

ON-GOING GENDER DISPARITIES
AND EMOTION AS A MODULATOR FOR WOMEN'S EXPERIENCE
IN THE WORKPLACE

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ABSTRACT

Women face a multitude of obstacles in the workplace particularly related to equal pay, perceptions of pregnancy, child care, emotional expression, and identity representation. Additionally, the ability to negotiate, particularly for solutions to the aforementioned issues, is often not equally afforded to all employees. The expression of a supervisor's emotions toward a female employee functions as a modulator for her experience as well as her ability to confront potential inequities. Findings of the following project reveal that the expression of anger toward a female employee attempting to negotiate, as well as the intensity of an employee's need, impacts the perceived unfairness of the interaction. Contributing factors for workplace inequities, in addition to potential solutions and implications, are discussed.

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INTRODUCTION

Despite the current traction for women's rights and recognition of existing disparities, differences in treatment based on gender persist in the workplace. While women are technically protected under the law, there are gaps in the understanding of what constitutes discrimination based on sex and gender to this day. Inequities related to salary, pregnancy, childcare flexibility, and the ability to negotiate for the rectification of these shortcomings remain. Social perceptions and expectations factor heavily into the development of inaccurate beliefs about women that can contribute to or perpetuate the aforementioned inequities. One of the more subtle, nuanced forms of differential treatment based on gender are the socially-maintained expectations toward emotional expression. The following research study incorporated each of these elements in conversation with one another in the form of a negotiation scenario. Different perceptions of the interaction were measured. Implicating factors for the contributing issues as well as potential solutions are discussed throughout.

Foundational Law & Policy

When discussing the progression of equitable treatment, a comprehensive understanding of the existing legislation is critical. Federal and state legislation sets the precedent for how individual organizations are legally required to treat employees. This combined body of documents also influences the cultural and social standards related to the treatment of men and women. Support or rejection of these regulations is variable but these documents are influential nonetheless. Legislation influences the dynamics of more microscopic, social environments and modern dynamics often influence the support or

demand for legislative expansion. The following outline of the existing legislative precedent, as well as proposed legislation, establish the foundational expectations with regard to men and women.

Title VII. The Civil Rights Act (CRA) of 1964 included sex in the sequence of identities that would legally be protected against discriminatory practices and policies. Women's inclusion as a protected category resulted in part from their increased presence in the workforce in the years following World War II as well as concerns about potential delays in establishing nuclear families. The sincerity of the decision to include sex has been debated, with some scholars asserting that sex was only considered as a way to offset the accelerated development of rights for racial minorities (Thomas, 2016). Regardless of the context, women's acknowledgment in the CRA actuated a cultural shift in the concession of gender discrimination.

Title VII, while a landmark in the movement towards equality for multiple minority groups, did not include a comprehensive understanding of the various manifestations of discrimination women were likely to face in the workplace. Therefore, the years following the establishment of Title VII engendered a series of court cases that gradually expanded the legal definition of what constituted discrimination or unwarranted, differential treatment based on sex. A notable omission regarding women in the CRA is the absence of pregnancy, or fertility, discrimination. The landmark case *International Union, United Auto Workers of America v. Johnson Controls, Inc.* (1991) changed the landscape for women wishing to start a family as well as those who never planned to have children. Johnson Controls, a notable battery production company, implemented a policy in 1982 that required the removal of

female employees from positions that involved exposure to lead, leading to the subsequent prohibition of female new hires from filling those positions. Johnson Controls implemented this policy based on evidence that exposure to high levels of lead could lead to birth defects or developmental deficiencies for children born to women subjected to lead exposure (Thomas, 2016). The Occupational Health and Safety Administration's (OSHA) extensive research on the effects of lead exposure asserted that, since high exposure posed harmful effects for both men and women, there was no reason to exclude women from these particular jobs (Thomas, 2016). Nonetheless, the policy was enforced by management universally applying the policy to all women "of childbearing age" working in lead-exposure positions who did not fit the very limited criteria for exception (Thomas, 2016). Women removed from their existing positions within the company were given the opportunity to relocate to a safer, secretarial position, which entailed a decrease in pay. Johnson Controls still implemented the policy and impacted the lives of female employees both within and outside the organization's walls. Certain women, seeing how lucrative their position in battery production was compared to other opportunities available at the time, elected to undergo surgical sterilization. This seemingly drastic measure served as a way to avoid relocation within the company or a tedious hunt for another job. The company made clear that the only way for women to keep their positions was to provide proof of personal infertility. Other women also attempted to avoid relocation on the grounds that their husbands had already undergone a vasectomy, but management denied this as justification to maintain a position because it did not guarantee that these women would not somehow become pregnant. Women took obvious offense to this rationale because it could imply that

they would be unfaithful to their husbands. Employees were also unable to prove that, even though they were still of childbearing age, they had no desire to have children at all or add to their existing family unit. The fight against Johnson Controls lasted from 1984 to early 1992, resulting in the U.S. Supreme Court's decision that the company's actions violated Title VII. While the results did not amend Title VII, it established a court precedent that would allow women to take agency over their fertility and family choices with specific regard to their employment. This case is just one of many that gradually developed the standard of expectations for what constitutes discrimination or an inequitable environment for women.

One of the most recent Supreme Court cases that expands on the foundational protections afforded by Title VII is *Young v. United Parcel Service, Inc.* (2015). This case also concerned women's rights to work while pregnant, a topic that the Pregnancy Discrimination Act of 1978 attempted to resolve (Thomas, 2016). Peggy Young, a deliverer and driver for UPS, revealed her pregnancy to her manager and, at the manager's request, sought out a note from her midwife that outlined her work limitations while pregnant (Thomas, 2016). Young's midwife, who did not believe any real limitations existed, gave a general recommendation that Young should not lift more than twenty pounds, a scenario that was unlikely to play out since Young could coordinate with other drivers who could deliver heavy packages and the average package she delivered was a standard envelope (Thomas, 2016). After Young submitted this recommendation to her manager she was placed on unpaid leave from her job, with the reasoning that she did not meet the criteria for reasonable accommodation (Thomas, 2016). Young pursued a suit against the company on the grounds that she was denied reasonable accommodation because of her pregnant status; the company

historically accommodated employees who might need to be temporarily placed in ‘light duty’ positions, with reasons ranging from personal injury to losing their commercial license after a DUI charge (Thomas, 2016). After the Fourth Circuit court ruled in favor of UPS, Young and her legal representation were approved to appear before the Supreme Court, who ruled in favor of Young and the assertion that UPS denied its pregnant employees reasonable accommodation (Thomas, 2016). This case established a legal precedent for organizational expectations regarding accommodating pregnant workers.

Title VII, while a step toward progress, has been criticized for its limitations regarding subtle, social discrimination; the abundance of these forms are discussed in a later section. The legal precedent regarding the attempt to take legal action against gender discrimination requires plaintiffs to provide, through the use of circumstantial evidence in the absence of direct evidence, proof that he or she suffered an “adverse employment action” as well as prove that this adverse action was directly related to gender (Fink, 2018). The Johnson Controls case provided tangible evidence that women were receiving differential and adverse treatment for circumstances directly related to their gender. However, providing proof of gender discrimination through circumstantial evidence has proven difficult for plaintiffs and the courts since relatively small-scale, interpersonal interactions often do not meet the Title VII criteria, even if the interactions impact a woman’s comfort and ability to function in her workplace. Courts have been cited informing plaintiffs that “not everything that makes an employee unhappy is an actionable adverse action” (Fink, 2018). Some court cases, such as *Harris v. Forklift Systems, Inc.* (1993), have established a more general precedent for the assessment of harm incurred by a hostile working environment (Thomas,

2016). This case overturned the previous precedent that required the submission of proof of psychological harm, which often had to come in the form of proving an employee had sought professional help (Thomas, 2016). *Harris* challenged the foundational approach to proving an environment was harmful by showing how women respond to adversity differently and that a woman's choice to keep her job does not mean that the environment was not personally or professionally harmful (Thomas, 2016). However, researchers studying discrimination have come to the contentious conclusion that Title VII was never intended to remedy all nuanced forms of harassment because employees cannot be expected to take every workplace slight to court. Title VII merely functions as a legal framework for how groups should be treated macroscopically. Unless Title VII provisions are expanded, other localized precedents must be established to accommodate for the gaps in Title VII's reach. It is also important to recognize that federal antidiscrimination law only applies to private companies with a minimum number of employees, a number individually determined by that particular law (Guerin & Barreiro, 2020). This leaves large numbers unprotected by existing legislation.

Other Laws/Policies. Human resource departments have attempted to develop equitable treatment beyond what is specified in Title VII. Organizations have the opportunity to assume an internal sense of responsibility for the welfare and success of employees. A notable example of progressive policy implementation is Hewlett-Packard (HP), an electronics production company that consistently chooses to set a very high standard for employee treatment and trust. Among their progressive policies, Baron and Kreps (1999) have cited employees' rigorous and continual development opportunities, higher than average pay for all, and multiple programs that provide flexibility to men and women

juggling work and family. HP paved the way for large companies as the first American organization to offer modern flextime to employees, and HP's foundational approach to valuing employees has translated into continued international success and employee satisfaction (Bird, 2014). Recent developments have emphasized HP's attempt to improve neurodiversity among its employees (Saleh & Bruyère, 2018). Former CEO of HP, Lewis Platt, encapsulated the company's approach when he stated that "successful companies of the twenty-first century will be those who do the best jobs of capturing, storing and leveraging what their employees know" (Mensah, 2013, p. 19). Findings on the perceptions of organizational decisions reveal that when the locus of decision making comes from a policy, rather than the decisions of an individual manager or group of people, outcomes are perceived to be more fair (Stritch & Pederson, 2019). These findings further support that organizational policy must clearly outline expectations and consequences to avoid personal interpretation of individual actions that could represent biased attitudes.

Elected officials within Congress and the House of Representatives have advocated for the ratification of the Equality Act which would address, among other things, existing discrepancies and gaps in legislation regarding the forms of nuanced discrimination facing women. This Act would directly amend Title VII, among other core civil rights legislation, to include gender and sexual identities under protected class status as well as incorporate the idea that discriminatory practices also include behavior or attitudes related to sex stereotypes (Equality Act). Stereotypes function as a driving force for subtle discrimination and perpetuate inaccurate, and often damaging, information about a group and its members. These amendments would serve as a first step to acknowledging the damaging effects of

subtle discrimination and the reality that prejudice exists even when it is difficult to prove in court. The Equality Act has been in circulation since its conceptualization in 1974 as an amendment to the CRA, but the House of Representatives has yet to cast a vote. The foundation of this original amendment yielded the proposals for more limited pieces of legislation such as the Employment Non-Discrimination Act (ENDA) of 1994, an expanded version of which was passed by the Senate in 2013. The ENDA, however, never passed the House of Representatives. While a large percentage of the American population are not aware of who is federally protected and what is punishable by law, there is consensus to support legislation that expands rights for different groups and protection of identity expression (Human Rights Campaign). These actions, while currently stalled, suggest the potential for federal legislative action if increased public awareness translates into pressure for political action.

Developed nations similar to the United States have also implemented legislation that furthers protection against gender discrimination in the workplace that could inform U.S. policy making. The United Kingdom enacted the Sex Discrimination Act (SDA) in 1984, leading to further federal amendments and actionable implementations for its various subsidiaries (Charlesworth, 2010). The SDA has been criticized for its generic approach and limited impact on workplace practices, but Australia has taken this act as a starting point for further protections in the form of two federal acts and a prohibition of sex discrimination in industrial relations law (Charlesworth, 2010). Industrial relations law deals directly with labor-management relations that extend further than the responsibility of equitable employment opportunities that are often regulated from the federal level down. While

emphasis on existing, or absent, United States policies is critical for the reforms demanded by the needs of this particular nation, attention to other developed nations' approaches can inform future decisions on what might translate to equitable policy in the wake of existing disparity.

Forms of Nuanced Discrimination

Microaggressions. With the implementation of legislation enforcing a more equitable environment and the resulting decline of overt discrimination against women, subtle forms of prejudice have emerged. Discrimination cannot disappear with the implementation of legislation, but the ways in which it is expressed are subject to change based on the existing social and political environments. Similar to patterns in racial discrimination, gender discrimination has evolved to encompass and describe ways in which a specific gender experiences a disadvantage during interpersonal interactions. Gender microaggressions include the ambiguous expression of disproportionate criticism or inequitable treatment of a person, primarily expressed from someone who is not a member of that gender group (Basford, Offermann, & Behrend, 2014). Discrimination researchers have attempted to narrow the scope of microaggressive behavior with the establishment of specific categories, but the expression of microaggressions can vary based on the context. Research into microaggressive behavior has found that it not only shares similar manifestations with racial microaggressions but can also be measured similarly. Certain categories that could encompass gender, as well as racial, microaggressions are microinsult, microassault, and microinvalidation (Basford et al., 2014). Investigation into the perceptions of discrimination against women has revealed that the ability to detect discrimination increases with the

intensity of the microaggression for both men and women, which shows the need for competent understanding of nuanced forms of discrimination (Basford et al., 2014). However, female audiences are still more likely to perceive a microaggression as discriminatory behavior (Basford et al., 2014). Analysis of these social interactions yield results that are consistent with the study of sexual harassment where it is revealed that women are more likely to identify the presence of sexual harassment in an interaction between a man and a woman (Basford et al., 2014). Microaggressions can manifest in maliciously measurable ways as well as lead to more overtly discriminatory behaviors that could provide legal evidence that women are navigating an inequitable working environment. However, the main detrimental feature of microaggressions and subtle discrimination is the unactionable and subjective context related to expression. This precarious terrain makes it difficult to confront behaviors that personally impact female employees but may not read as discriminatory to the perpetrator or to outside audiences.

Sidelining. Another notable form of inactionable, discriminatory behavior is the practice of gender sidelining, or the tendency to not uphold women's success or downplay the importance of accomplishments, either separate from or in comparison to the accomplishments of men (Fink, 2018). Similar to microaggressive behavior, sidelining is a behavior that has also impacted the representation of racial and ethnic minority successes. However, recent attention has been given to the ways in which gender sidelining severely impacts women's experiences socially, professionally, artistically, and scientifically. Gender sidelining has become highly measurable in competitive contexts with regard to the relative accomplishments of male and female professional athletes. Following the 2016 Summer

Olympics, a relatively obscure Texas newspaper reported coverage of the athletic highlights, including the success of decorated American swimmers Michael Phelps and Katie Ledecky. The headline was dedicated to Phelps' tie for the silver medal, with smaller, less noticeable print describing Ledecky's record-setting, gold medal wins for the 200, 400, and 800-meter freestyle races (Fink, 2018). This incident has been cited as an archetypal example of how "even the most historic achievements of a woman are less important than a pretty good performance from a man" (Fink, 2018). This example, while it can be classified as sidelining, is not as simple as Fink (2018) would have audiences believe. While Ledecky did break multiple records and deserves her own recognition, Phelps' second place medal made him the most decorated Olympian of all time. Perhaps the true underlying issue was the paper's need to publish the athletes' combined accomplishments in competitive proximity to one another.

A better representation of sidelining in the world of athletics would be the current discrimination charged by the U.S. Women's National Soccer Team (WNT) against U.S. Soccer Federation (USSF). The WNT recently became vocal about their treatment and pay, stating that they earn as little as forty percent of the U.S. Men's National Soccer Team (MNT) (Weber, 2016). As of 2015, the WNT had earned three FIFA World Cups and gold medals in four out of the five previous Olympics, with a fourth world cup added in 2019 (Weber, 2016; FIFA.com). These accomplishments solidified their reputation as the world's most successful women's soccer program (Weber, 2016). After the women's team realized that their repeated international success was not reflected in their pay, the WNT filed an Equal Employment Opportunity Commission (EEOC) violation against the USSF. While the women's team deserves pay that matches their continual success, they will likely not acquire

it with this singular lawsuit because there are multiple organizations and factors at play that determine what teams receive. For example, the USSF argues that pay disparities are the results of a collective bargaining agreement facilitated by the Player's Association, the union representing the WNT (Weber, 2016). Additionally, one of the many complaints regarding differences in bonus structuring for competing in the FIFA World Cup is complicated by the fact that FIFA determines how much money is set aside for men's and women's teams, which happens to be \$400 million and \$30 million, respectively (Das, 2019). However, the decision from this lawsuit will determine how the team can move forward in the pursuit of equitable treatment based on their impressive performance.

With regard to more creative endeavors, the film industry has received criticism for the long-standing tradition of under-representing women, particularly with Academy Award nominations. Aside from the categories dedicated to actors' performances, Academy Award categories are open to both male and female nominations. Additionally, while the whole of the Academy's membership votes to determine winners in each category, the nominations for these awards are determined by a council solely dedicated to that single category (Dockterman, 2020). The Academy has made recent strides in extending membership invitations to more women and minorities, but the nomination councils are still criticized for a lack of diversity (Dockterman, 2020). One of the more apparent trends within the Academy is the consistent lack of nominations afforded to female directors. After ninety-two years, only five women have been nominated for Best Director and only one female director has won (Dockterman, 2020). These five nominations have spanned nearly five decades, with the first occurring in 1976, which points to a consistent trend of exclusion (Dockterman, 2020).

The composition of the pool of working directors is obviously going to influence the number of women available to receive a nomination. For the year 2019, women accounted for twelve percent of directors of the top 100 grossing films, an increase from eight percent in 2018 (Lauzen, 2020). The number of female directors, however, is also being influenced by the number of project offers that are extended to women. Statistically, women are given significantly fewer opportunities to direct following the release of their debut feature (Dockterman, 2020). Across a decade's worth of career data, only seventeen percent of female directors were given the opportunity to direct a second film compared to forty-five percent of male directors, even though all of these directors had contributed to the top 1200 films of that decade (Dockterman, 2020). Women are also less likely to be trusted with high budget franchises, even if their careers have proven successful (Dockterman, 2020). Therefore, the accomplishments and creative opportunities of male directors is being favored over that of women, even if they have both accrued comparable success. The publication of athletic and creative production serve as an easily identifiable symptom of inherent gender bias, but sidelining can present itself in every space occupied by men and women.

When confronted with workplace gender sidelining, women are impacted both socially and personally. Women are often given less access to advantageous opportunities. Women are also given fewer opportunities to develop through the completion of more difficult tasks, which decreases the likelihood that they can prove themselves and their competencies to coworkers and supervisors (Fink, 2018). There is evidence, however, that shows how women completing competitive, impressive tasks are less likely to receive praise or recognition in comparison to their male counterparts completing similar or less

consummate tasks (Fink, 2018). Therefore, women must either accept that the work they complete is more menial or risk high-stakes accomplishments being brushed to the side. Even with their accomplishments sidelined, women are often held to a higher standard than their male equivalents. Specific to the field of business and CEOs, researchers have found that it is easier for the general public to conceptualize a leader as male, meaning that women must continue to prove themselves again and again throughout their careers (Fink, 2018). This discrepancy could be due to the fact that less than thirty percent of chief officers in business are women, even though women comprise around fifty percent of the managerial positions within organizations (Labor Force Statistics, 2020). Men and women are also valued differently as employees. While the process of performance evaluation and its gendered effects are discussed in a later section, men are often judged based on their potential whereas women are valued based on performance, a differential process that contributes to women feeling they must repeatedly prove themselves (Fink, 2018). These blocked opportunities for advancement or recognition tend to discourage women from seeking higher-level positions, which is likely to further the dichotomous treatment of underrepresented women in positions of authority.

Pregnancy and Childcare. Discrimination based on fertility and childcare has decreased since Johnson Control's questionable policies, but there are still unique challenges for women directly related to their child-bearing abilities or desire to start a family. Even with recent developments in anticipated gender roles, women are still expected to take on a disproportionate amount of work related to childcare. Even with the gradual increase in a father's participation in childcare, mothers still fulfill more than half of the household's

average childcare needs (Buchanan, McFarlene, & Das, 2016). This trend becomes even more alarming with the current reality that more mothers, than at any point in time, are entering the workforce, even with young children in the home (Buchanan et al., 2016). Therefore, women are expected to contribute to a dual-income household while also coordinating more than half of the expected childcare. While this discrepancy may come from an agreement made between partners, women are still required to maintain employment that will accommodate a mother's child care needs or allow the flexibility to balance both work and involvement with a child.

Women are consistently expected to fulfill more of their children's warmth-related needs than men, expectations that remain consistent if the mother works twenty, forty, or sixty hours per week and even if her male counterpart shares a similarly demanding schedule (Park, Smith, & Correll, 2008). However, even with the increased expectation of women's warmth-related behaviors, men and women's warmth were rated similarly when caring for the same number of children and for the same amount of time (Park et al., 2008). This provision of warmth-related behaviors, but differing expectations, reveals the tendency to dole out praise or positive regard in ways that are not proportionate to parents' contributions. Research into working parents' stress levels reveal that the more paid hours a father works, his stress levels tend to decrease, as opposed to mothers' stress levels positively correlating with the number of paid hours she works per week (Roeters & Gracia, 2016). This result is likely due to the higher levels of engagement involved with each parent's contributions to childcare, namely the increased likelihood that mothers are more involved in the day-to-day activities of their children. Inversely, fathers are more likely to prioritize work over child care

and potentially disengage based on the intensity of their work responsibilities (Roeters & Gracia, 2016). Paired with the increased levels of stress associated with working motherhood, women are more likely to report work-on-family (WIF) guilt, a form of impropriety expressed when a parent's employment is perceived to negatively impact his or her children (Borelli, Nelson-Coffey, River, Birken, & Moss-Racusin, 2017). These increased levels of WIF guilt remain consistent after statistically controlling for momentary guilt, global guilt, and legitimate levels of WIF conflict (Borelli et al., 2017). However, when WIF conflict increases, women report higher levels of WIF guilt while men do not (Borelli et al., 2017). These findings suggest that WIF conflict is significantly more harmful to a mother's experience with WIF guilt. This is potentially due to an increased likelihood that mothers will perceive familial conflict as a failure to their children as well as a perceived failure to meet external expectations about work-family balance. Similarly, mothers who work and hold more traditional beliefs about the division of childcare report higher levels of anxiety than mothers whose responsibilities at work and home do not contradict their gender beliefs (Mickelson, Chong, & Don, 2013). Therefore, separate from anxiety specific to work, women are more likely to experience negative emotions related to their role as mothers and contributors to childcare.

Gender Wage Gap. One of the most tangible examples of gender inequity in the workplace is the gender pay gap. This issue encompasses women receiving less pay because of time taken off to be with family, lower starting salaries, and blocked opportunities for pay raises in comparison to their male counterparts. The latter fifth of the twentieth century saw a narrowing of the wage gap with the increased rates of women entering higher-paying

managerial occupations, but progress toward narrowing the gap has since ceased (Moore, 2018). Human capital theory would argue that gender pay gaps are explained by corresponding changes in either experience or qualifications of women entering the workforce (Moore, 2018). However, research into the wage convergence and its eventual halt reveal that upward occupational career shifts are no longer narrowing the wage gap; women are continually disadvantaged by wage distribution; and the majority of the modern wage gap transpires within occupations (Moore, 2018). Additionally, pay discrepancies are compounded by the over- or under-representation of women in fields that have differing pay margins, suggesting that there is not an equal distribution of men and women in varying fields (Moore, 2018).

Another hidden form of gender wage discrimination is the hidden cost related to other factors of employment, such as retirement and healthcare benefits. An additional landmark case for the progression of the understanding of gender discrimination was *City of Los Angeles Department of Water and Power v. Manhart* (1978). The department decided to restructure retirement contributions for its employees so that women were contributing more to the employee pension plan than their male peers per pay period. The justification for this policy stemmed from the logic that women living longer than men leads to the company spending more on women's retirement benefits and that, consequently, female employees should contribute more money from their checks to the plan (Thomas, 2016). Since these contributions were automatically deducted from employees' checks, women were taking home less money than their male counterparts. A group of women sued the department to have this policy removed as well as receive restitution for the increased deductions from

paychecks (Thomas, 2016). Not only did the court find that this policy violated the CRA, but the California legislature passed a law that forbade companies from requiring that women contribute more to retirement plans than men (Thomas, 2016). Health insurance is also cited as a potential, but indirect, contributor to the gender wage gap. Companies have rapidly restructured health insurance packages in recent decades, but a reliable constant is the likelihood that more comprehensive health insurance coverage from an employer leads to a decrease in average take home pay for employees (Daneshvary & Clauretje, 2007). Women tend to value more comprehensive, thus more expensive, forms of insurance coverage than men, which can lead to a decrease in women's take-home pay compared to their male colleagues (Daneshvary & Clauretje, 2007). Insurance coverage and benefits, however, cannot be specifically labeled as direct contributors to unexplained differentials between men and women or statistical discrimination as individual choices dictate these costs (Daneshvary & Clauretje, 2007).

Negotiation. An intimidating aspect of entering the workplace at a disadvantage is the potential need for negotiation on behalf of these needs or pending future needs. The aforementioned discrepancies related to childcare responsibilities as well as wage disparities would be obvious grounds for negotiation. However, women have the unenviable task of advocating for their equitable treatment or previously unacknowledged potential for advancement while maintaining agreeable relations with their superiors and peers. Calling attention to experienced inequity can confront supervisors or coworkers with the reality that they function in an environment that is not fair to all of its members, an assertion that many reject for the sake of cognitive comfort and belief in their organization (Kang, Xiu, & Roline,

2015). Empirical investigation into factors contributing to negotiation have found that attempting to negotiate has a negative impact on a supervisor's willingness to work with a female candidate but not with a male candidate (Kang, et al., 2015). Women who negotiate are also perceived as more "pushy" and demanding than women who do not, whereas perceptions of men are generally not affected by their attempts to negotiate (Kang, et al., 2015). Economic analysis of women as a form of human capital has determined that women are generally assumed to "expect less and give more" (Kang, et al., 2015). Male supervisors also tend to resist and react negatively to challenges whereas female supervisors are more likely to acquiesce. Findings reveal, however, that women who attempt to negotiate in interviews are likely to be penalized by both male and female interviewers (Kang, et al., 2015). Ultimately, even when women wish to negotiate for their equal treatment, they must overcome potential violations to social norms as well as negative perceptions from their supervisors based on these violations.

Expression of Emotion in the Workplace

Emotional expression has a long-standing effect on attitudes formed about a person, place, or concept. Individuals are likely to incorporate emotional expression from outside sources as a critical component of attitude formation, effects that are also transferable to a change in attitude (Van Kleef, van den Berg, & Heerdink, 2014). This valuation of emotion is mitigated when an individual's cognitive processing is undermined by cognitive load, a phenomenon that occurs when cognitive resources that could otherwise be designated to cognitive operations are depleted (Van Kleef et al., 2014). These findings imply that the

appraisal of someone's emotions requires a certain level of cognitive attention before the findings can be incorporated as justification for an attitude.

An emerging field of interest related to women's experience is the impact of emotional expression in the workplace. Traditionally, gender display rules have dictated what emotions are deemed appropriate and the accepted intensity at which they can be expressed (Brescoll & Uhlmann, 2008). Men are associated with more powerful emotional states like anger or aggression but also emotionally neutral states that do not require expression or investment in the situation (Brescoll & Uhlmann, 2008). Men face an interpersonal double standard where they navigate maintaining emotional neutrality to avoid receiving criticism insinuating that they are overly expressive—criticisms that often liken a man to a woman. In contrast, women are more likely to be associated with emotionality in general, with specific attention to demonstrative emotions such as happiness and sadness (Brescoll & Uhlmann, 2008). These widespread associations between emotion and gender permeate multiple aspects of professional life, not just traditional business settings. A current and notable example is the 2016 presidential election. There were many factors related to personal perception that impacted the various representations of both Hillary Clinton and Donald Trump, some of which arguably stemmed from their respective genders. This was the first presidential election in American history where a woman was nominated for president by a major party as well as the first time a woman won the popular vote for presidency (Nee & De Maio, 2019). However, analysis of social media campaigns during the election reveals that depictions of Clinton often emphasized the ways in which she deviated from positively viewed gender norms associated with women, such as warmth and friendliness, while also

underscoring the ways in which she aligns with gender norms that are associated with weakness, like her emotionality and aggressiveness (Nee & De Maio, 2019). Overall, many negative depictions of Clinton fixated on the ways she represents herself and her gender with regard to emotional expression or lack thereof. Perceptions of Clinton as a candidate were influenced by multiple factors related to her career both as first lady and Secretary of State, but the above study functions as evidence that gender stereotypes associated with emotion and leadership factored into how she was portrayed in social media campaigns.

Even though more women are entering workplace leadership positions than ever before, there are often diverging expectations associated with the gender of a leader. Affective expression intermingles with perceptions of leadership, often to the disadvantage of women in positions of power. Emotions are too often perceived differently based on descriptive characteristics of the deliverer. Women choosing to express emotions traditionally associated with male leaders must overcome double-edged sword logic. While overall levels of perceived competence might marginally be influenced by emotional expression, women willing to express powerful emotions such as anger in a leadership position run the risk of losing interpersonal respect or authority from subordinates (Brescoll & Uhlmann, 2008). However, women who employ emotions that are more stereotypically feminine and establish an environment that is interpersonally nurturing risk unintentionally devaluing their legitimate authority for the sake of fostering positive emotions rather than intimidation (Brescoll & Uhlmann, 2008).

Discrepancies in expectations of the expression of emotion are perpetuated through social maintenance and will likely result in negative reactions from social perceivers should

an individual attempt to deviate from the restrictive norm. The incorporation of women in managerial positions has presented a social landmine of choices. Professional women who engage in the expression of anger are often afforded lower perceived status and lower wages and are perceived as less competent than their angry male counterparts (Brescoll & Uhlmann, 2008). Professional women who remained emotionally neutral did not suffer the same downgrading appraisal. However, these low ratings were mitigated if the professional women identified some form of external cause for their anger rather than implying it was due to internal factors (Brescoll & Uhlmann, 2008). These findings support the supposition that anger is a status emotion reserved for a select few. Moreover, there are detrimental findings surrounding the topic of self-promotion. Women who promote their abilities, while perceived as generally competent, are viewed as less likeable and less hireable than women who do not engage in self-promotion (Brescoll & Uhlmann, 2008). The diverging findings related to anger and competency in the above examples are potentially explained by the medium in which they are expressed. It is possible that self-promoting women can be recognized for their competencies but these competencies are masked when she chooses to emote. These capricious findings serve as justification not only for the necessary comprehension of emotional expression but also for the investment in women's opportunities to attain strategies that aid in the navigation of emotion without incurring social penalty.

A relatively modern field of study concerning emotion underscores the importance of emotional intelligence, the cognitive process that allows an individual to be aware of and regulate his or her own emotions and assess how those emotions can impact others (Adil & Kamal, 2016). Investigation into emotional intelligence's ability to affect emotional

expression has supported the intuitive assumption that emotional intelligence is positively correlated with positive affect as well as negatively correlated with negative affect (Adil & Kamal, 2016). Therefore, employees with higher levels of emotional intelligence are more likely to foster positive affect in their interactions. Emotional intelligence not only relates to the fulfillment of employee-customer relationship needs but also the needs of all workplace interpersonal relationships. Business and working environments are subject to change along with a workforce's attitudes and feelings. Employees should be equipped not only with the knowledge of how these emotions manifest but also how to manage these emotions as members of a cohesive unit.

As depicted in the above examples, the interpretation of emotion in the workplace is heavily dependent on the context in which it is expressed. Research into the interplay of emotion and negotiation has found that those wishing to negotiate are more likely to perceive angry refusals of negotiation from a manager as more unfair when it relates to a conflict of values rather than a conflict of interest (Harinck & Van Kleef, 2012). This higher sensitivity to value conflicts also translates to the increased likelihood that a participant would escalate a situation to higher forms of management (Harinck & Van Kleef, 2012). However, conflicts of interest that were met with an angry reaction from a manager were more likely to result in conciliatory, placative behavior from the employee (Harinck & Van Kleef, 2012). These findings suggest not only the value in understanding anger's power in the workplace but also the importance of the directionality with which an emotion is expressed.

A common workplace scenario where emotions factor heavily are performance evaluations. The process of receiving feedback can be grueling and emotionally sensitive,

making the understanding of emotions and their precedents all the more imperative.

Performance feedback interviews are processed as emotional events by both the subordinates receiving feedback as well as the supervisors delivering the information (Alam & Singh, 2019). Events lead to emotion regulation when the emotions elicited by that event deviate from previously established display rules. Both parties participating in performance feedback employ emotion regulation strategies but the two specifically noted are surface acting and deep acting. Surface acting refers to the tendency to fake emotions that comply with expectations in workplace interaction whereas in deep acting employees make an effort to modify their inner feelings to appear more genuine in the expression of emotion (Alam & Singh, 2019). These two processes lead to very different perceptions and reactions from both the supervisor and the employee (Alam & Singh, 2019). The utilization of deep acting in workplace events is often associated with more favorable work outcomes as well as increased satisfaction with emotional events like performance evaluations (Alam & Singh, 2019). Deep acting is also more likely to be favored as an emotional regulation strategy by those higher in emotional intelligence (Alam & Singh, 2019). Overall, the ability to perceive as well as regulate emotion is likely to impact the cohesion of a workplace and its inhabitants.

All of the above issues and concerns impact the working landscape for women as well as their perspective when incorporating themselves into their respective fields. The following project attempts to put issues related to negotiation, pregnancy, childcare concerns, and salary in conversation with one another and observe how perceptions of these factors are influenced by the interjection of emotion into a scenario. It was hypothesized that perceptions of unfairness and reported escalatory tendencies would increase both with the presence of

anger and the increase in the negotiating worker's needs. Findings will extend the existing understanding of how emotion impacts workplace interactions as well as how contextual negotiation factors impact the perceptions of inequity.

METHOD

Participants

Two hundred eighty-five participants were recruited from a mid-sized university in the southwestern United States ($M= 19.45$, $SD= 2.58$, 78.6% Female). The sample consisted of 44.9% Caucasian, 39.6% Latino/a or Hispanic, and 9.6% Black/African American. All participants were recruited through the online SONA system hosted by the mid-sized university. Course credit or extra credit was provided in return for participation. All participant data was de-identified to protect participants' anonymity, as is required by the Institutional Review Board.

Materials

Demographics. All participants completed a demographic questionnaire to identify age, gender, and ethnicity.

High Need/Low Need Compromisation. Participants responded to two workplace vignettes, one depicting a female employee's attempt at negotiating with a male superior for an increase in salary and one depicting a woman attempting to negotiate for time off related to childcare. Each vignette either depicted the woman in a state of high need or a state of low need for what was requested. Each vignette also depicted either a neutral reaction in response to the woman's negotiation attempt or an angry reaction from the manager. These two parts of the vignettes were randomized, creating four possible combinations for each of the two vignettes: low need/neutral reaction, high need/neutral reaction, low need/angry reaction, and high need/angry reaction. Each of the vignettes was followed by a two-item manipulation check, one for emotion and one for the need scenario, on a yes or no scale. Conflict

compromise was measured with two items rated on a 5-point Likert scale to assess if the participant believed the female employee would be compromising her values by yielding to her superior's denial of accommodation (1= *certainly not*, 5= *certainly*). Reliability statistics for these two items revealed a Cronbach's Alpha of .432 for the childcare condition and a value of .758 for the salary condition.

Perceived Unfairness. Participants responded to one item to measure the perceived unfairness of the male boss' reaction. This item was measured on a 5-point Likert scale (1= *certainly not*, 5= *certainly*).

Escalatory Tendencies. Three items were used to measure the extent to which the participant would escalate the situation past what was contained in the vignette, either by proposing a take-it-or-leave-it offer, threatening to take action against the male boss, or contacting the boss' supervisor. These three items were measured on a 5-point Likert scale (1= *not at all*, 5= *yes, very much*). Reliability statistics for these three items revealed a Cronbach's Alpha of .553 for the childcare condition and .695 for the salary condition.

Interpersonal Reactivity. In order to assess the potential impact of personal factors on perceptions of female negotiation, participants responded to a shortened Interpersonal Reactivity Index (Davis, 1980). The two subscales of the IRI measured individual perspective-taking (PT) and empathetic concern (EC), two traits that might affect a participant's sensitivity to watching a woman be denied a workplace accommodation. Items were measured on a 5-point Likert scale (1= *does not describe me very well*, 5= *describes me very well*). Reliability statistics on this questionnaire revealed a Cronbach's Alpha of .298.

Perceptions of Gender Discrimination. Participants responded to a 7-item questionnaire that assessed their perceptions of commonplace gender discrimination. These questions were adapted from questionnaires used to measure perceptions of discrimination against Hispanics (2007 National, 2007). Four of the questions were measured on a 4-point Likert scale (1= *very often*, 4= *never*). A sample item from this section is *'You are treated with less respect than other people.'* The other three items were measured on a 3-point Likert scale (1= *major problem*, 3= *not a problem*). A sample item from this section is *'In general, do you think discrimination against women is a major problem, a minor problem, or not a problem in the workplace?'* Reliability statistics for this questionnaire revealed a Cronbach's Alpha of .797.

Procedure

This study was completed online using the online hosting site "PsychData." Participants were given 40 minutes to complete the study. After signing an informed consent document, participants completed the demographic questionnaire, followed by two workplace vignettes, items measuring the female employee's value compromise, items measuring escalatory tendencies, the shortened Interpersonal Reactivity Index (IRI), and a questionnaire measuring perceptions of gender discrimination. Participants were debriefed and given one SONA credit for their participation.

RESULTS

Correlation

A Pearson correlation was conducted to analyze the relationship between a participant's escalatory tendencies, perceptions of an employee's value compromise, and the participant's interpersonal reactivity. There was a positive correlation between participants' overall interpersonal reactivity and perceptions of the female employee's value compromise in the childcare condition ($r(285) = .122, p = .039$). A stronger positive correlation existed between a participant's perception of value compromise and the subscale of interpersonal reactivity that measured perspective taking ($r(285) = .157, p = .008$). There was also a positive correlation between participants' perceptions of the employee's value compromise and escalatory tendencies in the salary condition ($r(285) = .184, p = .002$).

ANOVA

A univariate analysis of variance was conducted on the dependent variable for escalatory tendencies against the independent variables of need condition and reaction condition, all related to the childcare scenario. In the low need condition, participants reported higher escalatory tendencies in an angry condition ($M = 3.23, SD = .79$) than in a neutral condition ($M = 2.89, SD = .87$). Participants also reported higher escalatory tendencies for the high need condition with an angry reaction ($M = 3.45, SD = 1.04$) as opposed to the neutral reaction ($M = 2.90, SD = .92$). There was a statistical significance between groups based on reaction condition ($F(1) = 9.99, p = .002$).

There was also a univariate analysis conducted on perceived unfairness in the salary condition based on the combined need and reaction pairings. The highest levels of perceived unfairness came from high need-angry reaction groups ($M= 4.40, SD= 1.05$) and low need-angry reaction groups ($M= 4.29, SD= 1.01$). Participants in the high need-neutral reaction pairing reported higher perceived unfairness ($M= 4.25, SD= .78$) than the low need-neutral reaction pairing ($M= 3.85, SD= 1.19$). A statistical significance existed between groups ($F(3) = 5.24, p= .002$).

MANOVA

A series of multivariate analysis of variance (MANOVA) were conducted on participants' escalatory tendencies, perceptions of value compromise, the need conditions of the vignettes as well as the reaction conditions of the vignettes. A multivariate analysis of variance on reaction conditions revealed a significant main effect for participants' escalatory tendencies following the childcare condition, as indicated by Wilk's Lambda = .96, $F(2, 282)= 12.4, p= .001$. Participants in the angry condition reported higher escalatory tendencies than participants in a neutral reaction condition ($M= 3.27, SD= .84; M= 2.91, SD= .91$).

A multivariate analysis was conducted on the low need/angry reaction and high need/neutral reaction condition pairings and revealed a significant main effect for participants' escalatory tendencies in the childcare condition, indicated by Wilk's Lambda = .96, $F(3, 233)= 8.46, p= .004$. Participants in the low need-angry reaction pairing reported higher levels of escalatory tendencies than those in the high need-neutral reaction condition ($M= 3.23, SD= .79; M= 2.90, SD= .92$).

Finally, a multivariate analysis was conducted on the high need/angry reaction and low need/neutral reaction pairings in the salary condition. A significant main effect was revealed for participants' perceived unfairness of the boss' reaction, as indicated by Wilk's Lambda = .94, $F(3, 237) = 14.47, p < .001$. Participants in the high need-angry reaction pairing reported higher levels of perceived unfairness than those in the low need-neutral reaction pairings ($M = 4.40, SD = .1.05; M = 3.85, SD = 1.19$).

DISCUSSION

The hypothesis for this project anticipated a difference in perception of the male-female interaction based on the interjection of emotion on the part of the male boss. Perceptions of unfairness and escalatory tendencies were projected to increase as the female employee's need condition increased. It was also hypothesized that participants with higher levels of interpersonal reactivity would report higher levels of perceived unfairness to the male boss' refusal to negotiate. Each of these hypotheses were supported statistically after accommodating for restrictions discussed in the following section. These findings indicate that the presence of emotion, specifically anger, impacts the perceptions of a workplace interaction even when there is a difference in power between the employees. The male boss' exertion of legitimate power in the form of a refusal did not outweigh the legitimacy of the female employee's needs, particularly when that need impacted her livelihood or involved her child. This is consistent with previous findings related to women's interest or value compromise during negotiation proceedings. Researchers have found that women are less likely to be discouraged or deterred by a male supervisor's expression of anger when she is attempting to negotiate on behalf of her values as opposed to her needs (Harinck & Van Kleef, 2012). These results point to the consensus that anger should not be perceived as a deterrent in the pursuit of negotiation and should not be tolerated, indicated by the increases in both perceptions of unfairness and escalatory tendencies in the presence of anger. Additionally, responses to anger are mediated by personal circumstance and adjusted accordingly.

The legitimate power of the manager also did not outweigh the relatively unprofessional way in which the anger was expressed to the female employee. Expressions of anger have been found to increase perceptions of social dominance for male supervisors, but anger is rarely found to be justified in professional interpersonal interactions (Hareli, Shomrat, & Hess, 2009; Kuppens, Van Mechelen, Smits, & De Boeck, 2003). These findings are consistent with previous investigations into the impact of emotion on appraisal. Results indicate that intense expressions of emotion, specifically anger, leads to a more negative appraisal of an interaction (Barclay, Skarlicki, & Pugh, 2005). Expressions of anger also lead to increased emotional labor for employees in the form of tension and emotional regulation even when the anger was directed at a coworker (Spencer & Rupp, 2009).

These are findings that point to some measure of improvement in understanding women's positions when seeking workplace negotiations or an increase in the realistic perspective when appraising employee needs. These results further the understanding of how emotion influences a working environment as well as what factors influence the perceptions of an inequitable workplace interaction. Implications for future research and the development of preventative policies are discussed.

Limitations

There are limitations to the above project. The project was restricted to a reliance on self-report data from undergraduate students. Reliance on self-report data from undergraduates can impact results because the average undergraduate population has not yet entered a professional workplace and is therefore limited in their perspective. Analysis of the

data was restricted due to the randomization algorithm within the host site for the project. Of the four possible pairings available to participants for each condition, more than two hundred participants were assigned to two of the groups with the remaining participants falling in the other two groups. This established non-homogenous groups, and analysis was adjusted accordingly. The project narrowed its scope to the expression of emotion from a male manager and relied on third party perceptions of the interaction. The above project also did not explicitly include an investigation of gender nonbinary workers as well as workers of color. Minority status has been shown to elevate levels of emotional restriction as a means of maintaining a fragile sense of social cohesion (Brescoll & Uhlmann, 2008).

Implications

This project has implications for the study of emotional expression in the workplace as well as the development of perceptions surrounding equitable treatment based on gender. There are still topics that need to be addressed to develop a comprehensive understanding of barriers women face concerning childcare, salary, confronting the emotions of others, and regulating their own emotions. Investigation into these topics has the potential to reduce nuanced gender discrimination by expanding the educational resources and informing either local or federal policy regarding the issue. Discrimination and inequitable appraisals of others cannot be completely eradicated. However, continued efforts toward progress can aid the reduction, or acceptance, of expressed prejudice. Subtle forms of discrimination must be acknowledged, validated, and thoroughly understood to prevent their manifestation where women's livelihoods are at stake.

Research. The study of emotion as a factor of performance and experience in the workplace is ongoing, and the study of affect as a discriminatory tool is still relatively new. Future research approaches could employ the above methodology but reverse the dynamic so that the female employee is expressing anger towards the refusal from a male supervisor. If future research continues to rely on observational perceptions from a participant, questions could measure participants' escalatory tendencies toward taking disciplinary action against the employee. Aside from the project at hand, further exploration is warranted to clarify the ways in which emotion modulates experiences in the workplace as well as what strategies can be employed to effectively communicate emotion without incurring interpersonal backlash. The negative impacts of emotional suppression should never be ignored, but investigation into the expression of emotion is invaluable to furthering the understanding of nuanced discrimination. The existing body of research would benefit from an investigation into perspective-taking based on gender, specifically whether female participants would extend more sympathy or leniency in a management position and vice versa for male participants. The topic of nuanced, subtle discrimination benefits both from third-party, observational perspectives as well as first-person investments in the situation. A comparison in potential differences between the two could reveal a discrepancy between beliefs and behavior.

Legislation & Policy. There is not a singular, observable solution that would eradicate nuanced discrimination from the workplace. However, there are practices that can improve existing circumstances and inform future decisions. Title VII is not the beginning and end for

solidified approaches to the treatment of certain groups. The development of specialized legislation could tease apart the understanding of nuanced discrimination and provide a more salient, federal precedent that serves as foundational support for more localized solutions. The aforementioned Equality Act for the United States would not only amend Title VII to include protection of gender and sexual identities but also incorporate the standard that women could not be discriminated against for pregnancy or childcare statuses or based on existing sex stereotypes (Equality Act). While confronting subtle discrimination legally will always present unique challenges, these expansions to Title VII can call attention to subtle discriminatory practices based in stereotypes with a legislative precedent.

Some legislative responsibility has devolved to the state level, leading to the formation of policies that either develop from Title VII or attempt to reverse its acknowledgment of disparaging treatment. The interplay between localized policy approaches and federally regulated precedents are discussed below.

Findings surrounding the expression of emotion in the workplace can inform the creation of policy aimed toward equitable employee expectations. Emotions cannot be legislated or forcefully regulated. However, increased accountability related to the treatment of women, particularly coming from a legislative or tangible precedent, is likely to impact management's approaches toward confronting potential issues with inequity. All of the previously cited examples of injustice and stressors against women would be grounds for negotiation or at the very least a discussion with management. However, eliminating as much inequitable treatment of female workers as possible decreases the likelihood that

confrontation will transpire. Policies that enforce an equitable environment allow for the more efficient use of employee and company resources. Additionally, equitable policies can contribute positively to the overall health and mental well-being of female employees with children by reducing the stress of accommodating multiple areas of her life that are potentially incompatible. The United States is one of the only developed nations that does not guarantee paid maternity, or paternity, leave to workers with families. Employees can only expect a maximum of twelve weeks of unpaid leave with job security, meaning a mother cannot legally be removed from her position if she chooses to use all three months of her maternity leave (Bryant, 2020). Expansion of maternity leave has been a much-debated topic considering, while children benefit from round the clock care, the time lost in job experience and training.

The barriers presented to certain groups concerning their employment heavily implicate human resource development, placing responsibility in the hands of an employer or organization. Issues of discrimination were essentially ignored by economists until the late 1950s because they believed that a competitive environment warranted logical thinking and discriminatory attitudes were considered inherently illogical (Briggs, 1987). However, following the conditions that spawned the civil rights movement, Gary Becker introduced modifications to the previous neoclassical economic theory with regard to human resource development. Becker's theory identified employers' potential "taste for discrimination" as an exogenous factor that exceeded tangible economic analysis (Briggs, 1987, p. 1231). Becker asserted that discriminatory phenomena remained separate from economic parameters

because, according to the theory, “there is no indication as to what creates it or what forces perpetuate it” (quoted in Briggs, 1987, p. 1231). The theory also promised, though, that discrimination’s eradication would allow competitive market proceedings to continue as intended without the maladies of prejudice (Briggs, 1987). Becker’s theory, discussed by Briggs (1987), contained obvious logistical flaws and was updated by other neoclassical economists to establish a more encompassing view of workplace discrimination. These gaps in recognition have informed the progression of policy and practice. Representation within human resource management as a field must also overcome barriers to representation for the sake of organizational development. A recent theoretical development aimed at understanding gender discrimination is the application of the ‘lack of fit’ model to women in the workforce (Pichler, Simpson, & Stroh, 2008). Research has found that gender incongruity between a job and an applicant can lead to decreased performance expectations and employment ratings (Pichler et al., 2008). When it comes to the dispersion of women in top level HR management, companies have incorporated strategic human resource management (SHRM) as a way to bolster representation throughout management levels, but this strategy has not yielded drastic increases in female representation. This is likely due to the pervasive sex-typing that occurs with management positions and the ways these male-female associations persevere even after the implementation of SHRM. While women continue to enter management positions, men are still twice as likely to hold top HRM positions (Pichler et al., 2008).

With regard to performance evaluations, research has found that expectations of gender bias against women do not impact perceptions of a performance appraisal when objective methods are utilized (Maas & Torres-González, 2011). However, when subjective methods are employed for evaluations, women have increased anticipation of unfair appraisals, especially if they are not guaranteed a female evaluator (Maas & Torres-González, 2011). Objective measures require employees to be compared to an established, often written, set of standards established by the company. Alternatively, subjective measures emphasize how well an employee is performing relative to subjective observations or standards. These findings harken back to the increased likelihood that women will self-select into jobs that employ objective appraisal methods, leading to an over-representation of women in piece-rate careers (Maas & Torres-González, 2011). Employers can use these findings in multiple ways. This could be an opportunity for companies that utilize more subjective forms of evaluation to highlight the presence of female management to potential female new-hires. A company emphasizing its accessible women evaluators could alleviate some of the potential stress of entering a workplace that utilizes more subjective appraisal measures.

Organizational structuring and its antecedents can also contribute greatly to the presence of gender inequality. While the current federal precedent tends to not automatically fault an organization as a whole for disparate treatment of certain groups, an organization's structure and culture dictates the social precedent of what is expected as well as what is unacceptable. With regard to childcare, organizations often evaluate employees based on face

time, or the number of hours spent in the office, as a proxy for organizational commitment (Stamarski & Hing, 2015). Organizations have the opportunity to implement more family-friendly policies that lighten the disproportionate burden placed on working mothers. These policies might include flexible schedules, telecommuting, compressed work weeks, job-sharing, and expansion of part-time work (Stamarski & Hing, 2015). Unfortunately, however, incorporating more flexible work options can open the door to discrimination. Companies cannot exclusively offer women flexible work options. Existing discriminatory attitudes within management may lead to the allotment of more flexibility to white men since this population has been historically over-valued in the workplace (Stamarski & Hing, 2015). Therefore, policies must clearly outline what positions are eligible for flex time as well as what specific structuring that flex time would entail. The more detailed and organized the policies are, the less room there is for discriminatory action or the misuse of flexible schedules. Ultimately, human resource policy must be reinforced by an overall organizational culture and climate that fosters the development of all employees. Leaders within an organization must also promote and support these policies as a way to increase visibility and role modeling for other employees (Stamarski & Hing, 2015).

Aside from the social benefit reaped from work-family programs, there is tangible evidence that the implementation of innovative or progressive work-family policy increases the value of an organization. Investigation into the fluctuation of shareholder value has found an increase in shareholder return following the announcement of a new policy aimed at accommodating, and potentially decreasing, the stress associated with working and having a

family (Arthur & Cook, 2004). Researchers have postulated that this increase in value is due to three contingencies related to accommodating working parents. First, organizations who implement progressive policy are able to manipulate their reputation and create “intangible wealth” (Arthur & Cook, 2004). This intangible wealth comes in the form of an increased pool of applicants who are attracted to the progressive policy that has the potential to improve their experience. An increased applicant pool leads to other positive outcomes including more qualified employees who yield higher productivity and profits and an increased competitive advantage for the company. Secondly, organizations with accommodating policies will likely better retain existing employees who benefit the company. Organizational attachment does not only come from those directly affected by innovative policy; merely having access to work-family programs that do not immediately apply to everyone can increase organizational loyalty (Arthur & Cook, 2004). Finally, increased incorporation of these programs does in fact help employees balance the stress of working while maintaining a family. Initial research surrounding the implementation of work-family policies found decreased absenteeism, higher levels of job satisfaction, and potentially higher levels of productivity (Arthur & Cook, 2004). Other research into the initial implementation of work-family policies found resentment on behalf of those not directly affected by the policies directed toward those who did even though both groups had equal access to the same policy. However, further analysis has revealed that work-family policies are more frequently interpreted as an organization’s sign of care for its employees and that any backlash from bitter employees does not outweigh the benefit to be gained by

the employees in need (Arthur & Cook, 2004). Initial increases in share price reactions, however, are not a sustainable tool for growth and profit; it merely serves as an indicator of the value attached to employee-centered policy.

With the existing legislative precedent, many have postulated actionable ways to overcome inactionable forms of discrimination like gender sidelining. A previous section discussed that, while women are continuing to enter the workplace at higher rates, higher levels of female representation is no longer offsetting issues like the gender pay gap. However, other research into representation has shown that exposure to women in positions of power can actually decrease levels of implicit gender bias (Fink 2018). Not only does this shift increase general exposure to women and their abilities but it also increases the likelihood that an audience will be exposed to counter-stereotypical behavior that could potentially tease apart existing misconceptions about women. Another important area often avoided by policy aimed at increasing diversity is the establishment of positive relationships between men and women in the workplace. Policies aimed at increasing the rights and opportunities for women do not have to inherently exclude men from the narrative. A main contributor to misconceptions of powerful women are the stereotypes associated with how they react to or perceive men. Increasing and promoting positive relationships between working men and women can not only increase the understanding of the unique challenges women face but increase the exposure of a woman worker's potential and abilities. A seemingly simple step toward progress is the acknowledgment that gender bias does exist and can infiltrate any working environment. Organizations are often too focused on

reinforcing the narrative that they do not foster discriminatory behavior and that they are immune to such abhorrent practices. While this might establish a pleasing precedent on paper, those attitudes make the confrontation of existing or potential gender bias more difficult as it establishes a cultural precedent that these behaviors do not exist. A more progressive, beneficial approach would be the incorporation of acknowledgment rhetoric that does not shy away from a problem but embraces that active efforts will be taken to identify and diminish its effects. Ways to incorporate acknowledgment into organizational culture are discussed in the next section.

In addition to expanding policy, some organizations must eradicate existing policy that directly impacts working opportunities for women. In 1996, the state of California passed Proposition 209 which functioned as an anti-affirmative action initiative that required race, gender, and other identity characteristics to not factor into a hiring decision (West, 2007). This proposition had a noticeable effect on the University of California system and its ability to hire or retain female faculty. In the single year following the implementation of Proposition 209, UC Davis' percentage of new female faculty hires plummeted from thirty-seven percent to thirteen percent (West, 2007). Concerned faculty members brought the issue to California State Senator Jackie Speier who mobilized a state audit of the university's hiring processes that included a day-long investigation hearing occurring once for three consecutive years (West, 2007). Overall, the hearings uncovered that a hiring practice disparity existed for prospective women faculty, and UC system's female faculty representation rose marginally during the three years containing hearings. However, the

system's hiring and retention statistics were abysmal compared to the fact that women held fifty-one percent of the PhDs in the United States in 1996 (West, 2007). This is just one example of how anti-progressive legislation negatively impacts groups and the benefits to be reaped by underscoring these policies' inequities. Nearly fifteen years after the passage of Proposition 209, the University of California system was still cited for its lack of gender representation within faculty (Monroe & Chiu, 2010). It is also worth noting that throughout academia in general there are pay disparities between men and women as well as a lack of female representation in administration (Monroe & Chiu, 2010).

Approaches to increasing awareness for gender inequality and improving circumstances must be taken with care. Even if policies and legislation are not implemented as a direct correction for previous injustice, the movement towards progress leads to the recollection of past injustices. While some would prefer to look to the past as a guide for areas of improvement, fixation on or mention of the past often leads to decreased support from men for the implementation of progressive policy (Hideg & Wilson, 2020). Ultimately, the recognition of or reminder of injustice evokes a sense of social identity threat within majority members who in this case are men. The reminder that severe inequality once existed, and is subtly perpetuated to this day, threatens the majority's sense of security in ways that they do not commonly have to confront. A cognitive measure used to counteract this discomfort is the denial of recurring discrimination and thus decreased support for policies that would address discriminatory behavior (Hideg & Wilson, 2020). This cognitive shift is similar to what has been observed with the racial majority's appraisal of racial tension

and injustice; majorities might be able to acknowledge the severity of past injustices but protect themselves from the acknowledgment that inequity persists. This rejection of pervading prejudice could be due to the higher cognitive effort needed to assess and correct more subtle, nuanced forms of discrimination that are more implicitly ingrained in attitudes and perceptions of minority groups, including women. A proposed counteractive measure for this majority denial would focus on the emphasis of forward-thinking logic that localizes the benefit of progress to an organization as opposed to the macroscopic society. This would allow majority members to digest potentially tangible benefits from change without being confronted with the discomfiting past. While this approach could increase majority support for policies that benefit minorities, some would argue that it allots too much attention and care to the comfort of those who are not being slighted. These arguments reinforce the importance of social cooperation and cohesion when attempting to move toward progress. Majority members might need to incorporate a perspective that emphasizes the future, but minorities, and those processing the nuanced reality of prejudice, cannot remove their history's influence on how they approach the future.

As previously stated, no singular policy or law will eradicate discrimination from gender discourse. Instead, legislation and localized practices must work in tandem to establish a comprehensive culture of intolerance for inequity. In fact, such practices can inform one another throughout the tedious process of effective implementation and approach revisions. Recognition of the importance of collaboration and communication of the issues can be the deciding factors between progress and stagnation.

Training/Competencies. An obvious cause of inequitable treatment for women would be underlying sexist attitudes, particularly in those who have a stake in organizational decision making. Organizations attempt to reduce hostile and benevolent sexist attitudes through intervention approaches most commonly facilitated by diversity training. During these training sessions, both men and women are taught the ways in which gender roles are socially constructed. These interventions have shown to reduce levels of hostile sexism, but do not have consistent effects on benevolent sexism. This reinforces the tentative nature of attempting to reduce levels of subtle, nuanced discrimination. It is not uncommon for companies to require all employees to undergo a form of diversity training, but they are not comprehensive when it comes to subtle forms of discrimination. Rates of benevolent sexism have decreased when individuals are confronted with the negative effects and damage it can cause, but further development of the understanding of subtle discrimination is needed (Stamarski & Hing, 2015).

In an attempt to develop the abilities of existing female employees, some companies have incorporated Women Only Training Programs (WOTP) as a way to address the particular needs of women in an organization and develop their skills based on those unique needs. These programs not only attempt to further the incorporation of women into leadership but have been found to establish a productive environment where women can express themselves freely and feel secure pursuing professional development (Chuang, 2019). While attempts to further the female presence in leadership are noteworthy, there are strong criticisms against WOTPs. The separation of genders for developmental opportunities,

while it may underscore the importance of a tailored developmental experience, does not accurately represent organizational proceedings (Chuang, 2019). Ultimately, these programs in isolation limit the opportunities for men and women to learn from one another and establish productive professional relationships. While it is tantamount for an organization to recognize the unique challenges faced by different genders, a more reliable approach would likely include a blended educational approach that does not promote segregated learning but fosters communication between groups on both personal and organizational needs.

With regard to social competencies, further action can be taken to develop all employees' understanding of emotion's ability to impact a working environment. There has been substantial incorporation of emotional intelligence training to promote employee cohesion and prevent irrational emotional interjections. Enforced emotional suppression and regulation often lead to more elevated expression of harsh, harmful emotions that are more damaging to interactions. However, more comprehensive understandings of how to properly express or incorporate emotions in the workplace can foster more emotionally positive interactions even in the wake of difficult decisions or interactions. Emotional intelligence training emphasizes, among other things, the incorporation of empathy into interpersonal interactions, particularly those requiring conflict resolution. Higher levels of emotional intelligence lead to more effective conflict resolution (Papoutsis & Drigas, 2019). Increased emotional intelligence is also a predictor of self-efficacy, an important factor in overcoming barriers related to gender in the workplace (Papoutsis & Drigas, 2019). There is also a strong relationship between emotional intelligence, conscientious emotional efforts, and decreased

levels of unethical workplace behavior (Papoutsis & Drigas, 2019). Emotional intelligence and awareness are strongly tethered to positive, productive workplace behaviors that have the potential to decrease inequitable treatment or promote the implementation of equitable practices.

A portion of misunderstanding or misinterpretation from male workers stems from ignorance of the reality that the average woman faces entering the workplace. Education regarding the particular circumstances that women overcome to engage in their working environment may alleviate some of the tension surrounding male-female interactions and inform supervisors' positions. Recognition and understanding of each employee's individual circumstances is important to the way that employee functions in the workplace. Women do not anticipate special treatment when entering the workplace, but would benefit greatly from an environment where they are presented with the same initial opportunities as their male peers as well as the potential for development beyond an entry-level position. There are existing training programs dedicated to emotional regulation in the workplace, particularly with the recent emphasis on emotional intelligence and its importance. However, further development and more universal implementation of these policies can benefit the existing and emerging workforces.

CONCLUSION

When entering the working landscape, women face unique challenges from areas as macroscopic as legislation or pernicious as affective expression. There are blockages at the legislative, organizational, and interpersonal level related to childcare, salary, and emotional expression that suggest women have to navigate an inequitable terrain to negotiate for their advancement or like treatment. It was hypothesized that the interjection of emotion into a negotiation scenario, as well as a worker's need condition, would influence perceptions of unfairness and escalatory tendencies. Women must overcome social blocks to negotiation based on expected social behaviors, but the findings of this project suggest that perceptions of inequitable interactions are impacted by the presence of anger. Increased perceptions of unfairness in the presence of anger suggest a movement toward the adjustment of social expectations regarding women's attempts to negotiate. Ultimately, continuous investigation is required to determine ways in which women are respectively affected and what solutions would yield movement towards an egalitarian environment. Additionally, social consensus must deviate from reactions that penalize women who violate well-established, as well as outdated, social norms and expectations.

Proposed solutions to gender-based inequities will require mutual dependency on localized policy or perceptual changes as well as a legislative standard that communicates the expectations that lead to equitable treatment for all. Future research into the topic could investigate how the gender of a manager and worker influence perceptions of a negotiation scenario. Specifically, researchers could investigate whether interactions are rated as more or

less unfair if a female manager refuses a female worker's attempt to negotiate or how other gender pairings impact perceptions. The results of this study further underscore the necessity for emotional intelligence and emotional competency training for workers. Understanding the function of expressed emotions and the impact they can have on individuals will further the development of productive workplace interactions that are not impeded by personal perceptions and circumstance.

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APPENDIX

1. Please indicate your gender:
2. What is your ethnicity?
3. Please indicate your age:
4. The above conversation is about:
5. The employee yielding to her boss would violate her norms and principles.
6. When the employee yields to her boss, her norms and principles are compromised.
7. The boss' reaction was unfair.
8. The boss' reaction showed that he was angry.
9. I would propose a take it or leave it offer.
10. I would threaten to take action against my boss.
11. I would contact my boss' supervisor.
12. I sometimes find it difficult to see things from the "other guy's" point of view.
13. Sometimes I don't feel very sorry for other people when they are having problems.
14. I try to look at everybody's side of a disagreement before I make a decision.
15. When I see someone being taken advantage of, I feel kind of protective towards them.
16. I sometimes try to understand my friends better by imagining how things look from their perspective.
17. Other people's misfortunes do not usually disturb me a great deal.
18. If I'm sure I'm right about something, I don't waste much time listening to other people's arguments.

19. When I see someone being treated unfairly, I sometimes don't feel very much pity for them.
20. I am often quite touched by things that I see happen.
21. I believe that there are two sides to every question and try to look at them both.
22. I would describe myself as a pretty soft-hearted person.
23. When I'm upset at someone, I usually try to "put myself in his shoes" for a while.
24. Before criticizing somebody, I try to imagine how I would feel if I were in their place.
25. In general, do you think discrimination against women is a major problem, a minor problem, or not a problem in:
 - a. Schools?
 - b. The workplace?
26. In general, do you think discrimination is preventing women from succeeding in America?
27. During the last five years, have you, a family member, or a close friend experienced discrimination because of your gender, or not?
28. You are treated with less respect than other people.
29. You receive poorer service than other people at restaurants or stores.
30. You receive poorer treatment than other people in professional settings.

Childcare Vignette 1: Sarah works as a Junior Trainee in a consultancy firm. She has not taken days off for a while, but now she would like to start her maternity leave a week earlier than scheduled in order to prepare for the baby. She has been gradually preparing throughout her pregnancy, but there are still things she needs to take care of. One day she goes to the HR

office, and asks the HR employee (Mr. De Vries) whether she can use that extra week to prepare.

Childcare Vignette 2: Sofia works as a Junior Trainee in a consultancy firm. She has not taken days off for a while, but now her daughter is sick with pneumonia and she needs to take at least a week off in order to take care of her. One day, she goes to the HR office and asks the HR employee (Mr. De Vries) if she can have at least a week off.

Reaction 1: The HR employee reacts angrily and says: “This request makes me really angry. You know we are incredibly busy at the moment and that we have a lot of things to do. We cannot miss our people for an entire week. It seems reasonable that you should agree to two days off.”

Reaction 2: The HR employee says, “You know we are incredibly busy at the moment and that we have a lot of things to do. We cannot miss our people for an entire week. It seems reasonable that you should agree to two days off.”

Salary Vignette 1: Sofia works at a law firm. She has been working there for a year and has a starter’s salary. The starter’s salary is pretty low; she can pay rent, but struggles to pay her student loan debt and other monthly bills. She has nothing left over at the end of the month for holidays, hobbies, or other nice things. One day she finds out that her coworker Eric, in the same type of job, earns \$250 per month more than her. She decides to talk to her boss, William.

Salary Vignette 2: Sofia works at a law firm. She has been working there for a year and has a starter’s salary. The starter’s salary is pretty low; she can pay her rent and other monthly costs, but besides that she has little money left for holidays, hobbies, or other nice things.

One day she finds out that her coworker Eric, in the same type of job, earns \$250 per month more than her. She decides to talk to her boss, William.

Reaction 1: This request really pisses me off. I suggest that you think about your proposal carefully, and that we discuss it later this week. I cannot just raise your salary with \$250 a month, and I expect you to moderate your demands.

Reaction 2: I received notice of your request. I suggest that you think about your proposal carefully, and that we discuss it later this week. I cannot just raise your salary with \$250 a month, and I expect you to moderate your demands.

BIOGRAPHY

Madasen Briggs was raised in Merkel, Texas. She began her education at Angelo State University in the fall of 2016 after graduating valedictorian from Merkel High School. Madasen graduated summa cum laude in May of 2020 with a Bachelor of Science in psychology with minors in business administration and English. Madasen was an active member of the Honors Program, Honors Student Association, Psychology Club, Psi Chi, Sigma Tau Delta, and Ram Radio throughout her undergraduate career. She was scheduled to present this research at two conferences that were canceled due to the COVID-19 pandemic, a regional psychology conference and a regional honors conference.

Madasen received two year-long undergraduate research grants supervised by her faculty mentor, Dr. Crystal Kreidler. Additionally, she served as an Honors Program mentor her senior year. Madasen earned the Psychology & Sociology department Student of the Year Award for 2018-2019 and was the Psychology & Sociology department's nominee for the 2020 Presidential Award. She presented posters at regional psychology conferences, national honors conferences, and co-authored an Alpha Chi interdisciplinary research paper. She also served as a voting board member for Crimestoppers, Open Arms Rape Crisis and LGBT Services, and Concho Valley Home for Girls. Following graduation, Madasen will attend the University of North Texas in Denton to earn a Ph.D. in Behavioral Science.