transparency, and their interaction effects do not significantly predict successful pay negotiation outcomes within the current job.

To examine the potential interactive effect of gender and diversity climate on initiation of negotiations (H10a), logistic regression was performed to predict negotiation initiation from gender (dummy coded 1 = male, 2= female), diversity climate, and a product term to represent a gender x diversity interaction.

Initial. The overall regression was statistically significant ($\chi^2(3) = 15.798$, $p < .001$) indicating that it fits the data better than the model with no independent variables. Diversity climate had a significant effect on propensity to initiate negotiations ($b = .384$, $\chi^2 (1) = 11.608=$, $p < .001$). Neither gender ($b = .765$, $\chi^2 (1) = .1.767$, $p > .05$) nor the diversity climate x gender interaction ($b = -.184$, $\chi^2 (1) = 1.236$, $p > .05$) were significant. These results indicate that, gender, diversity climate, and their interaction effect are jointly significantly predicting the propensity to initiate negotiations. However, only diversity climate was an individual predictor of negotiation initiation in the initial job. Thus, there was no support for an interactive effect.

Current. The overall regression was not statistically significant ($\chi^2(3) = 4.496$, $p > .05$). None of the individual predictors were significant (gender, $b = .578$, $\chi^2 (1) = .928$, $p > .05$; diversity climate ($b = -.100$, $\chi^2 (1) = .679$, $p > .05$; interaction, $b = -.155$, $\chi^2 (1) = .725$, $p > .05$). These results indicate that, gender, diversity climate, and their interaction effects do not significantly predict negotiation initiation within the current job.

To examine the potential interactive effect of gender and diversity climate on negotiation outcomes (H10b), logistic regression was performed to predict negotiation initiation from gender (dummy coded 1 = male, 2= female), diversity climate, and a product term to represent a gender x diversity climate.

Initial. The overall regression was statistically significant ($\chi^2(3) = 12.529$, $p <$ .01) indicating that it fits the data better than the model with no independent variables. None of the individual predictors were significant (gender, $b = -1.173$, χ^2 (1) = .758, = .384; diversity climate (b =.532, χ^2 (1) = 3.179, $p > .05$; interaction, b = .299, χ^2 (1) =.296, $p > .05$). These results indicate that gender, diversity climate, and their interaction effects do not significantly predict successful pay negotiation before starting the first job at the organization.

Current. The overall regression was statistically significant ($\chi^2(3) = 8.965$, $p <$ .05). None of the individual predictors were significant (gender, $b = -1.513$, χ^2 (1) = .1.166, = .280; diversity climate (b = .359, χ^2 (1) = 1.058, $p > .05$; interaction, b = .405, χ^2 (1) =.656, $p > .05$). These results indicate that gender, diversity climate, and their interaction effects do not significantly predict successful pay negotiation within the current job.

For the mediation models, the PROCESS version2.16.3 SPSS macros program was utilized (Hayes, 2012). Utilizing pre-programmed model macros for mediation (Model 4) PROCESS enables examination of a dichotomous outcome variable with a continuous independent variable and mediator. Variables were centered in the analyses.

PROCESS mediation model 4 was used to examine the mediating role of organizational trust in the relationship between organizational transparency and propensity to initiate negotiations (H11)

Initial. The regression of overall transparency on propensity to initiate negotiation, ignoring the mediator, was significant (b = .307, $\chi^2(1) = 18.01$, p <.001). Regression of overall transparency on the mediator, organizational trust, was also significant (b = .373, $t(508) = 17.02$, p <.001). The effect of the mediator (trust) on propensity to initiate, controlling for overall transparency, was not significant (b = .014, z = .104, > .05). Controlling for the mediator (trust), overall transparency was a significant predictor of propensity to initiate (b = .302, z = 3.423, p < .001). A Sobel test revealed that there was not mediation in the model (z = .104, $p > .05$). These results indicate that organizational trust does not mediate the relationship between overall organizational transparency and propensity to initiate negotiations in initial jobs.

Current. The regression of overall transparency on propensity to initiate negotiation, ignoring the mediator, was not significant (b = -.077, $\chi^2(1) = 1.323$, p > .05). The regression of overall transparency on the mediator, organizational trust, was significant (b = .459, $t(508) = 26.377$, p <.001). The effect of the mediator (trust) on propensity to initiate, controlling for overall transparency, was significant (b = -.3530, z = -2.00, p <.05). Controlling for the mediator (trust), overall transparency was not a significant predictor of propensity to initiate (b = .085, z = .805, p >.05). A Sobel test was conducted, and detected mediation in the model (b = -.162, z = -1.99, p < .05, R^2 = .578, κ^2 = .104).

This indicates that organizational trust mediates the relationship between overall organizational transparency and propensity to initiate negotiations. As seen in Figure 4, these results indicate that organizational trust mediates the relationship between overall diversity climate and successful pay negotiation. Higher organizational transparency is linked to increased organizational trust, which in turn makes people less likely to initiate negotiation.

Initial. The regression of overall transparency on successful pay negotiation, ignoring the mediator, was significant (b = .412, $\chi^2(1) = 7.294$, p = <.01). The regression of overall transparency on the mediator, organizational trust, was also significant (b = .367, $t(508) = 7.98$, p <.001). The effect of the mediator (trust) on successful pay negotiation, controlling for overall transparency, was not significant (b = .1831, z = 1.706, $p > .05$). Controlling for the mediator (trust), overall transparency was not a significant predictor of successful pay negotiation (b = .306, z = .965, $p > .05$). A Sobel test was conducted and found no support for mediation in the model (z = .95, $p > .05$). These results indicate that organizational trust does not mediate the relationship between overall organizational transparency and successful pay negotiation in the initial job.

Current. The regression of overall transparency on successful pay negotiation, ignoring the mediator, was significant (b = .701, $\chi^2(1) = 13.280$, p <.001). The regression of overall transparency on the mediator, organizational trust, was also significant (b = .513, $t(79) = 12.245$, $p < .001$). The effect of the mediator (trust) on successful pay negotiation, controlling for overall transparency, was not significant (b = .7998, z = 1.4920, $p > .05$). Controlling for the mediator (trust), overall transparency

was not a significant predictor of successful pay negotiation (b = .319, z = 1.022, p > .05). A Sobel test was conducted and found no support for mediation in the model (z = 1.476, p > .05). These results indicate that organizational trust does not mediate the relationship between overall organizational transparency and successful pay negotiation in the current job.

PROCESS mediation model 4 was used to examine the mediating role of organizational trust in the relationship between diversity climate and propensity to initiate negotiations (H12).

Initial. The regression of diversity climate on propensity to initiate negotiation, ignoring the mediator, was significant (b = .327, $\chi^2(1) = 14.14$, p <.001). The regression of diversity climate on the mediator, organizational trust, was also significant (b = .359, $t(508) = 6.155$, p <.001). The effect of the mediator (trust) on propensity to initiate, controlling for diversity climate, was not significant (b = .276 z = .929, p > .05). Controlling for the mediator (trust), diversity climate was a significant predictor of propensity to initiate (b = .649, z = 2.688, p < .05). A Sobel test was conducted and found that there was not mediation in the model (z = .907, p > .05). These results indicate that organizational trust does not mediate the relationship between overall diversity climate and propensity to initiate negotiations in the initial job.

Current. The regression of diversity climate on propensity to initiate negotiation, ignoring the mediator, was not significant (b = -.170, $\chi^2(1) = 3.551$, p > .05). The regression of diversity climate on the mediator, organizational trust, was significant (b = .439, $t(508) = 14.665$ p <.001). The effect of the mediator (trust) on propensity to initiate, controlling for diversity climate, was not significant (b = -.182, z = -1.369, p >

.05). Controlling for the mediator (trust), diversity climate was not a significant predictor of propensity to initiate (b = -.091, z = -.842, $p > .05$). A Sobel test was conducted and found that there was not mediation in the model (z = -1.360, $p > .05$). These results indicate that organizational trust does not mediate the relationship between overall diversity climate and propensity to initiate negotiations in the current job.

Initial. The regression of diversity climate on successful pay negotiation, ignoring the mediator, was significant (b = .412, $\chi^2(1) = 7.294$, p <.01). The regression of diversity climate on the mediator, organizational trust, was also significant (b = .367, $t(508) = 7.983$, p <.001). The effect of the mediator (trust) on successful pay negotiation, controlling for diversity climate, was not significant (b = .1831, z = 1.706, $p > .05$). Controlling for the mediator (trust), diversity climate was not a significant predictor of successful pay negotiation (b = .306, z = .965, $p > .05$). A Sobel test was conducted and found that there was not mediation in the model (z = .951, $p > .05$). These results indicate that organizational trust does not mediate the relationship between overall diversity climate and successful pay negotiation in the initial job.

Current. The regression of diversity climate on successful pay negotiation, ignoring the mediator, was significant (b = .619, $\chi^2(1) = 7.589$, p <.01). The regression of diversity climate on the mediator, organizational trust, was also significant (b = .572, $t(77) = 8.571$, p <.001). The effect of the mediator (trust) on successful pay negotiation, controlling for diversity climate, was significant (b = 1.315, z = 2.863, $p > .05$). Controlling for the mediator (trust), diversity climate was not a significant predictor of successful pay negotiation (b = -.085, z = -.244, $p > .05$). A Sobel test was conducted

and found that there was mediation in the model (b= .75, z = 2.699, p < .01, R^2 = .49, κ^2 = .387). As seen in Figure 5, these results indicate that organizational trust mediates the relationship between overall diversity climate and successful pay negotiation. Higher diversity climate is linked to increased organizational trust, which in turn makes people more likely to have a successful pay negotiation in the current job.

For the moderated mediation models (H13 and H14), PROCESS version2.16.3 SPSS macros program for moderated mediation (Model 7) was utilized (Hayes, 2012). This program enables examination of dichotomous outcome variables with continuous mediators and dichotomous moderators. Variables were centered in the analysis. Since the moderated mediation model is building on previous moderation only models, the primary interest with these models is determining whether moderated mediation is occurring. The interval estimate of the index of moderated mediation was used as it provides an inferential test as to whether the indirect effect depends linearly on the moderator (Hayes, 2015). Specifically, the confidence intervals (CIs) of the index of moderated mediation were examined. If the lower limit and upper limit of CI includes zero (i.e., they cross the zero), it indicates no moderated mediation.

Initial. Results of the PROCESS moderated mediation model analyses indicated that there was not a significant moderated mediation (Index = .000, SE=.008, LLCI = -.014, ULCI = .019). The interactive effect of gender and organizational transparency on propensity to initiate negotiations is not mediated by organizational trust in the initial job.

Current. Moderated mediation model analyses indicated that there was not a significant moderated mediation (Index = -.018, SE=.017, LLCI = -.067, ULCI = .003).

The interactive effect of gender and organizational transparency on propensity to initiate negotiations is not mediated by organizational trust in the current job.

Initial. Results of the PROCESS analyses indicated that there was not a significant moderated mediation for negotiation outcomes (Index = -.028, SE=.067, LLCI = -.0310, ULCI = .286, n=158). The interactive effect of gender and organizational transparency on pay negotiation outcomes is not mediated by organizational trust in the initial job.

Current. Results of the PROCESS analyses indicated that there was not a significant moderated mediation on negotiation outcomes (Index = .000, SE=.084, LLCI = -.155, ULCI = .194, n=79). The interactive effect of gender and organizational transparency on pay negotiation outcomes is not mediated by organizational trust in the current job.

Initial. Results of the PROCESS analyses indicated that there was not a significant moderated mediation (Index = .003, SE= .013, LLCI = -.047, ULCI = .013). The interactive effect of gender and diversity climate on propensity to initiate negotiations is not mediated by organizational trust in the initial job.

Current. Results indicated that there was not a significant moderated mediation (Index = -.008, SE= .016, LLCI = -.014, ULCI = .059). The interactive effect of gender and diversity climate on propensity to initiate negotiations is not mediated by organizational trust in the current job.

Initial. PROCESS analyses indicated that there was not a significant moderated mediation (Index = .014, SE=.061, LLCI = -.207, ULCI = .060, n=158). The interactive

effect of gender and diversity climate on perceptions of pay negotiation outcomes is not mediated by organizational trust in the initial job.

Current. Results indicated there was not a significant moderated mediation (Index = -.007, SE=.232, LLCI = -.427, ULCI = .472, n=79). The interactive effect of gender and diversity climate on perceptions of pay negotiation outcomes is not mediated by organizational trust in the current job.

Initial. Results of the PROCESS analyses indicated that there was not a significant moderated mediation (Index = -.001, SE= .008, LLCI = -.010, ULCI = .028; Index = -.002, SE=.013, LLCI= -.015, ULCI=.050). The interactive effect of gender, organizational transparency and diversity climate on pay negotiation initiation is not mediated by organizational trust in the initial job.

Current. Results indicated that there was not a significant moderated mediation (Index = -.017, SE= .016, LLCI = -.004, ULCI = .065; Index = -.028, SE= .025, LLCI= -.003, ULCI=.098). The interactive effect of gender, organizational transparency and diversity climate on pay negotiation initiation is not mediated by organizational trust in the current job.

Initial. Results of the PROCESS analyses indicated that there was not a significant moderated mediation (Index = .018, SE= .062, LLCI = -.252, ULCI = .048; Index=.013, SE= .051, LLCI=-.042, ULCI = .206 n=158. The interactive effect of gender, organizational transparency and diversity climate on perceptions of successful pay negotiation outcomes is not mediated by organizational trust in the initial job.

Current. Results of the PROCESS analyses indicated that there was not a significant moderated mediation (Index = .010, SE= .143, LLCI = -309, ULCI = .271;

Index = .012, SE= .099, LLCI=-.149, ULCI=.266). The interactive effect of gender, organizational transparency and diversity climate on perceptions of successful pay negotiation outcomes is not mediated by organizational trust in the current job.

Discussion

The purpose of the second study was to expand on the first study by addressing potential limitations and further explore the roles of organizational transparency, diversity climate, and gender differences in the propensity to initiate negotiations. Additionally, this study expanded upon the first by including organizational trust as a potential mediating variable. By surveying working adults in a variety of industries and professions I was able to examine actual negotiations. The survey design enabled an examination of negotiation initiations before entering a job with an organization for the first time and any additional negotiation initiations subsequent to entering.

Consistent with previous research and the results of the first study, it was predicted that men would be more likely than women to initiate negotiations both when starting a new job and within their current job. The results did not support this hypothesis; there were no gender differences found in the propensity to initiate negotiations. While this finding was unexpected, it may be due to the timing of the questions. Some previous research has suggested that gender differences in earnings are at their lowest at career entry (Marini & Fan, 1997), which may be why no gender differences were found in this sample. However, more recent studies on initiation of negotiation suggest that this gender difference is most commonly present when being offered their first job (Babcock & Laschever, 2007). Although participants in this study were asked about when they were offered their first job with their current organization,

that position may not have been their first job in the industry or post-graduation. Perhaps gender differences in the initiation of negotiation matter most at the beginnings of a career, with participants' first job offer.

In addition to negotiation initiation, it was predicted that men would have more positive negotiation outcomes than women. Pay negotiation, in particular, was anticipated to be impacted by gender. The only significant relationship with gender was success of benefit negotiations, with men considering 100% of their negotiations a success compared to only 71% of women finding them a success. No effects were found with regards to pay, promotion, job duties, vacation time, schedule, start date, benefits, office space, bonuses, company car, work equipment, or maternity/paternity leave. This result runs counter to the findings in the literature, as gender differences in negotiation outcomes are relatively robust. For many of the negotiation types, not many people initiated negotiations, so there may not have been enough negotiations to thoroughly examine the effects. This may be due to the way negotiation success was quantified in this study. Since success was a self-report measure of whether they considered their negotiation successful, it is unknown whether the objective negotiation outcomes differed by gender. Perceptions of negotiation success may also be affected by different factors for men and women.

Similar to the first study, the role of organizational level factors that may play a role in the negotiation process, particularly in the early initiation phase, were explored. Organizational transparency was predicted to be positively related to initiation of negotiation and success of those negotiations before starting their first job and within their current job. The results revealed that transparency was only related to initiation of

negotiation for negotiations occurring before starting the first job. However, transparency was positively related to negotiation success for pay and schedule both in the first and current jobs; transparency was also positively related to promotion and job duties within the current job. These results partially supported the hypotheses. It may be that before entering the organization for the first time, transparency has a bigger impact on perceptions of the organization. As a result, organizational transparency may have a greater impact before working for the organization. Over time, individuals will become more familiar with the policies and procedures in the organization, either formally or informally. As such, there may be less opportunity for negotiations within the structures of the organization or employees may become more familiar with the procedures in place with regards to pay, promotion, etc. This can also explain why perceived negotiation success may be impacted within the current job, despite no effect on the initiation of the negotiations. As a self-reported measure of success, it stands to reason that better knowledge of the organization's policies and procedures can make it more clear to the individuals whether an intended negotiation compares to norms within the company.

Diversity climate was found to be positively related to initiation of negotiations before starting the first job and the perceived success of pay negotiations both before starting the first job and within their current job. Similar to organizational transparency, there were no effects of diversity climate on initiating negotiations within their current job. Over time, diversity climate could become less of a concern to employees, as the dynamics of the work group and relationships with coworkers and managers develop. Research on surface level (demographic) and deep level (attitudinal, values) diversity

may support this claim, as length of time the group members work together weakens the effects of surface diversity and strengthens the effects of deep diversity (Harrison, Price, & Bell, 1998).

Building on the previous hypotheses, I sought to separately examine the potential moderating role of gender on the relationship between organizational transparency and negotiations. It was predicted that organizational transparency would have positive effects on negotiation initiation and successful pay negotiations for women in particular. No interaction effects were found, indicating that gender did not have a moderating effect on transparency and negotiation. Similarly, no support was found for interactive effect of gender and diversity climate on negotiation initiations and successful pay negotiations. These results ran contrary to my predictions, but are in line with previous results indicating no gender differences in the propensity to initiate negotiations or in perceptions of successful pay negotiations.

In addition to examining the effects of organizational transparency and diversity climate on gender and negotiation, the role of a potential mediator, organizational trust, was examined. Previous research has indicated a link between organizational trust and both organizational transparency and diversity climate (Rawlins, 2008; Mannix & Neal, 20005). Organizational trust was predicted to mediate the relationships between diversity climate and negotiation initiation and diversity climate and pay negotiation success. While there was no mediation effect for initiation of negotiation, there was a significant mediating role of organizational trust for successful pay negotiations in the current job. This supported the prediction that higher diversity would lead to increased trust, which would in turn lead to increased propensity to obtain successful pay

negotiation outcomes. While diversity climate may have more of a direct effect upon initial encounters with an organization (i.e. before starting a job there), trust may become a more important factor over time. Once working in the organization, the diversity climate can impact overall perceptions of the organization, and as result, affect how much people trust the organization. This increased trust could lead them to believe the negotiation for pay was successful because they believe their organization is behaving fairly and inclusively.

Similarly, the mediating role or organizational trust was also examined with regards to the relationship between organizational transparency and negotiation initiation and pay success. Results indicated no mediation effect for successful pay outcomes, but there was a significant mediating role of organizational trust for successful pay negotiations in the current job. It was predicted that higher organizational transparency would lead to increased trust, which in turn would lead to increased negotiation initiation and outcomes. While there was a significant mediation, direction ran counter to the predicted positive effects of trust on negotiation. Results indicated that higher organizational transparency was associated with increased perceptions of organizational trust, which in turn made participants less likely to initiate a negotiation. Though this may seem counterintuitive, it makes sense in light of the previous results of the study. Over time, as participants work for the organization, they begin to learn more about the company's policies and regulations, thus increasing their perceptions of transparency. Their increased knowledge about the company's policies may in turn lead to them experiencing a greater trust in their organization. This increased trust may lead them to feel that they do not have to initiate a negotiation

because the organization will take care of them. They, essentially, have trust in the organization to uphold their interests.

It was predicted that organizational trust mediates the relationship between organizational level factors (organizational transparency, diversity climate) and negotiation, and further, that the strength of the association between the organizational factors and negotiation is moderated by gender. Contrary to the predictions, none of the moderated mediation models were significant, suggesting that organizational transparency does not mediate the moderating effects of gender on organizational transparency and diversity climate on negotiation. In light of the previous findings, this is an expected outcome. Gender did not have a direct effect on negotiation, nor did it have any moderating effects on the relationships between organizational transparency, diversity climate, and negotiation. By extension, a moderated mediation model is unlikely.

Limitations

Although this study provides evidence pertaining to the relationship between organizational level factors and negotiation, some potential limitations may affect these results. The way negotiation success was quantified in this study may be an issue. Participant were asked whether they considered their particular negotiation successful. While perceptions of negotiation success is an important indicator of employee perceptions, it may miss out on the true nuances of negotiation outcomes and the potential gender differences that may be present in real negotiations. Being able to quantify the negotiation outcomes would have better enabled me to examine any gender differences, as what is initially asked for and what is actually received quite different

for men and women. While both may feel like their negotiations were successful, an objective comparison of actual outcomes may reveal that men have better negotiation outcomes, either because of initial asking differences or lower opening offers/counteroffers.

Additionally, data was collected at one point in time, which may limit the conclusions that can be made regarding the causal order of these relationships. Further experimental or longitudinal research designs would be beneficial to substantiate causality. This study also relied on individuals' self-reports for all variables in the model which raises the concern of possible common method bias. While this study focused on employee perceptions of organizations (transparency, diversity climate, trust) and individuals initiating negotiations, it would also be beneficial to have alternate, more objective sources for negotiation outcome information.

Finally, this study chose to focus on gender, which may not offer enough of a minority perspective. The majority of participants in both studies were white, and the lack of gender differences in the second study points to the likelihood that white women don't necessarily view themselves as minorities. In fact, previous studies have indicated that for those in the White-majority, the extent to which an organization is open to differences (i.e., high diversity climate) appears to be less influential (McDermott & Samsom, 2005; Unzueta & Binning, 2010). This may mean factors like diversity climate are less impactful for gender in particular.

Future Research

Several directions for future research would add to the findings of this study. There are likely time factors to consider when examining the relationships between

perceptions of organizational factors (like transparency, trust, and diversity climate) and its impact on negotiation. Follow-up studies should pursue this build-up and change in perceptions over time and how that may as a result change decisions regarding negotiations. Additionally, this study only examined organizational level factors. Organizational transparency, diversity climate, and trust would certainly be impacted by lower levels, such as work teams or departments. Managers and co-workers also make an impact on how individuals experience their job and their perceptions of the organization. A hierarchical approach to the factors impacting negotiation initiation and outcomes would prove illuminating. Additionally, recent research has been examining the "motherhood penalty", the finding that, on average, mothers earn less than their childless female counterparts as well as fathers (Correll, Benard, & Paik, 2007; Gough & Noonan, 2013; Killewald, 2013). It would thus be beneficial to examine how having children may impact gender differences in negotiation initiation and outcomes. While gender has important ties to the negotiation literature, the addition of race warrants further study. Recent earnings reports have indicated that women of all major racial and ethnic groups earn less than men of the same group, and also earn less than White men (Hegewisch & Williams-Baron, 2018). This indicates future research should examine the intersectionality of gender and race and its impact on negotiation initiation and outcomes.

Conclusion

Two studies examined the effects of organizational level factors and gender on negotiation. The relationship of organizational transparency, diversity climate, and mediating role of organizational trust can impact how men and women choose to

negotiate. By utilizing these separate studies, I was able to better investigate how these variables interplay, both experimental and theoretically. Mixed results indicate that other factors are likely to impact the presence of gender differences in the propensity to initiate negotiation. Gender differences in negotiation may matter most when first beginning a career, post-graduation, upon the first job offer. This indicates that this early phase when preparing to graduate and enter the workforce for the first time is a critical time for women in particular. Additionally, the effect of certain organizational factors, like transparency and diversity on negotiation initiation may be affected by factors such as timing, with the greatest impact occurring prior to the first position in an organization. Effects of organizational factors on negotiation outcomes such as pay and schedule success were present, but not affected by gender. The results of the two studies indicate that the relationship between gender and negotiation initiation and success is affected by organizational level factors and phase in career.

Table 1

Chi-Square Results and Percentage Rates of Reasons Participants Did Not Consider Initiating Negotiation, N = 127 [Study 1]

		Gender	
Reason	Total	Males	Females
Satisfied with job offer	69.3%	79.2%	63.3%
Did not know that you could negotiate	29.9%	31.3%	29.1%
Worried about asking for too much	52.7%	41.7%	59.5%
Aversion/fear of negotiation	15.7%	12.5%	17.7%
Not interested in the job	0%	-----	-----
Worried you would lose the job offer	45.6%	43.8%	46.8%
Felt that did not have enough qualifications for the job to ask for more	32.3%	33.3%	31.6%
Other	19.6%	20.8%	19.0%

Note: Participants could select all reasons that applied. Chi-square tests examined gender differences. *$p < .05$

Table 2

Percentage of Negotiation Initiation and Success by Type Before Starting First Job and Within Current Job [Study 2]

Negotiation Categories	Job			
	Initial		Current	
	Initiated	Success	Initiated	Success
Pay	80.6%	85.4%	68.1%	75.9%
Promotion	6.1%	83.3%	26.7%	80.6%
Job Duties/responsibilities	22.4%	86.4%	28.4%	69.7%
Vacation Time	19.4%	86.8%	18.1%	81.0%
Schedule	26.5%	88.5%	33.6%	82.1%
Start Date	34.7%	95.5%	4.3%	80.0%
Benefits	16.8%	84.8%	4.3%	60.0%
Office Space	2.5%	100%	7.8%	77.8%
Bonuses	7.1%	69.2%	6.0%	71.4%
Company Car	1.5%	66.7%	1.7%	100%
Work Equipment	6.1%	100%	9.5%	81.8%
Maternity/Paternity Leave	------	------	1.7%	100%
Other	0.5%	100%	2.6%	100%

Initiation of negotiation coded as 1 for *yes* and 0 for *no*. All frequencies calculated for only those participants who indicated initiation of negotiation. Participants could select all that applied.

Table 3

Summary of Separate Logistic Regression Analyses for Organizational Transparency Measures and Diversity Climate Predicting Decisions to Initiate Negotiation Before Starting First Job and Within Current Job [Study 2]

	Job							
	Initial				Current			
Measures	*B*	*SE*	e^B	*Wald*	*B*	*SE*	e^B	*Wald*
Transparency								
Overall	.307***	.072	.736	18.031	-.077	.067	1.080	1.323
Participative	.302***	.071	.739	18.222	-.104	.067	1.110	2.462
Substantial	.300***	.079	.741	14.353	-.049	.075	1.051	.433
Accountability	.307***	.072	.735	18.84	-.141	.072	1.151	3.813
Secrecy	.117	.064	.889	3.386	-.046	.067	1.047	.458
Diversity	.327***	.087	.721	14.136	-.170	.090	1.186	3.551

Note: e^B = change in odds ratio.

Initiation of negotiation coded as 1 for *yes* and 0 for *no*. Organizational measures are scored from 1 for *strongly disagree* to 7 for strongly agree. Diversity climate measures are scored from 1 for *not at all* to 5 for *to a great extent* *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$.

Table 4

Summary of Separate Logistic Regression Analyses for Overall Organizational Transparency Predicting Negotiation Success Before Starting First Job and Within Current Job [Study 2]

Type of Negotiation	Job							
	Initial				Current			
	B	*SE*	e^B	*Wald*	*B*	*SE*	e^B	*Wald*
Pay	-.412**	.153	.662	7.294	.701***	.193	.496	13.280
Promotion	.1.286	1.233	.276	1.088	.843*	.382	.431	4.846
Job duties	.660	.468	.517	1.995	1.486**	.522	.226	8.085
Vacation	.072	.428	.930	.029	.417	.442	.659	.892
Schedule	1.184**	.504	.306	5.533	.664*	.334	.515	3.948
Start Date	.233	.654	.800	.116	-----	-----	-----	-----
Benefits	.106	.585	1.112	.033	3.187	3.160	.041	1.017
Bonus	-.017	.464	1.017	001	2.035	2.072	.131	.965
Company Car	-.483	2.439	1.620	.039	-----	-----	-----	-----
Office	-----	-----	-----	-----	.594	.525	.552	1.277
Equipment	-----	-----	-----	-----	.569	.541	.566	1.103

Note: e^B = change in odds ratio.

Negotiation success coded as 1 for *yes* and 0 for *no*. Organizational measures are scored from 1 for *strongly disagree* to 7 for strongly agree. *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$.

Table 5

Summary of Separate Logistic Regression Analyses for Diversity Climate Predicting Negotiation Success Before Starting First Job and Within Current Job [Study 2]

Type of Negotiation	Job							
	Initial				Current			
	B	*SE*	e^B	*Wald*	*B*	*SE*	e^B	*Wald*
Pay	-.736***	.222	.479	10.997	.619**	.239	.538	6.730
Promotion	2.688	2.476	.068	1.179	.775	.471	.461	2.704
Job duties	.669	.479	.512	1.951	.674	.403	.510	2.795
Vacation	-.724	.623	2.063	1.353	-.006	.489	1.006	.000
Schedule	.450	.400	.637	1.267	.924*	.467	.397	3.910
Start Date	.649	.542	.523	1.433	.547	.818	.578	.053
Benefits	-.818	.906	2.265	.814	.559	1.021	.572	.300
Bonus	.021	.526	.979	.002	.093	.812	.911	.013
Company Car	28.271	53.59	.684	.000	-----	-----	-----	-----
Office	-----	-----	-----	-----	.820	.770	.440	1.133
Equipment	-----	-----	-----	-----	1.783	1.531	.168	1.357

Note: e^B = change in odds ratio.

Negotiation success coded as 1 for *yes* and 0 for *no*. Diversity climate scored from 1 for *not at all* to 5 for *to a great extent*. *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$.

Table 6

Pearson Correlation Matrix for Diversity Climate, Organizational Trust, and Organizational Transparency Measures Before Starting First Job [Study 2]

	Diversity Climate	Overall Transparency	Participative	Substantial	Secretive	Account
Trust	.482**	.603**	.598**	.671**	.546**	.588**
Diversity		.566**	.596**	.561**	.223**	.600**
Overall			.868**	.804**	.292**	.740**
Participative				.835**	.329**	.780**
Substantial					.382**	.738**
Secretive						.348**

**p < 0.01

Table 7

Pearson Correlation Matrix for Diversity Climate, Organizational Trust, and Organizational Transparency Measures Within Current Job [Study 2]

	Diversity Climate	Overall Transparency	Participative	Substantial	Secretive	Accoun
Trust	.545**	.760**	.724**	.767**	.542**	.691**
Diversity		.643**	.652**	.639**	.229**	.629**
Overall			.910**	.878**	.403**	.809**
Participative				.876**	.379**	.829**
Substantial					.402**	.780**
Secretive						.371**

**p < 0.01

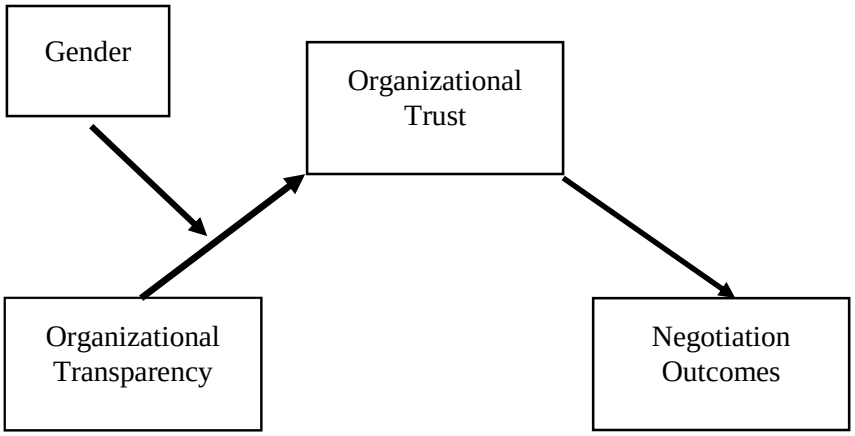


Figure 1. Moderated effect of gender on the mediation of organizational trust on organizational transparency and negotiation outcomes.

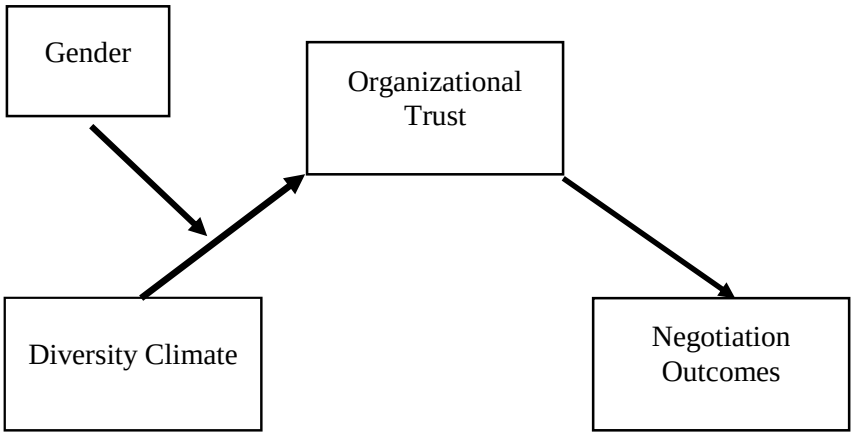


Figure 2. Moderated effect of gender on the mediation of organizational trust on diversity and negotiation outcomes.

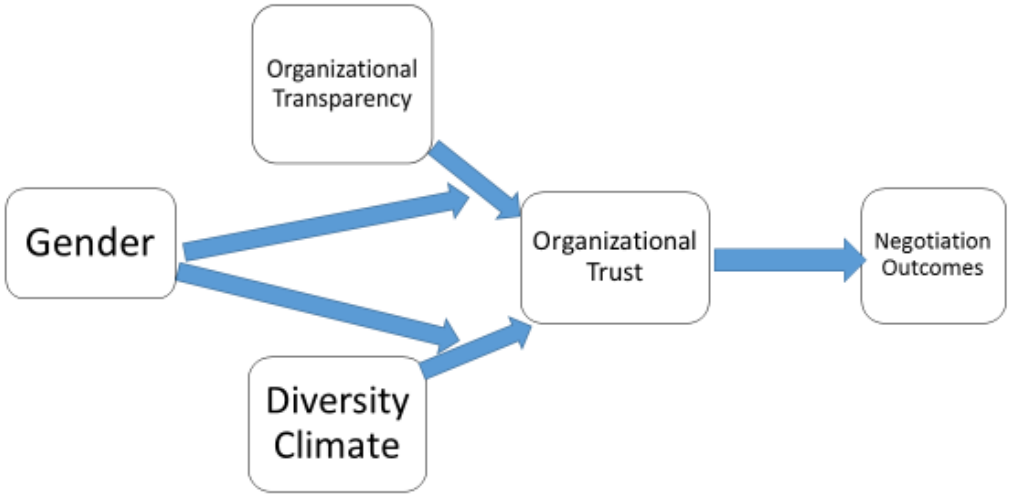


Figure 3. Moderated mediation model of gender, organizational transparency, diversity climate, organizational trust, and negotiation outcomes.

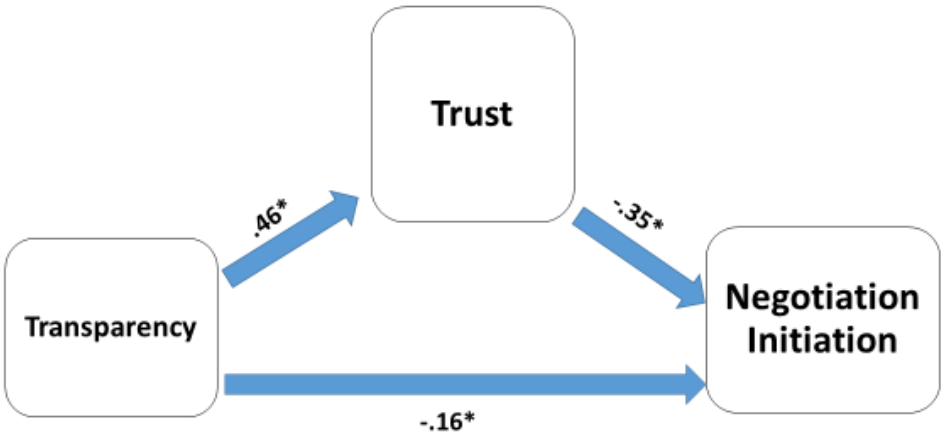


Figure 4. Standardized regression coefficients for the relationship between organizational transparency and initiation of negotiation as mediated by organizational trust within their current job. Success of negotiation coded as 1 for *yes* and 0 for *no.*
*$p<.05$

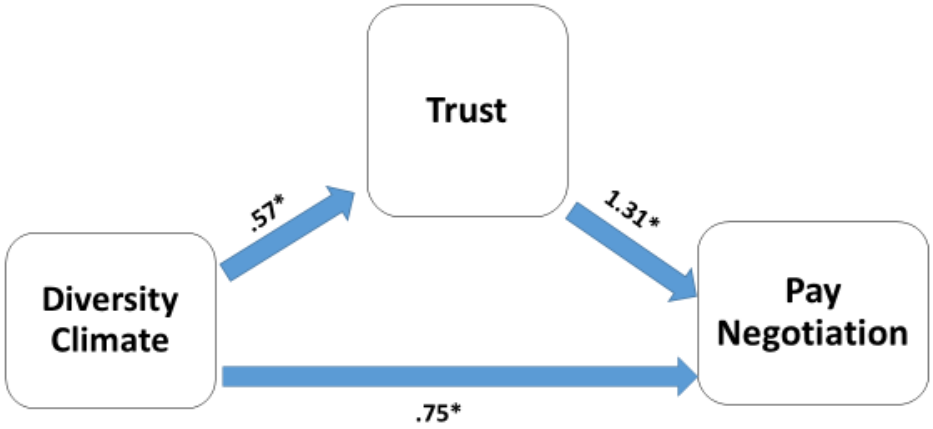


Figure 5 Standardized regression coefficients for the relationship between diversity climate and successful pay negotiation as mediated by organizational trust before staring first job. Success of negotiation coded as 1 for *yes* and 0 for *no*. *$p<.05$

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Appendix A

Role Information:

You had been attending the University of Oklahoma for the past 4 years. You just graduated with your Bachelor of Business Administration (BBA) degree in Marketing from Price College of Business. During your time studying marketing at OU, you learned about consumer needs and desires for products and services. You also studied the various strategies used to motivate people to buy products and services. In addition to fulfilling all your required courses, you took extra marketing courses to get a wide variety of experience and knowledge in the marketing field. During your last year, you had an internship at General Mills. Your work as an intern gave you experience working with the Marketing and PR teams on marketing campaigns and promotions and customer interactions. Your courses at OU and your internship have prepared you for your future career.

Since graduating, you have moved back into your parent's house to save money while you look for a job in marketing. You would like to move into your own place, but without a job and with student loan repayments coming up soon, you have to consider your financial options. You found a great apartment in a prime location, but are waiting for a job offer before signing the lease.

You've been sending out your resume and filling out job applications for companies in the area. Ultimately, however, you are hoping to work for one company, Dynamic Marketing Solutions. You liked the information provided on their Career's page of their website and felt that the company would be a great fit for you. Recently, you applied for the position of Public Relations and Marketing Communications Representative, as the job is exactly what you are looking for in your first job post-graduation. Yesterday, you had an interview with the Marketing Director and thought the interview went well. You are expecting to hear back from them with a formal job offer soon.

Job Offer

Miller, Lee **< Lee.Miller@dynamicmktg.com >** 9:35 AM (1 minute ago)

to me

Hello,

It was great meeting with you yesterday to discuss the position of **Public Relations and Marketing Communications Representative.** We are happy to extend an official offer of employment with our company.
We would like you to start work in 3 weeks, with a starting salary of $35,000, 1 week vacation, with an additional vacation day added for every 6 months worked at the company (up to 3 weeks total), and access to the company health, dental, and vision plans.

Please give us your final decision by the end of the day. If you have any additional questions or would like to further discuss the offer, please let us know.

I look forward to hearing from you and hope that you will soon be joining our company.

Lee Miller
Director of Hiring
Dynamic **M**arketing **S**olutions
Lee.Miller@dynamicmktg.com

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Click here to Reply or Forward

Appendix B

Job Listing with High Organizational Transparency and High Diversity Climate:

Public Relations and Marketing Communications Representative

Dynamic Marketing Solutions

Dynamic Marketing Solutions is looking for a **Public Relations and Marketing Communications Representative** to join a rapidly growing team. This rapidly-growing promotional marketing company applies a customer-friendly, direct, results-driven approach to marketing research and sales. As a result of proven success and expertise, new clientele is continuously added as we dramatically increase clients' product exposure, sales and brand recognition.

There is a high demand for customer service oriented, and cost-effective services. This leading event marketing firm provides advertising, marketing, and public relations campaigns for burgeoning companies and break out products. The Public Relations and Communications Representative will work closely on performance driven campaigns with high profile clients who consistently look for innovative strategic to drive their company and respective brands forward and increase their bottom line.

Public Relations Teams Include:

- Advertising & Brand Exposure
- Marketing & Account Satisfaction
- Public and Media Based Strategies
- Project Management & Team Leadership

A **Public Relations and Marketing Communications Representative** receives complete and individualized hands-on training in each division of our company. A proven mentorship program with senior management takes the time to develop and train the individual to handle any task and take initiative on any campaign. Trained, highly motivated, proactive representatives are invaluable. The right Public Relations and Marketing Communications Representative can expect to have opportunities for

growth within the first few months that reflect their unmatched work ethic and dedication.

Responsibilities:

- Managing and executing projects as assigned by the Marketing Manager
- Working with the Marketing Manager and key accounts to integrate PR campaigns with customer promotions
- Coordinating in-store service events and maintaining successful operation
- Building relationships with customers and communicating promotional services
- Working with the Marketing Manager to develop and refine measurement strategies for PR campaigns
- Development of promotional marketing materials and visual merchandizing
- Developing and maintaining relationships with suppliers and retail event personnel
- Keeping accurate and timely record of event traffic, production, and inventory
- Identifying new opportunities and efficiency innovations
- Position will be considered for senior campaign management roles based on performance

Positions Requirements:

- College degree or in the process of completion
- 1-2 years experience in marketing, sales or communications - OR - internship in related field
- Good written and verbal communication skills
- Ability to manage multiple projects
- Basic understanding of marketing concepts and sales strategy
- Proficient in Microsoft Office
- Position will be considered for senior campaign management roles

Salary and Benefits:

- $35,000- $45,000
- Full medical, dental, vision, life and disability insurance plans that can be tailored to your specific needs and the needs of your family
- Paid vacation and holidays
- Competitive 401(k) retirement savings program, matched by Dynamic Marketing Solutions

Dynamic Marketing Solution's core values and culture are built around being effective, authentic, customer-focused, open-minded, collaborative, and ambitious. Every employee has a direct impact on the growth and direction of our business. Our founding philosophy is to empower ourselves and each other to do the best work of our careers.

For us, diversity and inclusion are business imperatives.

At Dynamic Marketing Solutions (DMS) we are committed to building a workplace that actively seeks out and values different perspectives, where all constituents feel respected and that they are contributing to the business. Enhanced business relationships, greater innovation, the ability to attract and retain top talent, and increased productivity, profitability and customer satisfaction are among the benefits of the diverse and inclusive culture we are building at DMS.

Apply Now!

Example Website for DMS with High Transparency and High Diversity

DYNAMIC MARKETING SOLUTIONS

Who We Are

At Dynamic Marketing Solutions (DMS), our core values and culture are built around being affective, authentic, customer-focused, open-minded, collaborative, and ambitious. Every employee has a direct impact on the growth and direction of our business. Our founding philosophy is to empower ourselves and each other to do the best work of our careers. We value high performance, freedom and responsibility. We are candid and transparent and seek excellence in all that we do.

Culture and Values

At DMS, our performance-oriented culture and responsible approach are the foundations of our success. We recognize that our business depends on the creativity, dedication and performance of our employees. We encourage associates to focus on achievement through collaboration and innovation.

DMS Leadership standards

- *Drive for superior results*
- *Display analytical and conceptual thinking*
- *Exercise good judgement and drive changes*
- *Inspire continuous improvement and break-through thinking*
- *Energize the team*
- *Build talents pipeline*
- *Set clear direction and align the team*





Career Development

In our competitive landscape, the need for each of us to develop ourselves and maximize our potential on the job is critical. We believe that strong development programs and clearly defined career pathways benefit both our talented employees and the organization as a whole. As such, all DMS employees are provided an opportunity to develop their talents and acquire the necessary skills needed to become successful members of the organization.

Performance and Development Planning

We are committed to giving our associates opportunities to grow and realize their full potential, and create an environment of continuous performance improvement and personal development. We believe that through this commitment, which offers challenging and rewarding career opportunities, we enhance our reputation as an attractive employer.

All DMS employees participate in a performance appraisal and development planning process. This process enables associates to focus on clear and ambitious goals, to set directions and priorities and to clarify expectations within the organization. Additionally, this gives our employees an opportunity to discuss their short and long term career aspirations as well as compensation and benefits.

Learning

DMS offers a wide variety of professional and leadership development programs. We are committed to providing programs that enable associates to build skills, increase their knowledge and acquire tools they need to excel within an increasingly competitive marketplace. Our focus on development enhances DMS' reputation as a place where employees can continue to grow.

The DMS development and learning objectives is our commitment to "unleashing the full potential of our people.".

Investing in our talents is important to our business because it allows us to:

- Nurture future leaders and continue to fulfill our commitment to fill positions from within
- Increase the quality of our work
- Drive culture as a coaching and development organization
- Embed the concept that we, as employees, have a responsibility to maintain and improve our skill set
- Further enhance employee motivation, retention and commitment



Transparent & Authentic

We will share the inner workings of our company—both the good and the bad—openly. We will take responsibility for our mistakes and will do what we can to rectify them. We will represent ourselves and our intentions honestly to our coworkers and to our customers.

Our goal is to be as open and honest as possible, without causing any harm. We will be ourselves, even if that means being a little less than perfect.

We strive to have a clear and unobstructed communication exchange with our employees—we want communication to be a 2-way street! We want all our employees to understand our policies and procedures clearly. We want there to be no ambiguity that results in biased decision making.

We will treat others the way we wish to be treated: with respect for their thoughts, feelings, and opinions. We will strive to maintain the highest level of professionalism. We will not participate in or be distracted by gossip, negativity, or insults.

We've made it our mission to be respectful of our coworkers, our customers, and our community. We like knowing that we can proudly stand behind our work and our statements.

Diversity and Inclusion

At Dynamic Marketing Solutions, we see diversity and inclusion as the right thing to do. The right way to attract, retain, and develop the best talent in our industry who share our passion. The right way to have an organization that reflects the diversity of our customers to help us understand and address their healthcare needs. It's the right way to manage our business and it's why we have made it a core element of our company strategy.

We define diversity as a broad concept. It includes the many elements of our individuality—race, gender, age, experience, thinking and work styles, culture, country of origin, job status and function, physical ability, work/family balance, economic level, religious belief, organizational tenure, sexual orientation, identity, expression and more. Diversity is an approach that helps us contribute to the business and reach our full potential. A strategy that effectively serves the needs of diverse customers through different cultures, ideas and perspectives. It's also a way to leverage our distinct talents to drive improved business performance.

For us, diversity and inclusion are business imperatives

At Dynamic Marketing Solutions (DMS) we are committed to building a workplace that actively seeks out and values different perspectives, where all constituents feel respected and that they are contributing to the business. Enhances business relationships, greater innovation, the ability to attract and retain top talent, and increased productivity, profitability and customer satisfaction are among the benefits of the diverse and inclusive culture we are building at DMS.

It takes diversity of thought, culture, background, and perspective to create a truly global marketing company.

diversity & inclusion

YOU'RE IN GOOD COMPANY