10-2014

Who Am I Faced With?: The Influence of Gender-professional Identity Integration (G-PII) and Sex of Opposing Negotiator on Female Businesspersons' Negotiations

Yi Wen TAN
Singapore Management University, yiwen.tan.2012@phdps.smu.edu.sg

RUNNING HEAD: FEMALE BUSINESSPERSONS' GENDER-PROFESSIONAL IDENTITY INTEGRATION AND GENDER OF OPPOSING NEGOTIATOR

Who am I faced with?: The influence of gender-professional identity integration (G-PII) and sex of opposing negotiator on female businesspersons' negotiations

by

Yi Wen Tan

Singapore Management University

Thesis Committee

Dr. Cheng Chi-Ying (Supervisor/Chair)

Dr. Paddock E. Layne

Dr. Park Guihyun Grace

Abstract

Previous research examining sex differences in negotiation revealed conflicting evidence for its presence. This could be due to the lack of consideration of having a business identity on top of having a gender identity. This suggests the importance of examining how female businesspersons integrate their female and business identities using the construct of gender-professional identity integration (G-PII). The purpose of Study 1 was to develop a measure for G-PII by adapting and validating from existing items from past bicultural identity integration research. A 15-item measure with two factors (distance and conflict) emerged. Study 2 investigated how the sex of the opposing negotiator influenced female businesspersons' negotiation behavior. Based on the theory of identity frame switching, an interaction between G-PII and the sex of the opposing negotiator was proposed. It was hypothesized that when female businesspersons are faced with a male opposing negotiator, those with high G-PII assimilate towards the business identity cue and are more aggressive than those with low G-PII who contrast against the business identity cue. When faced with a female opposing negotiator, the reverse should be true. Study 2A and 2B examined the hypothesized interaction effect using two different methodologies. The findings showed that the conflict factor in the G-PII scale interacted with the sex of the opposing negotiator to influence female businesspersons' decision to accept counteroffers (Study 2A) and to make first offers (Study 2B). Theoretical and practical implications of this study are discussed.

Introduction

More women are taking up jobs in management, professional and related occupations and they took up more than half (51.5%) of the positions in 2012 (U.S. Bureau, 2012). In Singapore, the number of females in professional occupations was steadily increasing from 77,900 in 2002 to 121,000 in 2012 (Report on Labor Force in Singapore, 2012). Females at management levels were said to be on par with their male counterparts in terms of skills, education and training (Kawakami, White, & Langer, 2000). However, factors related to women' gender roles, such as gender role stereotypes, may constrain them and hence, not allowing them to have comparable opportunities (e.g. Burke & MacDermid, 1996; Ibarra, 1993; Tharenou, 1999; Valian, 1998). Women seem to advance careers more slowly (Tharenou, 1999; Valian, 1998), have restricted access to informal interaction networks (Ibarra, 1993), or hold fewer leadership positions than men (Burke & MacDermid, 1996).

Since negotiations are essential to interpersonal interactions and are ubiquitous in all levels of society (van Kleef, De Dreu, & Manstead, 2004), it is important to look at whether women are constrained in negotiations. Gruber and White (1986) found that women tended to use fewer strategies than men and they only used female-typed strategies while men tended to use a mixture of both male and female-typed strategies in negotiations. In addition, women seemed to be less effective negotiating for themselves than as advocates for others (Wade, 2001). Since women seem to face constraints in negotiations and negotiations are especially prevalent and important in organisations (Carroll, Bazerman, & Maury, 1988), it is worthwhile to investigate the factors that influence women’s negotiation behaviors and performance in the workplace.

The role of sex in conflicts and negotiations

Conflicts are prevalent in our social lives, and negotiation is one of the most beneficial and frequently used methods in dealing with conflict (van Kleef et al., 2004). A review of the research exploring how sex plays a role in conflict and negotiations will uncover numerous papers examining differences between men and women (e.g. Babcock, Gelfand, Small & Stayn, 2006; Benton, 1973; Conrath, 1972; Kaman & Hartel, 1994; Watson, 1991). To examine the vast amount of papers regarding sex differences in conflict resolution situations, the literature review is divided into four main aspects in conflicts and negotiations – (a) tendency to approach negotiations, (b) perceptions of efficacy and entitlement in negotiations, (c) feelings before and during conflicts and negotiations, (d) cooperative versus competitive behaviors in conflicts and negotiations, and (e) effectiveness in conflicts and negotiations.

People's tendency to approach negotiations in the first place had been studied and conflicting results had been found. Babcock et al. (2006) found that not only were women less likely to recognize opportunities for negotiations, they also had less tendency to initiate negotiations, particularly in the workplace. On the other hand, Gerhart and Rynes (1991) provided evidence that men and women did not differ in actual bargaining propensities for salaries. Sex differences in the tendency to initiate negotiations were also not found outside of the workplace (Babcock et al., 2006).

Despite the conflicting findings about sex differences in people's tendency to approach negotiations, there seems to be more consistent support for women's general perceptions of themselves as less capable or competent in conflict resolution scenarios and negotiations than men (e.g., Benton, 1973; Watson & Hoffman, 1996). Women also feel that they are less entitled to get what they want or to earn more than

others than men in negotiations (Babcock et al., 2006; Barron, 2003). The lack of confidence in women may be compounded by the fact that women feel that they are less powerful and less effective in realizing cooperative outcomes than their objective levels of power and effectiveness (Watson, 1991). This may lead women to be less motivated to demonstrate their worth in negotiations and less interested in negotiation tasks than men (Barron, 2003; Kimmel, Pruitt, Magenau, Konar-Goldband & Carnevale, 1980).

There also seems to be consistent evidence that suggests that women generally have greater negative feelings before and during conflict resolution scenarios and negotiations than men (e.g. Barron, 2003; Kimmel et al., 1980; Watson, 1991). Watson (1991) found that women, regardless of their situational power, felt more negative than men when engaging in negotiations. Specifically, women were more nervous and apprehensive before negotiations (Babcock et al., 2006; Watson, 1991). In addition, they were also more uncomfortable before negotiations and less satisfied about their behaviors in the negotiations (Watson, 1991).

There is much research examining sex differences in cooperative and competitive behaviors in conflict situations and negotiations, and again, there is a lack of consistent results found for sex differences in cooperative and competitive behaviors (e.g. Bedell & Sistruck, 1973; Ferguson & Schmitt, 1988; Major & Adams, 1983). Regardless of whether competitiveness or cooperativeness brings about a better outcome in conflict situations and negotiations, there is some evidence suggesting that men are generally more competitive than women and that women are typically more cooperative than men in such situations (e.g., Barron, 2003; Conrath, 1972; Kimmel et al., 1980; Major & Adams, 1983; Nadler & Nadler, 1985; Pruitt, Carnevale, Forcey & Van Slyck, 1986; Walters, Stuhlmacher & Meyer, 1998). An

examination of stereotypic views of men and women suggests that men indeed tend to be the tougher and more competitive negotiators whereas women are the cooperative and accommodating negotiators (Pruitt et al., 1986; Walters et al., 1998). More aggressive first offers are considered an indicator of competitive behavior and men were found to make such aggressive first offers than women (Barron, 2003; Nadler & Nadler, 1985). In addition, Kimmel, et al. (1980) revealed that women engaged in less distributive behaviors, which are largely competitive in nature, than men. Furthermore, women seemed to see a narrower bargaining zone than men, such that they set lower resistance and target points for themselves, and they also estimated that the opposing negotiation partner would have a more aggressive resistance point that was against their favor (Kaman & Hartel, 1994). Women were also found to allocate rewards more equally than men did even though the two sexes were similar in their degree of interpersonal orientation (Major & Adams, 1983). This pattern of behaviors may be due to sex differences in the perceptions of the nature of conflicts of interests. For instance, men were found to describe the prisoners' dilemma game, a task with inherent conflicts of interest, as more competitive than women (Caldwell, 1976).

On the other hand, there are also studies that proposed the reverse pattern of cooperative and competitive behaviors for the sexes, such that women were more competitive and less cooperative than men (e.g., Bedell & Sistruck, 1973; Kahn, Hottes & Davis, 1971; Oskamp & Pearlman, 1965). For instance, Kahn et al. (1971) found that females were less cooperative than males in a repeated-trial prisoners' dilemma game. At the same time, there were also null findings for sex differences in competitive and cooperative tendencies (e.g. Rubin & Brown, 1975; Wall & Blum, 1991).

The mixed findings for sex differences in competitive and cooperative behaviors in conflict situations and negotiations suggest that there may be other factors moderating the relationship between sex and cooperative/competitive behaviors in conflict situations and negotiations. For example, Walters et al. (1998) established that women are less competitive than men especially when negotiators can engage in greater communication. Moreover, the factor of diagnosticity of a negotiation task (i.e., whether a negotiation task was indicative of one's negotiation ability) moderates the sex difference in cooperative and competitive behaviors in negotiations (Kray, Thompson & Galinsky, 2001). Specifically, it was found that when a negotiation task was indicated as diagnostic of one's negotiation ability, women were less extreme in their opening offers than men. On the other hand, findings also showed that when the negotiation task was not indicated as diagnostic of one's negotiation ability, the sex difference disappeared. Another moderating factor that may affect the sex difference in cooperative and competitive behaviors in negotiations is that of whether negotiators negotiate for themselves or on behalf of others, and the underlying psychological mechanism is that of fear of backlash from incongruity of assertive behaviors with gender roles (Amanatullah & Morris, 2010). When women negotiate for themselves, assertive behaviors are seen as incongruent with the communal prescription of their gender role and hence women may be afraid of backlash which causes them to be unable to bargain assertively and successfully. Conversely, when women negotiate on behalf of others, the situation may be seen as congruent with the communal prescription of women's gender role, which results in less fear of backlash and greater ability to bargain assertively and successfully. Hence, the conflicting findings for sex differences in competitive and cooperative

behaviors in conflict situations and negotiations may be due to the presence of other factors that moderate the sex differences.

In terms of effectiveness at conflict resolution and negotiations, there seems to be consistent evidence suggesting that women may be lower in effectiveness (e.g. Callahan-Levy & Messe, 1979; Kray, Galinsky, Thompson, 2002; Stuhlmacher & Walters, 1999). Walters, et al. (1998) pointed out that women seemed to have lower success rate in obtaining organizational resources than men. This is in line with the widely held stereotypic belief that women are less effective as negotiators than men (Kray et al., 2002). A direct examination of the sex differences in negotiation performance was done by Neu, Graham and Gilly (1988), who found that women did perform more poorly than men in a mixed-motive negotiation. In addition, women paid themselves less in an allocation task than men, resulting in poorer outcomes for themselves (Callahan-Levy & Messe, 1979). In a field study by Gerhart and Rynes (1991), it was shown that women had lower final salaries than men after negotiations. A meta-analysis by Stuhlmacher and Walters (1999) also confirmed that women did indeed achieve lower profits than men.

The above review of past literature revealed mixed findings of sex differences in conflict situations and negotiations and points out the importance of examining specific conditions under which the sex differences exist. Without a clear understanding of the underlying psychological mechanisms behind the proposed sex differences, it is difficult to predict when these sex differences will be present. The ability to predict when the sex differences will be present may help to negate the differences when they are detrimental to the negotiators. Hence, to have a better understanding of the sex diffeences in negotiations, it is important to consider that men and women in the workplace not only possess a gender identity, but also a

business identity. More critically, there should be thought given to how the two sexes manage their dual identities and how this affects their negotiations.

Male and female businesspersons' dual identities

One possible explanation for the mixed findings for sex differences in negotiations is that there is a lack of consideration that people's professional identity may or may not be congruent with their gender identities. Male and female professionals may hence face different gender and professional expectations in the workplace and the difference in expectations may be problematic for only one of the sexes. The failure to take the presence of dual identities into account in research examining sex differences in negotiation may help to explain some of the conflicting evidence found. Hence, it is worthwhile to examine how the interaction between the multiple identities can influence men and women engaging in negotiations in the workplace.

Men and women who work in a corporate environment (also termed as male businesspersons and female businesspersons) hold both gender and professional identities, and they may differ in how conflicting or compatible their dual identities seem. For instance, ideal business professionals are portrayed as aggressive, independent, nonemotional, and rational, and these characteristics are typical of men (Schein, 1975). Conversely, female businesspersons may face conflicting gender and professional identities, as women are typified to be nice, caring, deferential, affectionate, kind, and soft-spoken (Eagly, 1987; Fiske, 1998; Hofstede, 1994), and these characteristics are in opposition to those of ideal business professionals.

Since the perceived compatibility of the female and professional identities is different from that of the male and professional identity, it brings about the significance of examining how male and female businesspersons manage their dual

identities, and we can do so by looking at the extent to which they integrate their identities.

Gender-Professional Identity Integration (G-PII)

The construct of identity integration (II) captures people's perceptions of their identities as either compatible or oppositional (Haritatos & Benet-Martinez, 2002). High identity integrators (high IIs) generally see their identities as compatible, whereas low identity integrators (low IIs) typically see their identities as in opposition to one another, even though the low IIs may have equally high identification with their identities.

Past research on identity integration mainly focused on how biculturals and multiculturals integrate their multiple cultural identities. Even though identity integration has been construed as an individual difference (Benet-Martinez & Haritatos, 2005; Haritatos & Benet-Martinez, 2002), there is evidence that people's levels of identity integration are malleable, such that they may change momentarily after manipulations (Cheng & Lee, 2009; 2013; Mok & Morris, 2012a). For instance, Cheng and Lee (2009; 2013) found that participants' level of identity integration altered after being asked to recall positive or negative experiences related to the identities examined. In addition, Mok and Morris (2012a) also discovered that people changed their levels of identity integration after a global or local processing style was induced. Hence, this suggests that identity integration can be a trait as well as a state.

Based on our interest in female businesspersons who hold the dual gender and business (professional) identities, which are seemingly conflicting, the construct of identity integration is highly relevant. Specifically, female businesspersons' gender-professional identity integration (G-PII) can be examined. Referencing back to the definition of II, G-PII refers to people's perceptions of how their gender and

professional identities are compatible or oppositional. Past studies on G-PII generally looked at females in male-dominant occupations, such as female businesspersons (Cheng & Tan, 2014; Sacharin, Lee & Gonzalez, 2009), female engineers (Cheng, Sanchez-Burks & Lee, 2008) and female lawyers (Mok & Morris, 2012b), and males in female-dominant occupations, such as male nurses (Wallen, Mor & Devine, 2013), as these groups of people face seemingly conflicting identities in the workplace. Hence, it will be interesting to see how the level of G-PII influences female businesspersons in their negotiations.

Identity Integration and Frame Switching

Research that has been conducted on II and G-PII reveal that there are robust interactive effects of II and the socio-cognitive mechanism of frame switching (e.g. Benet-Martinez, Leu, Lee & Morris, 2002; Cheng, Lee & Benet-Martinez, 2006). The phenomena of frame switching was initially introduced as occurring in biculturals who internalize two cultures that may be activated individually in response to cues to guide the biculturals' thoughts and feelings (Hong, Morris, Chiu, & Benet-Martínez, 2000). Individuals with varying levels of II will react differently to the activated identity, such that they either exhibit an assimilation or contrast effect (Benet-Martinez et al., 2002; Cheng et al., 2006). Individuals with high II see their identities as nonoppositional and are unconflicted about their identities and when a certain identity is activated, the network structures linked to the activated identity is triggered, causing them to assimilate to or behave in a way that is consistent with that identity. On the other hand, individuals with low II see their identities as oppositional, such that their identities are chronically polarized. Nonetheless, the knowledge structures are linked to one another, such that the activation of one system spreads to another. The tension between their identities causes individuals with low II

to react against the expectations associated with the activated identity (Benet-Martinez et al., 2002). In addition, they perceive the cues related to each of their identities as extremely valenced and display great vigilance towards the identity cues to behave appropriately to the context. For this group of individuals, the activation of a certain identity will cause them to behave in a way that is oppositional to the activated identity, thereby exhibiting a contrast effect.

Sacharin et al. (2009) examined the interaction effect between G-PII and exposure to female versus business primes on task/relationship orientation. As the female identity is linked to an interpersonal orientation and the worker identity is related to a task orientation (Deaux & LaFrance, 1998), a professional woman can be said to have conflicting gender and professional identities. It was found that female business school students who were high in G-PII and exposed to a female prime behaved in a less task-oriented manner than those who were high in G-PII but exposed to a business prime. Hence, an assimilative effect was displayed for those who were high in G-PII. Conversely, those who were low in G-PII were more task-oriented when they were exposed to a female prime than when they were exposed to a business prime. This was the result of the contrast effect for those who were low in G-PII. Hence, identity frame switching was exhibited.

Similarly, Mok and Morris (2012b) also examined this interaction effect in the domain of attentional focus. Women, compared to men, were proposed to have a more interdependent self-construal, which would lead them to be less able to separate objects from their context visually (Phillips, Chapman, & Berry, 2004). At the same time, lawyers are considered to be in the technical field and should have better performance on tasks that require them to separate objects from their context visually. The study found the same assimilative and contrast effects, such that female lawyers

with high G-PII were more attentive to focal objects after being primed with a lawyer cue than after being primed with a female cue, and the reverse pattern was found for those with low G-PII.

The interactive effect between II and identity cues through identity frame switching tells us that when people have multiple identities, a salient identity can be activated to exert greater influence on their thoughts, emotions and behaviors through the frame switching, and this is relevant in negotiations. Hence, female businesspersons may change their thoughts, emotions and behaviors during negotiations according to environmental cues that interact with their levels of trait G-PII in the workplace. Specifically, negotiation behaviors and outcomes may be affected by their levels of trait G-PII and identity cues present in the environment. Before assessing how identity cues and levels of trait G-PII may affect negotiations, it is crucial to look at how II may be associated with variables related to negotiations.

Identity Integration and Negotiations

Benet-Martinez, Lee and Leu (2006) found that people with low bicultural identity integration (BII) generated more cognitively complex descriptions of their cultures than people with high BII as they were more systematic and careful in processing of conflicting information. This means that people with low BII were better able to construe their cultures in a multidimensional way than people with high BII (Schroder, Driver & Streufert, 1967; Suedfeld, Tetlock & Streufert, 1992). Since it was shown that cognitive complexity plays a role in negotiations (Pruitt and Lewis, 1975), such that negotiators with greater cognitive complexity seemed to be able to achieve more integrative outcomes, this finding suggests that II plays a role in negotiations.

At the same time, there are results showing that individuals with high II were more creative than those with low II (Cheng et al., 2008; Saad, Damian, Benet-Martinez, Moons, & Robins, 2013). More importantly, Cheng et al. (2008) proposed that female engineers who are high in G-PII are able to gain access to multiple knowledge domains simultaneously, which puts them at an advantage for creative idea generation. In contrast, those who are low in G-PII may only be able to access knowledge content that is associated with one of their identities, but not both their identities, and hence, they are not as creative as those who are high in G-PII. Since negotiations require creative problem-solving skills (Kurtzberg, 1998), this finding also proposes that II is related to negotiations.

The above review on the relationships between II and cognitive complexity and between II and creativity suggest that II is related to negotiations. Even though these findings seem rather contradictory at first glance, especially since cognitive complexity is found to be positively related to creativity (Dellas & Gaier, 1970), there may be differences in information processing that may have contributed to the differences in findings. Nevertheless, the role that II plays in negotiations should still hold, as further supported by the study by Cheng and Tan (2014) as reviewed below.

Cheng and Tan (2014) investigated how negotiation behaviors and outcomes were influenced by the interactive effects between levels of G-PII and identity cues from the environment through identity frame switching. Participants were female business students and they worked on an identity task where they were exposed to identity cues. In the identity task, participants read a short instruction about how individuals' performance in business-related task such as negotiations is usually positively associated with specific traits. Participants were randomly assigned to see that these traits were either female traits, male traits or traits not related to any of the

genders. Thereafter, they were asked to go through the negotiation task. Participants read about the negotiation scenario where they were supposed to negotiate for the salary for the job they was offered, and then they went through the negotiation simulation. Results indicated that the female business students who had high G-PII were more likely to make counteroffers and made higher counteroffers when they were exposed to business primes than when they were exposed to female primes, thereby exhibiting the assimilation effect. Conversely, the female business students who had low G-PII were less likely to make counteroffers and made higher counteroffers when they were exposed to business primes than when they were exposed to female primes, which showed the contrast effect.

The abovementioned study provides preliminary evidence that G-PII indeed influences negotiations through its interaction with identity cues through the mechanism of identity frame switching. As negotiations are defined as discussions between negotiating parties to achieve a resolution to perceived divergence of interests (Pruitt & Carnevale, 1993), it necessarily involves social interaction between the negotiating parties, and this has yet to be looked into. During social interactions, information is being exchanged between the parties, which not only includes verbal information, but also information that is conveyed through nonlinguistic social signals such as body language and facial expressions (Curhan & Pentland, 2007).

More importantly, negotiators may also use the sex of their negotiating opponents as cues that may affect how the negotiators behave in the negotiations (Walters et al., 1998). For instance, Matheson (1991) found that participants perceived their opposing negotiation partner to be more cooperative and less exploitative when they were led to believe that their opposing negotiation partner was a female. In addition, Pruitt et al. (1986) showed that participants' contentious

behavior was determined by a combination of the factors of sex of opposing negotiator and presence of surveillance. Hence, this shows that negotiators may take in the sex of the opposing negotiator as a gender identity cue that affects negotiators' competitive behaviors and this interacts with the negotiators' level of G-PII. Examining this will aid in extending the literature on sex differences in cooperative and competitive behaviors in negotiations in an attempt to resolve the conflicting findings. As competitive behaviors are considered distributive tactics that are beneficial to distributive negotiations (Kimmel et al., 1980), distributive negotiations were used for this study.

Earlier, it was mentioned that Cheng and Tan (2014) examined how female businesspersons with different levels of G-PII reacted to female identity cues via identity frame switching, and this suggests that female businesspersons with different levels of G-PII and are faced with female opposing negotiators will also experience identity frame switching. The female identity of the opposing negotiator serves as an identity cue, and they will exhibit assimilation effects towards the identity cue when they have high G-PII and contrast effects when they have low G-PII. Hence, it can be expected that when female businesspersons are faced with a female opposing negotiator, those with high G-PII (i.e., assimilation effect) will be less competitive than those with low G-PIIs (i.e., contrast effect).

Since past research had yet to examine the effect of having a male identity cue on female businesspersons' negotiation, the influence of having a male opposing negotiator is less direct. Past studies investigating how identity cues interact with II to demonstrate identity frame switching used identity cues that were directly associated to the one of the identities that participants possessed. For instance, Benet-Martinez et al. (2002) examined the interaction between American or Chinese cultural primes,

using cultural icons such as Mickey Mouse and the Chinese dragon respectively, and Chinese American's BII. In another example, Sacharin et al. (2009) primed female business students with either a female or a business identity by writing about what it meant for them to be either a woman or in business. This then brings about the question regarding how people will react to an identity prime that does not correspond directly to their identities but are nonetheless related to their identities. In particular, it is intriguing to find out what will happen when we make them negotiate with a male opposing negotiator.

Specifically, it can be expected that female businesspersons still react to the male identity cue since the male identity cue is somewhat related to their business identity. Facing a male opposing negotiator may serve as a cue that activates the knowledge structures of competitiveness and aggressiveness, which are stereotypically perceived to be masculine (Kolb & Coolidge, 1988), and they overlap with expected traits and behaviors of a businessperson (Schein, 1975).

Moreover, since having a male opposing negotiator presents a male identity cue that is directly in contrast with the female identity that female businesspersons have, these female businesspersons will behave in a way that is in opposition to their female identity. In particular, female businesspersons who are faced with a male opposing negotiator will be more competitive when they have high G-PII (i.e., assimilation effect) than when they have low G-PII (i.e. contrast effect). Hence, this is in line with the postulation made earlier that that when female businesspersons are faced with a male opposing negotiator, those with high G-PII (i.e., assimilation effect) will be more competitive than those with low G-PII (i.e. contrast effect).

Where to start?: Construct of G-PII

Before examining the relationship between G-PII, sex of opposing negotiator and negotiation behaviors, there is a need to look into the construct of G-PII itself. As mentioned earlier, past research on II mainly focused on BII, and was later extended to G-PII. Hence, literature review about the construct of BII is presented first and it will progressively lead to a discussion about the construct of G-PII in relation to the construct of BII. The definition and components of G-PII will be examined and then its relationships with various related variables will be reviewed.

Research on BII has suggested that there are two components in the BII construct, which are distance (versus blendedness/compartmentalization) and conflict (versus harmony) (Benet-Martinez & Haritatos, 2005). The component of identity distance refers to the extent to which the identities are separated from one another (Benet-Martinez & Haritatos, 2005). High distance has been said to be associated with identity alternation, in which people do not lose their identity or to choose any one over the others. On the other end, low distance is related to identity fusion, whereby the multiple identities fuse together such that they cannot be distinguished, to the extent that a new identity is formed (Benet-Martinez & Haritatos, 2005; LaFromboise, Coleman, Gerton, 1993). Identity conflict refers to the extent to which the identities contradict one another and it has been said to be associated with identity confusion and role conflict (Baumister, 1986; Cheng & Lee, 2009; Goode, 1960).

An examination of the antecedents of BII showed that the components of distance and conflict were related to the different domains of acculturation stressors and personality (Benet-Martinez & Haritatos, 2005). Cultural conflict was found to be associated with interpersonal types of acculturation stressors, particularly in the linguistic and intercultural related domains. In addition, cultural conflict was also

predicted by neuroticism. Since neuroticism is related to trait negative affect (Watson, Clark & Tellegen, 1988), it can be said that cultural conflict may be related to affective elements of cultural experiences. On the other hand, cultural distance was related to both linguistic and cultural isolation acculturation stressors, as well as the aspects of separation strategy and bicultural competence of acculturation orientation (Benet-Martinez & Haritatos, 2005). Furthermore, cultural distance was also predicted by openness to experience. Based on the antecedents of cultural distance, Benet-Martinez and Haritatos (2005) suggested that cultural distance may be influenced by either perceptual and motivational forces.

However, it is unclear if same two components – distance and conflict – are also present in G-PII. The studies that looked into the construct of G-PII had inconsistently used different scales to measure participants' level of G-PII, as also noted by Wallen et al. (2013). In the paper by Sacharin et al. (2009), G-PII was measured by 4 items adapted from the conflict subscale in the BII scale used in Haritatos and Benet-Martinez (2002). Cheng et al. (2008) also examined the G-PII construct, but did so using 4 items from the distance subscale adapted from the BII scale used in Haritatos and Benet-Martinez (2002) instead. Adapting 1 item from the conflict subscale and 3 other items (i.e., "Succeeding as a lawyer involves the same side of myself as succeeding as a woman," "My self-concept seamlessly blends my professional identity with my identity as a woman," and "I do not feel any tension between my goals as a woman and my goals as a lawyer"), Mok and Morris (2012b) used a relatively different scale to measure G-PII. Wallen et al. (2013) stated 3 example items used in their G-PII scale, and one of the items was identical to that used in Mok and Morris' (2012b) paper. The other 2 items were ""My ideals as a man differ from my ideals as a nurse" and "I feel conflicted between my identity as a

man and my identity as a nurse". Moreover, these scales used were not examined for their factor structure or validated empirically. Hence, there is a need to first develop and validate a measure for the construct of G-PII. It will be critical to find out if the G-PII construct has the same psychological components as the B-II construct, or whether the G-PII construct has only one factor that combines both components.

Moreover, it will also be important to examine whether this newly developed measure of G-PII is related to other variables as established in prior research. In the next part, a review of the past established relationships between II or G-PII and other variables is presented and then postulations about the relationship between the G-PII measure to be developed and these variables are laid out. Since it is expected that the construct of G-PII consists of two factors of conflict and distance, how the two factors are expected to relate to these variables individually are also discussed.

As mentioned earlier, Benet-Martinez and Haritatos (2005) found that the conflict and distance components of BII were related to neuroticism and openness respectively, and hence it can be expected that the conflict and distance components of G-PII also correlate positively with neuroticism and negatively with openness correspondingly.

As Downie, Koestner, ElGeledi and Cree (2004) found that multicultural identity integration (MII) was positively associated with self-reports of psychological well-being, G-PII should also correlate positively with psychological well-being. Specifically, since Ryan and Deci (2001) suggested that positive and negative affect predicts psychological wellness, it can expected that the conflict component of G-PII will correlate negatively with psychological well-being.

Since Wallen et al. (2013) found that G-PII was significantly and positively predicted affective organizational commitment and job satisfaction, this study should

be able to replicate these findings. Specifically, the relationship between conflict and affect suggests that the conflict component of G-PII will correlate negatively with affective commitment and job satisfaction. Moreover, as various researchers had proposed that commitment is a component of motivation (Gagné, Chemolli, Forest & Koestner, 2008; Meyer & Herscovitch, 2001), it suggests that distance will also correlate negatively with affective commitment.

In addition, Cheng, Sanders, Sanchez-Burks, Molina, Lee, Darling and Zhao (2008) suggested that greater identity integration should facilitate performance, and hence, G-PII is expected to be positively related to task and creative performance in the workplace. Since it was found that employee positive moods predicted task performance through both interpersonal and motivational processes (Tsai, Chen & Liu, 2007), this suggests that task performance has both affective and motivational components. Therefore, it can be expected that both the conflict and distance components of G-PII will be negatively correlated with task performance. Moreover, as it was found that affect influenced creative problem-solving (Isen, Daubman & Nowicki, 1987), and that motivation predicted creative performance (Choi, 2004), it can also be expected that both the conflict and distance components of G-PII will be negatively correlated with creative performance.

In addition to replicating the results found for the relationship between G-PII and the abovementioned variables, the relationships between G-PII and other relevant variables will be examined. For instance, it will be interesting to examine the relationships between G-PII and turnover since organizational commitment and job satisfaction were found to be associated with turnover (Arnold & Feldman, 1982; Benkhoff, 1997; Hom et al., 1984). Specifically, it can be expected that both conflict and distance components of G-PII will also be positively correlated with turnover.

Furthermore, as task performance was found to be related to job engagement (Rich et al., 2010), and it was proposed earlier that both conflict and distance will be negatively correlated to task performance, both conflict and distance components of G-PII can also be expected to be negatively correlated with job engagement correspondingly.

At the same time, the relationships between G-PII and female businesspersons' perceptions of their masculinity and femininity, as well as their gender role attitudes will be examined. This exploration is deemed to be important as gender identity is an important aspect of the construct of G-PII. However, as this exploration is preliminary, specific hypotheses about the direction of relationships between G-PII and these variables will not be generated.

Hence, all the variables mentioned above are proposed to be related to G-PII and should be measured to determine the convergent validity of the G-PII construct.

Overview of Studies

Study 1 sought to first develop a measure for the construct of G-PII by adapting items previously used in BII measures. Since prior research on G-PII had been using different measures and had yet to establish the reliability, validity and the factor structure for the G-PII measure, Study 1 did so by including measures of other variables that are theoretically associated with the G-PII construct. These variables included personality, masculinity-femininity, gender role attitudes, subjective well-being, organizational commitment, job satisfaction, turnover intentions, job (task/creative) performance and job engagement.

The purpose of Studies 2a and 2b was then to investigate whether the sex of the opposing negotiator would serve as a gender identity cue that would affect female businesspersons in their negotiations, and whether this would also be affected by their

levels of G-PII. This was done by manipulating the sex of the opposing negotiator using two different methods.

Hypotheses

Based on past research that examined G-PII and various variables, as well as proposed relationships between G-PII and other relevant variables, G-PII was hypothesized to be related to a number of personal and organizational variables.

H1a: Conflict is positively correlated with neuroticism.

H1b: Distance is negatively correlated with openness.

H1c: Conflict is negatively correlated with psychological well-being.

H1d: Conflict and distance are negatively correlated with affective commitment.

H1e: Conflict is negatively correlated with job satisfaction.

H1f: Conflict and distance are negatively correlated with task performance.

H1g: Conflict and distance are negatively correlated with creative performance.

H1h: Conflict and distance are positively correlated with turnover.

H1i: Conflict and distance are negatively correlated with job engagement.

The relationships between G-PII and masculinity or femininity, as well as between G-PII and gender role attitudes, were explored without specific predictions as they were examined for exploratory purposes.

In addition, a 2-way interaction between negotiators' levels of G-PII and the sex of the opposing negotiator was hypothesized to affect female businesspersons' competitive behaviors in negotiations through the psychological mechanism of identity frame switching. Based on the postulations made earlier, the hypotheses below were established:

H2: There is an interaction between G-PII and sex of opposing negotiator.

H2a: High G-PIIs will negotiate less aggressively than low G-PIIs when the opposing negotiator is a female.

H2b: High G-PIIs will negotiate more aggressively than low G-PIIs when the opposing negotiator is a male.

Past research examining the interactive effects between II and contextual cues through frame switching had shown mixed results as to which factor of II (i.e., conflict or distance) was responsible for the effect. For instance, while Sacharin et al. (2009) used the conflict subscale of G-PII and found the interaction, Cheng et al. (2006) found a similar interaction using the distance subscale of BII. Hence, there was no prediction made as to which factor (i.e., conflict or distance) would be involved in the interaction effect hypothesized above.

Study 1

The purpose of Study 1 was to develop a measure for the G-PII construct by adapting existing items from the BII scales (Benet−Martínez, 2003; Huynh, 2009) as past research on G-PII was conducted using different measures and did not examine the reliability, validity and the factor structure for the G-PII measure empirically.

Method

Participants. To examine the G-PII of female businesspersons and validate the construct which pertains to this population, 100 females who had a specialized qualification in the field of business or who had been working in corporate positions for at least a year were recruited as participants for this study. The additional selection criteria of the two or more years of corporate working experience was so that the participants were more likely to identify with a businessperson identity.

Participants were either recruited via Amazon Mechanical Turk (n = 47) or from organisations in Singapore (n = 53). The study was conducted entirely online

via Qualtrics. For the participants recruited via Amazon Mechanical Turk, they were compensated $1 in exchange for ten minutes of participation in this study. For the participants recruited from organisations in Singapore, they were compensated $5 in exchange for thirty minutes of participation in this study. 6 out of 47 participants who were recruited via Amazon Mechanical Turk and 10 out of 53 participants who were recruited from Singapore organisations were found to either not state the strength of their female and business identities or have low female and business identities (i.e., below scale midpoint) and hence, their data was excluded from analyses.

In addition, another 224 female undergraduate students who had at least one business major were recruited as participants for Study 2A and 2B, and their responses for the G-PII scale were also used for examining the factor structure and reliability of the G-PII scale, together with those especially recruited for Study 1. This group of participants was also likely to have a businessperson identity as they were constantly exposed to business ideals and concepts by being in business-related classes. Since 1 out of these 224 participants was badly captured, the data was excluded from analyses. 35 out of these 224 participants were found to either not state the strength of their female and business identities or have low female and business identities (i.e., below scale midpoint) and hence, their data was excluded from analyses.

Hence, for factor and reliability analyses for the G-PII scale, responses from a total of 272 participants were used and for correlational analyses between the G-PII and other variables that were proposed to be related to G-PII, responses from a total of 84 participants were used.

Procedure. All participants in this study first responded to the G-PII measure to be validated. Following prior BII validation research, participants from the female

businesspersons subsample then filled in a number of scales of interest, including personality measures, well-being measures and other measures relating to organizational variables, so as to examine the discriminant and convergent validity of G-PII. These participants were randomly assigned to fill in 3 of these measures so that they would not experience fatigue from responding to too many items and prevent attrition.

Measures. Participants responded to the measures detailed below.

G-PII Scale. Items were adapted from BIIS-1 (Benet−Martínez, 2003) and BIIS-2 (Huynh, 2009). Items were reworded such that they would be applicable to the construct we are interested in examining. Items that did not make sense after rewording were discarded from the measure. Participants rated the 32 items on a 5-point scale (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree). Items included "Both my gender and business identities make me who I am." and "I find it difficult to combine my gender and business identities." The items in this scale are listed in Appendix 1.

Ten-Item Personality Inventory (TIPI; Gosling, Rentfrow & Swann Jr., 2003). Participants were asked to respond to 10 items that corresponds to five major personality dimensions of extraversion, agreeableness, conscientiousness, emotional stability and openness to experiences. The items were rated on a 7-point scale (1 = disagree strongly, 7 = agree strongly). Items included "extraverted, enthusiastic" and "conventional, uncreative". The items in this scale are listed in Appendix 2.

Bem Sex-Role Inventory (BSRI; Bem, 1974). To measure participants' masculinity and femininity, the BSRI was included in this study. Participants were asked to rate how well each of the sixty masculine, feminine and neutral personality characteristics described them on a 7-point scale (1 = never or almost never true, 7 =

always or almost always true). Items included “acts as a leader”, “flatterable” and “happy”. The items in this scale are listed in Appendix 3.

Gender Role Egalitarian Attitudes Test (GREAT; Chang, 1999). To measure participants’ gender role attitudes, specifically in terms of work roles and domestic roles, the GREAT was included in this study. Participants were asked to decide if each of the characteristics presented to them was more important or appropriate for men or for women, or that it was equally important for both genders. Thereafter, if participants decided that the characteristic presented was more important or appropriate for one of the genders, they had to decide the extent to which the characteristic was more important or appropriate for the particular gender on a 4-point scale, where 1 is the smallest extent and 4 is the greatest extent. Items included “be a leader” and “take care of children”. The items in this scale are listed in Appendix 4.

Satisfaction with Life (SWLS; Diener, Emmons, Larsen & Griffin, 1985). To measure participants’ psychological well-being, the SWLS was included in this study. Participants were asked to rate whether they were satisfied with their life at the moment on a 7-point scale (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree). Items included “In most ways my life is close to my ideal” and “I am satisfied with my life”. The items in this scale are listed in Appendix 5.

Affective Commitment Subscale (Meyer & Allen, 1997). Participants were asked to rate their affective commitment to the current organization they were working for on a 7-point scale (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree). Items included “I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization”, “I really feel as if this organisation’s problems are my own” and “I do

not feel ‘emotionally attached’ to this organisation”. The items in this scale are listed in Appendix 6.

Job Satisfaction (adapted from Brayfield & Rothe, 1951). Participants were asked to rate how satisfied they are on their current job on a 5-point scale (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree). The items included “I feel fairly well satisfied with my present job” and “I feel real enjoyment in my work”. The items in this scale are listed in Appendix 7.

Intent to Quit Scale (IQS; adapted from Balaji, 1988). To measure participants’ turnover intentions, the IQS was included in this study. In general, participants were asked “What are their plans for staying with this organization?” and they had to respond to 4 different items, including “I intend to stay until I retire” and “I will leave if something better turns up”. Participants rated these items on a 5-point scale (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree). The items in this scale are listed in Appendix 8.

Task Performance (Williams & Anderson, 1991). Participants were asked to rate a number of statements that described their performance on their current job on a 7-point scale (1 = strongly disagree, 7 = strongly agree). Items included “Adequately completes assigned duties” and “Adheres to informal rules devised to maintain order”. The items in this scale are listed in Appendix 9.

Creative Performance (adapted from George & Zhou, 2001). Participants were asked to rate themselves in terms of 13 characteristics that they might display in the workplace that are indicative of their creative performance. They rated the characteristics on a 5-point scale (1 = not at all characteristic, 5 = very characteristic), and items included “Suggests new ways to achieve goals or objectives” and “Often has a fresh approach to problems”. The items in this scale are listed in Appendix 10.

Job Engagement (Rich, Lepine & Crawford, 2010). Participants were asked to rate themselves in terms of their physical, emotional and cognitive engagement on the job on a 5-point scale (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree). Items included "I work with intensity on my job" and "I am enthusiastic in my job". The items in this scale are listed on Appendix 11.

Demographics and strength of identities. Participants reported their age and ethnicity. They also indicated how strongly they identified with their gender and businessperson identities (1 = very weak, 5 = very strong). The specific items in this section are listed in Appendix 12.

Results

The descriptive statistics and reliability of the all measures included in this study are tabulated in Table 1 below.

Table 1. Descriptives and Reliabilities of G-PII and other measures.

Measure	Component	All Sample			Female Businesspersons			Female Business Students		
		M	*S.D.*	*α*	*M*	*S.D.*	*α*	*M*	*S.D.*	*α*
G-PII (32 items)	Conflict	2.48	*.62*	.94	2.39	.73	.95	2.52	.57	.93
	Distance	2.56	.39	.51	2.55	.42	.48	2.57	.38	.53
TIPI	Extraversion	4.47	1.50	.72	4.84	1.42	.46	4.36	1.51	.78
	Agreeableness	4.84	1.10	.30	5.39	1.09	.38	4.68	1.05	.22
	Conscientiousness	5.08	1.21	.51	5.69	1.09	.39	4.90	1.18	.48
	Emotional Stability	4.37	1.31	.65	5.07	1.08	.35	4.17	1.30	.67
	Openness	4.98	1.18	.52	5.55	.97	.47	4.82	1.19	.49
BSRI	Masculine	4.99	.85	.91	4.99	.85	.91	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
	Feminine	4.79	.68	.84	4.79	.68	.84	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
	Neutral	4.48	.52	.74	4.48	.52	.74	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
	Difference	-.20	.90	N.A.	-.20	.90	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.

GREAT	Work Roles	Gender	.36	.37	.84	.36	.37	.84	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
		Extent	.37	1.34	.94	.37	1.34	.94	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
	Home Roles	Gender	1.34	.37	.93	1.34	.37	.93	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
		Extent	.37	1.23	.94	.37	1.23	.94	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
SWLS			4.99	1.22	.89	4.99	1.22	.89	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
Affective Organisational Commitment			.83	4.26	1.23	.83	1.23	.83	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
Job Satisfaction			3.53	.83	.92	3.53	.83	.92	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
IQS			3.07	.97	.71	3.07	.97	.71	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
Task Performance	IRB		5.80	.82	.77	5.80	.82	.77	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
	OCBI		5.42	.78	.74	5.42	.78	.74	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
	OCBO		5.37	.98	.79	5.37	.98	.79	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
Creative Performance			5.09	.99	.94	5.09	.99	.94	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
Job Engagement	Physical		3.75	.78	.92	3.75	.78	.92	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.
	Emotional		3.64	.77	.92	3.64	.77	.92	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.

	Cognitive	3.68	.82	.95	3.68	.82	.95	N.A.	N.A.	N.A.

Comparison of Working Businesspersons Sample and Student Sample. As this study recruited two different types of participants (i.e., female businesspersons and female business students), a comparison between the two types of participants was first conducted to examine whether there are any differences between them. In addition, in terms of strength of identities, the female businesspersons subsample (M = 3.87, *S.D.* = .67) had significantly weaker business identities than female business students subsample (M = 4.09, *S.D.* = .82), F (1,232) = 4.31, p = .04, η^2 = .018, but this difference was not found for female identities, F (1,232) = 1.45, p = .23, η^2 = .006. At the same time, in terms of personality characteristics, the female businesspersons subsample was significantly more agreeable (F (1,241) = 16.19, p < .01), more conscientious (F (1,241) = 16.16, p < .01), more emotionally stable (F (1,241) = 6.89, p = .01), and more open (F (1,241) = 11.25, p = .001) than female business students subsample. Please refer back to Table 1 for the means and standard deviations of scores for the personality characteristics for the two subsamples.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis for 32-item G-PII scale. Items in the G-PII scale that were adapted from the two versions of the B-II scale were subjected to confirmatory factor analyses to determine if the G-PII scale is similar to the B-II scale in that it has a two-factor model structure, consisting of the components of conflict and distance. The fit indices for the two-factor model implied a poor fit (χ^2 (463) = 3.00, p < .01; CFI = .76; RMSEA = .09), but it was better than the fit for a one-factor model (χ^2 (464) = 3.51, p < .01; CFI = .70; RMSEA = .10), although the difference was not significant, χ^2_{change} (1) = .51, p = .48.

Analyses for the individual subsamples showed that the two-factor model seemed to have a better fit than the one-factor model for both subsamples. For the female businesspersons subsample, the fit indices for the two-factor model implied a

poor fit (χ^2 (463) = 2.03, p < .01; CFI = .70; RMSEA = .11), but it was better than the fit for a one-factor model (χ^2 (464) = 2.15, p < .01; CFI = .66; RMSEA = .12), although the difference was not significant, χ^2_{change} (1) = .12, p = .73. For the female business students subsample, the fit indices for the two-factor model also implied a poor fit (χ^2 (463) = 2.33, p < .01; CFI = .76; RMSEA = .08), but it was still better than the fit for a one-factor model (χ^2 (464) = 2.76, p < .01; CFI = .68; RMSEA = .10), although the difference was also not significant, χ^2_{change} (1) = .43, p = .51. It is also worthy to note that two out of three of the model fit indices for the business students subsample seemed to be better than those for the businesspersons subsample.

To improve on the model fit, modification indices were examined and covariances were added between the error terms within the same factor that produced the greatest parameter change. In addition, items with high standardized residual covariances and non-significant standardized regression coefficients were removed. A total of 4 items from the distance subscale and 6 items from the conflict subscale were removed. After making the modifications, the measure consisted of 22 items and two out of three fit indices showed a relatively good fit for a two-factor model (χ^2 (208) = 2.20, p < .01; CFI = .91; RMSEA = .07), and it was better than the fit for a one-factor model (χ^2 (209) = 3.11, p < .01; CFI = .83; RMSEA = .09), although the difference was not significant, χ^2_{change} (1) = .91, p = .34.

Again, analyses for the 22-item measure for the individual subsamples showed that the two-factor model still seemed to have a better fit than the one-factor model for both subsamples. For the female businesspersons subsample, the fit indices for the two-factor model still implied a poor fit (χ^2 (208) = 1.56, p < .01; CFI = .89; RMSEA = .08), but it improved and was better than the fit for a one-factor model (χ^2 (209) = 1.79, p < .01; CFI = .84; RMSEA = .10), although the difference was not

significant, χ^2_{change} (1) = .23, p = .63. For the female business students subsample, the fit indices for the two-factor model also implied a poor fit (χ^2 (208) = 1.95, p < .01; CFI = .89; RMSEA = .07), but it also improved and it was still better than the fit for a one-factor model (χ^2 (209) = 2.66, p < .01; CFI = .80; RMSEA = .09), although the difference was also not significant, χ^2_{change} (1) = .71, p = .40. However, now the superior model fit for the business students subsample seemed to be disappeared.

The items in this revised 22-item G-PII scale are listed in Appendix 1. The revised items were used for subsequent analyses in this study.

Reliability Analysis. The Cronbach Alpha for the distance factor in the G-PII scale was α = .47, which was unsatisfactory, while the Cronbach Alpha for the conflict factor was α = .94, which was satisfactory. When analyzing the reliability for the individual subsamples, the Cronbach Alpha was also unsatisfactory for the distance subscale but satisfactory for the conflict subscale. The Cronbach Alpha for the distance subscale was α = .48 for the female businesspersons subsample and α = .47 for the business students subsample, while the Cronbach Alpha for the conflict subscale was α = .95 for the female businesspersons subsample and α = .91 for the business students subsample. It is worthy to note that the reliability was higher for the female businesspersons subsample than for the female business students subsample for both subscales.

To improve the reliability of the distance factor, the Cronbach Alpha was examined when individual items were excluded in the distance factor. Items were taken out if the Cronbach Alpha would increase when item was excluded. After removing 1 item from the distance subscale, the Cronbach Alpha for the distance factor in the revised G-PII scale was α = .69, which is rather close to the conventional level of acceptance. In addition, as the number of items in the conflict subscale was

much higher than the items in the distance subscale, 6 items with redundant content were removed from the conflict subscale without compromising on the reliability of the subscale. When analyzing the reliability for the individual subsamples, the Cronbach Alpha was still unsatisfactory for the distance subscale but satisfactory for the conflict subscale. The Cronbach Alpha for the distance subscale was α = .47 for the female businesspersons subsample and α = .37 for the business students subsample, while the Cronbach Alpha for the conflict subscale was α = .91 for the female businesspersons subsample and α = .87 for the business students subsample. It is worthy to note that the reliability was still higher for the female businesspersons subsample than for the female business students subsample for both subscales. In addition, even though the overall reliability for the individual subscales improved for the entire sample, the reliability for the individual subscales became lower for the separate subsamples.

The items in this revised 15-item G-PII scale are listed in Appendix 1. The revised items were used for subsequent analyses in this study.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis for revised 15-item G-PII scale. The revised items in the G-PII scale that were based on the initial confirmatory factor analysis and the reliability analysis were subjected to another confirmatory factor analysis to ascertain that the model fit was still satisfactory. Two out of three fit indices showed a relatively good fit (χ^2 (89) = 1.493, p < .01; CFI = .98; RMSEA = .04), and it was better than the fit for a one-factor model (χ^2 (90) = 3.66, p < .01; CFI = .87; RMSEA = .10), although the difference was not significant, χ^2_{change} (1) = 2.17, p = .14.

Analyses for the 15-item measure for the individual subsamples showed that the two-factor model had a better fit than the one-factor model for both subsamples. For the female businesspersons subsample, the fit indices for the two-factor model

implied a good fit (χ^2 (89) = 0.93, p = .68; CFI = 1.00; RMSEA = .00), and was better than the fit for a one-factor model (χ^2 (90) = 1.50, p = .002; CFI = .94; RMSEA = .08), although the difference was not significant, χ^2_{change} (1) = .57, p = .45. For the female business students subsample, the fit indices for the two-factor model also implied a satisfactory fit (χ^2 (89) = 1.89, p < .01; CFI = .93; RMSEA = .07), and it was still better than the fit for a one-factor model (χ^2 (90) = 3.49, p < .01; CFI = .80; RMSEA = .12), although the difference was also not significant, χ^2_{change} (1) = 1.60, p = .21. It is worthy to note that the superior model fit for the business students subsample is apparent here again.

Correlation between Distance and Conflict. The distance and conflict components were found to be uncorrelated to each other, r = .02, p = .89. For the individual subsamples specifically, the correlations were also insignificant. For female businesspersons subsample, the correlation was r = .01, p = .93. For female business students subsample, the correlation was r = -.009, p = .91. This indicated that the two factors were independent of each other.

Hypothesis 1a-1i. To test hypotheses 1a to 1i, the correlations between the distance component of the G-PII scale and various components in the measures included in this study, as well as between the conflict component of the G-PII scale and various components in the measures included in this study were examined, and the coefficients are listed in Table 2 below.

Table 2. Correlation between G-PII and other measures.

Measure	Component		All Sample		Female Businesspersons		Female Business Students	
			Distance	Conflict	Distance	Conflict	Distance	Conflict
TIPI	Extraversion		-0.28*	-0.16	-.32*	-.13	-.09	-.03
	Agreeableness		-0.22	-0.03	-.20	-.01	-.20*	-.04
	Conscientiousness		-0.02	-0.03	-.02	.01	-.16*	-.27**
	Emotional Stability		-0.19	-0.05	-.23	-.07	-.03	-.22**
	Openness		-0.29*	0.09	-.29*	.09	-.11	-.01
BSRI	Masculine		-0.29*	-0.11	-.28*	-.08	-.11	.004
	Feminine		-0.16	0.09	-.15	.07	-.20	.18
	Neutral		-0.16	0.09	-.16	.10	.-19	.23*
	Difference		0.15	0.17	.15	.13	-.06	.11
GREAT	Work Roles	Gender	-0.10	-0.05	-.14	.04	.14	.03
		Extent	0.07	-0.01	.07	.04	-.07	.06

	Home Roles	Gender	-0.06	-0.07	-.07	-.03	-.08	.03
		Extent	0.14	-0.14	.14	-.14	-.15	.26*
SWLS			-0.17	-0.07	-.23	.004	-.30**	-.02
Affective Organisational Commitment			0.02	-0.02	0.02	-0.02	N.A.	N.A.
Job Satisfaction			-0.06	-0.07	-0.06	-0.07	N.A.	N.A.
IQS			0.01	-0.03	0.01	-0.03	N.A.	N.A.
Task Performance	IRB		-0.09	-0.24	-0.09	-0.24	N.A.	N.A.
	OCBI		0.03	-0.22	0.03	-0.22	N.A.	N.A.
	OCBO		-0.001	-0.19	-0.001	-0.19	N.A.	N.A.
Creative Performance			-0.11	-0.17	-0.11	-0.17	N.A.	N.A.
Job Engagement	Physical		0.09	-0.19	0.09	-0.19	N.A.	N.A.
	Emotional		0.01	-0.07	0.01	-0.07	N.A.	N.A.
	Cognitive		0.14	-0.09	0.14	-0.09	N.A.	N.A.

Note. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Hypothesis 1a was partially supported as conflict was found to be negatively correlated with emotional stability, which meant that conflict had a positive relationship with neuroticism, but this was for the female business students subsample only. Hypothesis 1b was also partially supported as distance was found to be negatively correlated with openness for the entire sample and for the female businesspersons subsample only. However, the rest of the hypotheses (1c to 1i) were not supported.

Distance was found to be negatively correlated with the masculine component of the BSRI, but this was only for the entire sample and for the female businesspersons subsample only, and this meant that when female businesspersons perceived their gender and business identities to be more distant from each other, they were less likely to endorse masculine personality characteristics. Furthermore, conflict was found to be positively correlated with the neutral component of the BSRI, but this was only for the female business students subsample only, and this meant that female business students with higher conflict identified more with the neutral characteristics than those with lower conflict. Lastly, conflict was found to be positively correlated with the extent of gender dimorphism for home roles but this was only for the female business students subsample only, and this meant that female business students with higher conflict had greater gender dimorphism attitudes.

In addition, there were unexpected findings of significant negative relationships between distance and extraversion for the entire sample and for female businesspersons only. Generally, the more extraverted the female businesspersons were, the less they perceived their gender and business identities to be distant from each other. It was also found that distance was negatively correlated with agreeableness but this was for the female business students subsample only. When

female business students were more agreeable, the less they perceived their gender and business identities to be distant from each other. In addition, it was also found that distance and conflict both correlated negatively with conscientiousness, but this was for the female business students subsample only. When female business students were more conscientious, the less they perceived their gender and business identities to be distant and conflicting from each other. Furthermore, distance was found to be correlated with life satisfaction for the female business students subsample only. When female business students perceived their gender and business identities to be more distant from each other, the less satisfied they were with their lives.

Discussion

A 32-item measure for the G-PII construct was initially developed by adapting the items from two versions of B-II measures and after examining its model fit and reliability, modifications were made to result in a revised 15-item measure which had good model fit for a two-factor structure, consisting of the distance and conflict components. Additional analyses showed that this two-factor model structure was consistently found when analyzing the female businesspersons subsample and the female business students subsample separately. The two factors were also found to be independent of each other.

Despite the good model fit, the distance subscale was found to have unsatisfactory reliability. On the other hand, the conflict subscale had satisfactory reliability. This was found even when analyses for the female businesspersons subsample and the female business students subsample were conducted separately. This may be because the items developed for the G-PII construct in this study were adapted from those used to measure the BII construct and the G-PII construct may be conceptually different from the BII construct. In particular, the distance component in

the G-PII construct may be conceptually different from that in the BII construct due to the differences in timing of acquisition of the multiple identities. People with multiple cultural identities may acquire their cultural identities at any moment of their lives – some may acquire the multiple cultural identities since young, while some may acquire the multiple cultural identities at different times in their lives. However, female businesspersons generally acquire their gender identity since young and their professional identity much later in life. Hence, the difference in timing of acquisition of the multiple identities may cause conceptual differences between the construct of G-PII and that of BII, particularly for the distance component. That means that the items that measure the distance component of G-PII should not be directly adapted from those of BII.

Various measures of constructs that were proposed to be related to G-PII were included in this study and it was found that supporting hypotheses 1a and 1c, conflict was significantly and negatively correlated with emotional stability and satisfaction with life. In addition, supporting hypothesis 1b, distance was significantly and negatively related to openness.

There were also a number of unexpected findings such as the negative relationship between distance and extraversion, distance and agreeableness, distance with conscientiousness and conflict with conscientiousness. As part of an exploration of the correlates of G-PII, it was also found that distance was negatively correlated with masculinity, that conflict had a positive relationship with gender-neutral personality characteristics, and that conflict was also positively correlated with the extent of gender dimorphism for home roles. However, due to the poor reliability of the distance subscale, caution needs to be taken when considering and interpreting the results that include the distance subscale. Significant findings with the distance

subscale may not be valid and need to be re-examined in the future to ascertain if the findings still hold true with a reliable measure of the distance component of G-PII. All other relationships between the two subscales of the G-PII and the other measures were not significant.

The relationship between conflict and emotional stability was found to be significant for the female business students subsample but not the female businesspersons subsample and this could be because there was more noise in the data for the female businesspersons subsample. The noise could have come from a few sources. Firstly, the two samples might be inherently different in their working experience – the female businesspersons subsample should have more and a wider range of working experience than the female business students. Secondly, the female businesspersons subsample was recruited from mTurk and from organisations in Singapore, which meant that the subsample was more diverse in terms of its demographics, and this may also explain why the female businesspersons subsample differ from the female business students subsample in the relationships between their G-PII and personality. For instance, the female businesspersons subsample might differ widely in terms of job rank and it can be expected that female businesspersons' job rank may also affect their G-PII. In addition, the female businesspersons subsample was also likely to have more diverse job functions and it can be expected that female businesspersons' specific job function may affect their levels of G-PII. For instance, there was a larger proportion of women who were advertising and promotion managers (67.8%) than administrative services managers (36.8%) in 2012, and it can be expected that the two groups of female businesspersons with different job functions may have different levels of G-PII. Hence, the female businesspersons subsample might have varied job functions and hence might have a wider range of

levels of G-PII. In addition, the female businesspersons subsample was much smaller than the female business students subsample, which may be the reason that the relationship between emotional stability and conflict for the female businesspersons subsample was undetected.

Despite the differences in the two subsamples recruited, results from factor analyses for the individual subsamples revealed consistent findings of a two-factor model. However, the differences in findings for the correlates of G-PII across the two subsamples should be further examined.

The lack of significant findings between the two factors of G-PII and other variables, especially the organizational variables, could be due to the lack of context to activate the gender and professional identities such that they were perceived as important. Brook, Garcia and Fleming (2008) found that while there was a relationship between identity conflict and psychological well-being when identities were important, the relationship disappeared when the identities were less important. Since female-businesspersons' identities were not activated in this study, it is likely that they did not perceive their gender and professional identities as important during the study and this may explain why that female businesspersons' perceptions of themselves, including their perceptions of their well-being and commitment towards their jobs, were unaffected by their levels of G-PII.

It is particularly important to consider that this study did not find a significant relationship between G-PII and organizational commitment as well as between G-PII and job satisfaction, which is different from the results found by Wallen et al. (2013). However, it is crucial to consider that they used different items to measure G-PII in their study, and hence the construct may be captured differently. Moreover, Wallen et al. (2013) did not examine the factor structure of the G-PII measure used. In addition,

Wallen et al. (2013) used a global measure of G-PII while this study used a measure of G-PII with two components – distance and conflict. These differences between this study and Wallen et al.'s (2013) study could have contributed to the differences in the findings. It is also possible that the sample used in this study was more diversed than the sample used in Wallen et al.'s (2013) study, and hence resulted in the difference in findings for the relationship between G-PII and organizational commitment as well as for the relationship between G-PII and job satisfaction. This means that there needs to be future studies to re-examine these relationships and to replicate the findings in Wallen et al. (2013).

At the same time, the difference in the results found in this study versus those found in Wallen et al. (2013) could be due to differences in the target group or population. In this study, the focus was on female businesspersons (or business students) while Wallen et al. (2013) was interested in examining male nurses. Hence, since both the gender and the profession were different for the target groups or populations, they may cause differences in the integration of the identities associated with the gender and the profession of the target groups or populations.

Study 2A

This study aimed to test hypothesis 2 directly by manipulating the sex of the opposing negotiator. Following Sanchez-Burks, Nisbett and Ybarra (2000)'s practice, videos were used for the manipulation.

Method

Participants. 98 female undergraduate students from Singapore Management University who had a business major (e.g., finance, marketing, strategy, etc.) were recruited for the study. They were compensated $5 in exchange for half an hour of participation in this study. Since the data for 1 out of the 98 recruited participants was

badly captured, the data was excluded from analyses. In addition, 16 of these 98 participants were also found to have either low female or business identity, hence, their data was excluded from analyses as well. Hence, responses from a total of 81 participants were used.

Research Design. Participants were randomly assigned to be either faced with a female opposing negotiator or a male opposing negotiator, such that the sex of the opposing negotiator was a between-subjects condition.

Pilot Test. Photographs of a group of males and females, who were candidates for the opposing negotiators to appear in the videos as manipulation, were rated for their physical attractiveness in a pilot test. One male and one female who were matched in terms of physical attractiveness, and had moderate physical attractiveness, were chosen to be filmed in the videos.

Procedure. Participants first read about the negotiation scenario that involved the buying and selling of a product, and then watched a video that introduced the opposing negotiation partner. Thereafter, they underwent the negotiation task by answering questions about their first offers and counteroffers. After the negotiation task, participants' level of G-PII were assessed with the validated scale from Study 1. Lastly, they were asked about the strength of their female and business identities.

Negotiation Scenario. The negotiation task used in this study was adapted from Barry and Friedman (1998). To control for any differences that might occur as a result of having a different role in the negotiation, all participants were tasked to take on the role of the buyer in this negotiation task and were asked to read the scenario below. The negotiation scenario can also be found in Appendix 13.

"You are the manufacturing plant manager of a technology company. Currently, your company is facing a shortfall in the production of a personal cloud storage device,

LiveCloud, and you will need to find a way to make up for the production shortfall. LiveCloud is sold by your company at a retail price of $199 per unit. You know that there is another technology company, AAB, which is selling a similar product and you are hoping to buy the required amount of the product from AAB company to make up for the shortfall at a reasonable price. You are now at a meeting with the manager of AAB company to discuss about the purchase of the product."

Manipulation of sex of opposing negotiator. After reading the negotiation scenario, participants were shown a video where the opposing negotiator introduced the product in terms of its function and quality. Participants either saw a male opposing negotiator or a female opposing negotiator. The actors in the video were recruited from outside the university where the participants were recruited from.

Negotiation Task. Participants were asked to make the first offer in the negotiation and they were to state the amount of the first offer. Thereafter, participants were given a counteroffer that was $25 higher than the first offer. They were then asked if they were willing to accept the counteroffer and if not, they were given a chance to make another offer. The specific questions asked in this section are listed in Appendix 14.

Measures. Participants responded to the measures detailed below.

***G-PII Scale*.** Participants were provided with the validated measure of G-PII from Study 1 and rated the items on a 5-point scale (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree). Please refer back to Appendix 1 for details about items in this section.

Demographics and strength of identities. Participants reported their age and ethnicity. They also indicated how strongly they identified with their gender and

businessperson identities (1 = very weak, 5 = very strong). The specific items in this section are listed in Appendix 12.

Results

Confirmatory Factor Analysis for 15-item G-PII scale. Items in the revised G-PII scale that was based on the analyses in Study 1 were subjected to confirmatory factor analyses to determine if the G-PII scale still had satisfactory model fit and if it still had a two-factor model structure, consisting of the components of conflict and distance. The fit indices for the two-factor model implied a model fit that was acceptable (χ^2 (89) = 1.45, $p < .01$; CFI = .90; RMSEA = .08), and it was better than the fit for a one-factor model (χ^2 (90) = 2.07, $p < .001$; CFI = .76; RMSEA = .12), although the difference was not significant, χ^2_{change} (1) = .62, $p = .43$.

Reliability Analysis. The Cronbach Alpha for the distance factor in the G-PII scale was $\alpha = .36$, which was unsatisfactory, while the Cronbach Alpha for the conflict factor was $\alpha = .89$, which was satisfactory. To improve the reliability of the distance factor, the Cronbach Alpha was examined when individual items were excluded in the distance factor. Items were taken out if the Cronbach Alpha would increase when item was excluded. After removing 1 item from the distance subscale, the Cronbach Alpha for the distance factor in the revised G-PII scale was $\alpha = .48$. The reliability of the distance subscale was still unsatisfactory but items could not be removed any further to improve its reliability. The items in this revised 14-item G-PII scale are listed with an * in Appendix 1. The revised items were used for subsequent analyses in this study.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis for revised 14-item G-PII scale. After removing one item from the initial 15-item G-PII scale to improve the reliability for the distance factor, the revised 14-item G-PII scale was subjected to another

confirmatory factor analysis to ascertain that the model fit was still satisfactory. The fit indices for the two-factor model improved (χ^2 (76) = 1.55, p < .01; CFI = .98; RMSEA = .05), and it was better than the fit for a one-factor model (χ^2 (77) = 4.10, p < .001; CFI = .87; RMSEA = .11), although the difference was not significant, χ^2_{change} (1) = 2.55, p = .11.

Hypothesis 2. The distance and conflict subscales of the G-PII, together with control variables (i.e., gender identity and business identity), were first centered for analyses. Hierarchical linear and logistic regression analyses were conducted for the distance and conflict factors separately for each dependent variable (i.e., amount of first offer, acceptance of counteroffer (Yes or No), counter-counteroffer) to examine if there was an interaction between sex of opposing negotiator and distance or between sex of opposing negotiator and conflict.

For the dependent variable of amount of first offer, there was neither a significant interaction between sex of opposing negotiator and distance (b = 3946.249, t(75) = .77, p = .44) nor between sex of opposing negotiator and conflict (b = 1820.42, t(75) = .42, p = .68) after controlling for the strength of gender and business identities. Similarly, for the dependent variable of amount of counter-counteroffer, there was neither a significant interaction between sex of opposing negotiator and distance (b = -80.48, t(75) = -.07, p = .94) nor between sex of opposing negotiator and conflict (b = -109.25, t(75) = -.11, p = .91) after controlling for the strength of gender and business identities. On the other hand, for the dependent variable of acceptance of counteroffer, there was a significant interaction between sex of opposing negotiator and conflict (b = 2.88, χ^2(1) = 4.015, p = .045) after controlling for the strength of gender and business identities, although the

interaction between sex of opposing negotiator and distance was not significant (b = -.555, $\chi^2(1) = .130$, $p = .719$).

Simple slopes analysis for the significant interaction between sex of opposing negotiator and conflict showed that, as predicted, females with high conflict were significantly more aggressive and less likely to accept the opposing negotiators' counteroffers than females with low conflict when the opposing negotiator was a male (b=-2.09, z=-1.97, p=.049). Conversely, females with high conflict were less aggressive and more likely to accept the opposing negotiators' counteroffers than females with low conflict when the opposing negotiator was a female, although the effect was not significant (b=.79, z=.75, p=.46). The pattern of results is illustrated in Figure 1.

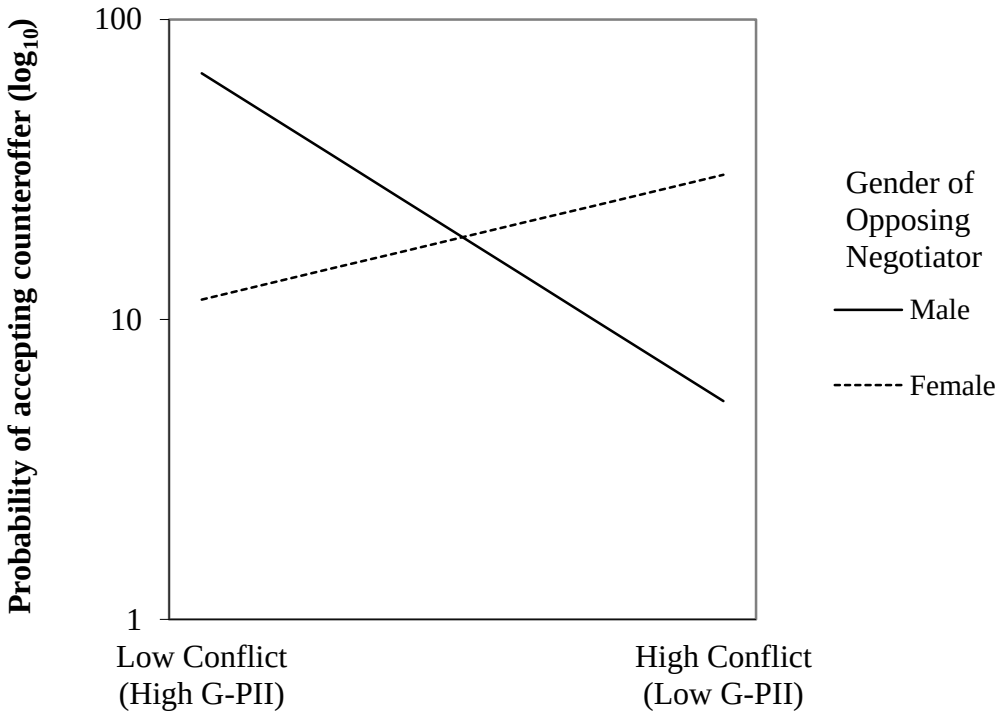

Figure 1: Interaction between sex of opposing negotiator and conflict factor of G-PII for dependent variable of willingness to accept counteroffer

Discussion

In this study, female business students were tasked to watch a video prior to a simulated negotiation, which introduced the opposing negotiator, and hence allowed them to observe the sex of the opposing negotiator. After controlling for the strength of their gender and business identities, the female business students' levels of conflict and the sex of the opposing negotiator were found to interact to affect their decision of accepting the opposing negotiator's counteroffer in a simulated negotiation. Hence, this supports our proposition that the sex of the opposing negotiator serves as a gender identity cue that may affect female businesspersons in their negotiations, and this is moderated by their levels of the conflict factor in the G-PII scale. In general, the results converge with past research on the effect of identity cues on people with different levels of identity integration through the mechanism of identity frame switching, such that high identity integrators assimilate to the identity cues and low identity integrators contrast against the identity cues.

However, this effect was only found when the opposing negotiator was a male, and was not present when the opposing negotiator was a female, even though the results were in the predicted direction. Nonetheless, the lack of significant findings could be because the sex of a male opposing negotiator acted as a stark contrast to the female business students' gender identity while the sex of a female opposing negotiator did not act as a stark contrast to the female business students' gender identity. Hence, female business students' gender identity might not be as strongly activated when they were being assigned to negotiate with a female opposing negotiator as when they were being assigned to negotiate with a male opposing negotiator.

It is also possible that this study indirectly induced serial priming and that could have caused the interactive effect of conflict and sex of opposing negotiator to be absent when the opposing negotiator was a female. When the female business students first read the negotiation scenario, they could have been primed with a business identity. For those who were assigned to negotiate with a female opposing negotiator, they were then primed with a female identity, which might have counteracted with the effect of the business identity that was activated earlier. This was not the case for those who were assigned to negotiate with a male opposing negotiator as they were either primed with the business identity again or be primed to act in contrast to the female identity. Hence, for the former group of female business students who were assigned to female opposing negotiators, the interactive effect of conflict and the sex of the opposing negotiator could have been diminished by serial priming. The lack of significant findings for the interaction between the distance factor in the G-PII scale and the sex of the opposing negotiator might be due to the poor reliability of the distance factor. As mentioned in Study 1, this may be because the items developed for the G-PII construct in this study were adapted from those used to measure the BII construct and the G-PII construct may be conceptually different from the BII construct, especially in terms of the timing of acquisition of the multiple identities. Cultural identities can be acquired at any moment of one's life – one may acquire the multiple cultural identities since young, while another may acquire the multiple cultural identities at different times in their lives. However, gender identities are acquired since young while professional identities are acquired in adulthood. Hence, the items that measure the distance component of G-PII should not be directly adapted from those of BII. Future research should re-examine the reliability and validity of the distance component and then ascertain if the distance

component is meaningful in the construct of G-PII. If the distance component is still deemed to be meaningful, then a better measure for the distance component that has higher reliability should be developed before re-investigating the interactive effects of the distance factor and the sex of the opposing negotiator on female businesspersons' negotiation behaviors.

In addition, there were also no significant findings for the dependent variable of first offer and this could be because the female business students might have anchored their first offer on the retail price of the product that was stated in the negotiation scenario. The anchoring effect might have been so strong that it was resistant to the influence of levels of G-PII. Hence, future research can investigate if anchoring does affect the interaction between G-PII and the sex of the opposing negotiator on female businesspersons' negotiations.

Furthermore, the lack of significant findings for the dependent variable of the female business students' counter-counteroffer could be due to the fact that they anchored the counter-counteroffer on their first offer and the opposing negotiators' counteroffer. Various researchers supported this view that initial offers can serve as anchors for the subsequent stages in the negotiation, including counteroffers (Benton, Kelley & Liebling, 1972; Chertkoff & Conley, 1967; Galinsky and Mussweiler, 2001; Liebert, Smith, Hill & Keiffer, 1968; Ritov, 1996). Moreover, it was likely that the anchoring effect was so strong that it was resistant to the influence of levels of G-PII and the sex of the opposing negotiator. Indeed, it was found that there was no interaction between the sex of the opposing negotiator and the level of conflict to influence the difference between the intended and actual first offer (b = 1.25, $t(68)$ = 0.72, p = .47). This suggests that having anchors may reduce the interactive influence of G-PII and the sex of the opposing negotiator on female businesspersons'

negotiation behaviors. Future research can further ascertain if anchoring does indeed counteract the interactive influence of G-PII and the sex of the opposing negotiator on female businesspersons' negotiation strategies, behaviors and outcomes.

Study 2B

This study was an extension from Study 2A by testing hypothesis 2 with a different methodology. In this study, a different negotiation task was used and participants were tasked to go through an actual negotiation with another person. This was done with the aim of increasing the ecological validity of the findings.

Method

Participants. 67 female undergraduate students from Singapore Management University who had a business major (e.g., finance, marketing, strategy, etc.) were recruited for the study. They completed the study as part of a negotiation class for one participation credit. Since the data for 11 out of the 67 recruited participants did not complete the entire study, the data was excluded from analyses. In addition, 8 of these 67 participants were also found to either not state the strength of their female and business identities or have low female and business identities and hence, their data was excluded from analyses as well. Hence, responses from a total of 48 participants were used.

Research Design. Participants were randomly assigned to be either faced with a female opposing negotiator or a male opposing negotiator, such that the sex of the opposing negotiator was a between-subjects condition.

Procedure. Participants first rated their levels of G-PII two days before the negotiation. Before participants went through the negotiation, they read about the negotiation scenario and the role they would be playing, which was a candidate for a job negotiating for a signing bonus. They were then given some time to prepare for

the negotiation. During the preparation session, participants had to fill in a short preparation sheet. Thereafter, participants negotiated with their assigned opposing negotiation partner. After the negotiation task, participants signed the contract of agreement or impasse which required them to record who made the first offer and the amount of the first offer. Lastly, they completed a post-negotiation survey in which participants had to rate their perceptions of their opposing negotiator and to fill in their demographics.

Negotiation Task. The negotiation task used in this study was adapted from "The Bonus" that had been used in various negotiation studies (e.g. *Diekmann, Tenbrunsel, & Galinsky, 2003; Galinsky, Leonardelli, Okhuysen & Mussweiler, 2005; Galinsky & Mussweiler, 2001; Galinsky, Mussweiler & Medvec, 2002)*. Before participants read the negotiation scenario, they were introduced to their assigned opposing negotiation partner and then they were told that their role was to be a candidate for a job. Participants then read the scenario below:

"You are a 2nd-year MBA from a prestigious university and you already possess an offer from a well-respected Boston consulting firm. The Boston firm is only offering a bonus of $5,000, but you have heard that bonuses of up to $30,000 had been offered to others in the consulting field. To accept the offer of employment in the current negotiation, you should get at least $10,000 as a signing bonus."

The negotiation scenario can also be found in Appendix 15.

Preparation Sheet. Participants were required to respond to three items that reflected how they perceived the negotiation task and the strategies they would take in the negotiation. Participants were first asked about the agreement value of the signing bonus that they would want to achieve as a goal and their intended first offer by responding to the items "How much is your goal—the amount you hope to earn

from your negotiation counterpart (the recruiter)?" and "How much will you propose as a first offer for the bonus to your negotiation counterpart (the recruiter)?" respectively. The items in this sheet are listed in Appendix 16.

Contract of Agreement or Impasse. After the negotiation, dyads completed the contract of agreement or impasse where they stated whether there is an agreement reached, whether they made the first offer and the amount of first offer made. The items in this contract are detailed in Appendix 17.

Measures. Participants responded to the measures detailed below.

***G-PII Scale*.** Participants were provided with the validated measure of G-PII from Study 1 and rated the items on a 5-point scale (1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree). Please refer back to Appendix 1 for details about items in this section.

Physical attractiveness and closeness to opposing negotiator. Participants rated the physical attractiveness of the opposing negotiator they were assigned to on a 7-point scale (1 = very physically unattractive, 7 = very physically attractive) so as to control for any differences in this aspect. In addition, they were also asked to indicate their feelings of closeness to the opposing negotiator they were assigned to on a 7-point scale (1 = not very close, 7 = extremely close). Please refer to Appendix 18 for details about items in this section.

***Demographics and strength of identities*.** Participants reported their age and how strongly they identified with their gender and businessperson identities (1 = very weak, 6 = very strong). Please refer to Appendix 12 for details about items in this section.

Results

Confirmatory Factor Analysis for 15-item G-PII scale. Items in the revised G-PII scale that was based on the analyses in Study 1 were subjected to confirmatory factor analyses to determine if the G-PII scale still had satisfactory model fit and if it still had a two-factor model structure, consisting of the components of conflict and distance. The fit indices for the two-factor model implied a model fit that was satisfactory (χ^2 (89) = 1.37, p < .01; CFI = .93; RMSEA = .09), and it was better than the fit for a one-factor model (χ^2 (90) = 1.77, p < .01; CFI = .85; RMSEA = .13), although the difference was not significant, χ^2_{change} (1) = .40, p = .53.

Reliability Analysis. The Cronbach Alpha for the distance factor in the G-PII scale was α = .54, which was unsatisfactory, while the Cronbach Alpha for the conflict factor was α = .95, which was satisfactory. To improve the reliability of the distance factor, the Cronbach Alpha was examined when individual items were excluded in the distance factor. Items were taken out if the Cronbach Alpha would increase when item was excluded. After removing 2 items from the distance subscale, the Cronbach Alpha for the distance factor improved to α = .58 The reliability of the distance subscale for females was still unsatisfactory but items could not be removed any further to improve its reliability. The items in this revised 13-item G-PII scale are listed in Appendix 1. The revised items were used for subsequent analyses in this study.

Confirmatory Factor Analysis for revised 13-item G-PII scale. After removing two items from the initial 15-item G-PII scale to improve the reliability for the distance factor, the revised 13-item G-PII scale was subjected to another confirmatory factor analysis to ascertain that the model fit was still satisfactory. The fit indices for the two-factor model showed that the model fit that was still

satisfactory (χ^2 (64) = 1.43, p = .01; CFI = .94; RMSEA = .10), and it was better than the fit for a one-factor model (χ^2 (65) = 1.87, p < .001; CFI = .87; RMSEA = .14), although the difference was not significant, χ^2_{change} (1) = 0.44, p = .51.

Hypothesis 1. The analyses for this study were conducted similarly to that done in Study 2A. The distance and conflict subscales of the G-PII, together with control variables (i.e., physical attractiveness of opposing negotiator, closeness of opposing negotiator, gender identity, business identity and age), were first centered for analyses. Hierarchical linear and logistic regression analyses were conducted for the distance and conflict factors separately for each dependent variable (i.e., goal, intended first offer, making the first offer (Yes or No) and amount of first offer made) to examine if there was an interaction between sex of opposing negotiator and distance or between sex of opposing negotiator and conflict.

For the dependent variable of amount of goal, there was neither a significant interaction between sex of opposing negotiator and distance (b = 2.04, t(17) = .614, p = .55) nor between sex of opposing negotiator and conflict (b = -3.70, t(17) = -1.20, p = .25) after controlling for the control variables. Similarly, for the dependent variable of intended first offer, there was neither a significant interaction between sex of opposing negotiator and distance (b = .72, t(34) = .14, p = .89) nor between sex of opposing negotiator and conflict (b = 1.33, t(34) = .27, p = .79) after controlling for the control variables. In addition, for the dependent variable of amount of first offer made, there was also neither a significant interaction between sex of opposing negotiator and distance (b = -2.98, t(18) = -.36, p = .72) nor between sex of opposing negotiator and conflict (b = -1.89, t(18) = -.23, p = .82) after controlling for the control variables.

On the other hand, for the dependent variable of making the first offer, there was a marginally significant interaction between sex of opposing negotiator and conflict (b = -2.50, $\chi^2(1) = 3.36$, p = .067) after controlling for the control variables, whereas the interaction between sex of opposing negotiator and distance was not significant (b = 1.11, $\chi^2(1) = .73$, p = .39). Simple slopes analysis for the marginally significant interaction between sex of opposing negotiator and conflict showed that females with high conflict were significantly less aggressive and more likely to make the first offer than females with low conflict when the opposing negotiator was a male, although the effect was not significant (b=1.28, z=1.48, p=.14). In addition, females with high conflict were more aggressive and less likely to make the first offer than females with low conflict when the opposing negotiator was a female, and the effect was also not significant (b=-1.22, z=-1.44, p=.15). The pattern of results is illustrated in Figure 2.

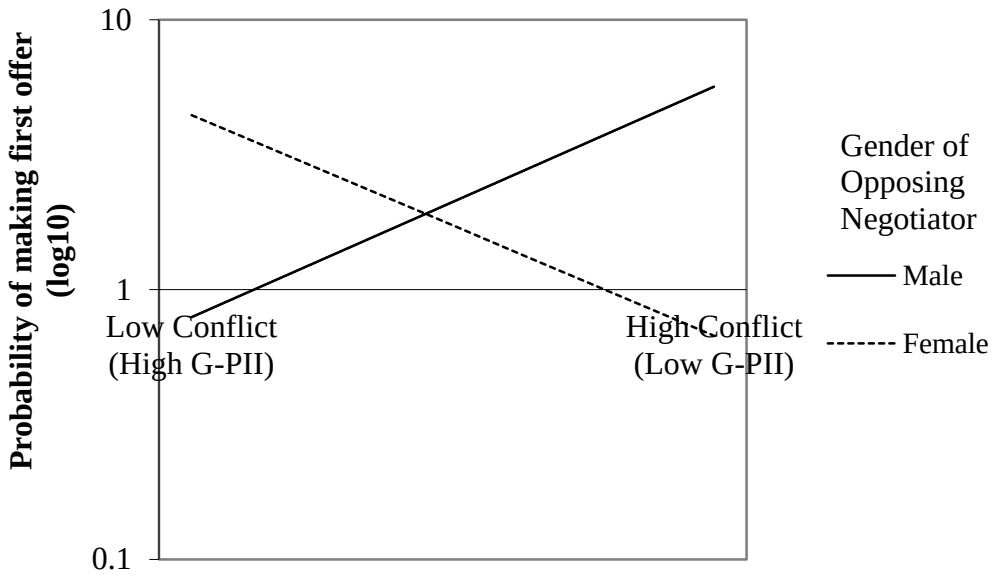

Figure 2: Interaction between sex of opposing negotiator and conflict factor of G-PII for dependent variable of making the first offer

Discussion

In this study, female business students underwent a negotiation as a job candidate with either a male opposing negotiator or a female opposing negotiator. After controlling for the variables such as physical attractiveness of opposing negotiator, closeness of opposing negotiator, age, gender and business identities, the female business students' levels of conflict and the sex of the opposing negotiator were found to interact to influence whether they made the first offer or not.

However, simple slopes analyses revealed that the effect was not significant for each of the sexes. The lack of significant findings could be due to the small sample size in this study. Nonetheless, the pattern of results was in the predicted direction. This means that it was likely that the sex of the opposing negotiator influenced the negotiation behaviors for female business students who had different levels of conflict. Future research can seek to replicate the study and determine if the moderating effect of sex of opposing negotiator is indeed present for female businesspersons with different levels of conflict. In general, although the simple slopes were not significant, the pattern of results provided support for the phenomena of identity frame switching as there was an the effect of identity cues on people with different levels of identity integration through the mechanism of identity frame switching, such that high identity integrators assimilated to the identity cues and low identity integrators contrasted against the identity cues.

In addition, the lack of significant findings for the interaction between the distance factor in the G-PII scale and the sex of the opposing negotiator might be due to the poor reliability of the distance factor. As mentioned in the previous studies, this may be because the G-PII measure that was developed in this study was adapted from previous BII measures and the G-PII construct may be conceptually different from

the BII construct, especially in terms of the timing of acquisition of the multiple identities. People's cultural identities can be acquired at any moment of one's life but female businesspersons acquire their gender identities since young and their their professional identities in adulthood. Hence, the items that measure the distance component of G-PII should not be directly adapted from those of BII. Future research should ascertain if the distance component is meaningful in the construct of G-PII, and if it is, then a better measure for the distance component that has higher reliability should be developed before re-investigating the interactive effects of the distance factor and the sex of the opposing negotiator on female businesspersons' negotiation behaviors.

Moreover, there were also no significant findings for the dependent variable of goal and intended first offer could be because the female business students had yet to interact with their opposing negotiator, and hence their gender identity was not activated at that point in time. Activation of identities will make them be perceived as important and the importance of identities may affect the relationship between female business students' G-PII and their negotiation behaviors (Brook et al., 2008).

Furthermore, the lack of significant findings for the dependent variable of the female business students' actual first offer could be due to the fact that they anchored their first offer on the goal and intended first offer that they stated on the preparation sheet. Researchers such as Polzer and Neale (1995) as well as Tversky and Kahneman (1974) contended that initial goals can serve as anchors that influence negotiators' future outcomes. Moreover, it was likely that the anchoring effect was so strong that it was resistant to the influence of levels of G-PII and the sex of the opposing negotiator. Indeed, it was found that there was no interaction between the sex of the opposing negotiator and the level of conflict to influence the difference

between the goal and the actual first offer (b = -3.31, $t(6)$ = -.28, p = .79) or between the intended and actual first offer (b = 2.57, $t(18)$ = 1.19, p = .21). Consistent with Study 2A, this suggests that anchoring plays a role in affecting the relationship between female businesspersons' G-PII and the sex of the opposing negotiator in negotiations and begs further exploration in future studies.

General Discussion

Theoretical Implications

From confirmatory factor analyses and reliability analyses in Study 1, a 15-item G-PII scale emerged, and an exploration of the G-PII construct uncovered a two-factor structure, consisting of distance and conflict components. Although the conflict subscale had high reliability, the reliability for the distance subscale was unsatisfactory. To understand why the reliability for the distance subscale was unsatisfactory, it is important to consider the timing of acquisition of female businesspersons' dual identities. Female businesspersons generally acquire their gender identity since young and their professional identity in adulthood. This is different from the timing of acquisition of cultural identities, which can be at any moment of one's lives. Hence, this means that there may be conceptual differences between G-PII and BII and it implies that the items that were used to measure G-PII, which were derived from those from BII, may not be capturing the construct meaningfully.

Even though it was proposed that G-PII is related to a number of organizational variables such as organizational commitment and job satisfaction, the two factors of G-PII were not found to be significantly related to these variables and this could be because there was a lack of context to activate the gender and professional identities, and hence the identities might not have been perceived as

important. Since importance of identities had been found to moderate the relationship between identity conflict and psychological well-being (Brook et al., 2008), the lack of perceived importance of the gender and professional identities might explain the lack of significant correlations between G-PII and the other variables measured in this study. Hence, future research can seek to activate the identities and then re-examine the relationship between female businesspersons' levels of G-PII and its postulated correlates again.

In sum, the validation of the G-PII measure in Study 1 sets the groundwork for future research on G-PII as an understanding of the components of G-PII and its correlates will allow future studies to interpret the results in a more meaningful manner. This also helps in furthering the research in G-PII.

Study 2A and Study 2B was conducted with the aim of investigating whether female businesspersons' levels of G-PII would interact with the sex of the opposing negotiator, which served as a gender identity cue, to influence them in their negotiations. Results of the two studies showed that there was indeed an interaction between the sex of the opposing negotiator and female business students' levels of conflict. Although significant findings were found for only a few dependent variables, the results offer preliminary evidence that may bridge a number of empirical gaps in the research area of gender or sex and negotiations.

Firstly, they offer an explanation for the conflicting findings in terms of sex differences in negotiations. On one hand, past research had found that men were generally more competitive than women and that women were typically more cooperative than men (e.g., Baron, 2003; Kimmel et al., 1980; Nadler & Nadler, 1985). On the other hand, there is also research that found that women were more competitive and less cooperative than men (e.g., Bedell & Sistruck, 1973, Kahn,

Hottes & Davis, 1971; Oskamp & Pearlman, 1965). Results from this study suggest that the consideration that female businesspersons have a business identity on top of a gender identity is critical. More importantly, it implies that there is a need to acknowledge that female businesspersons may integrate their dual identities to different extents (i.e., have different levels of G-PII).

Secondly, the results of this research suggest that cues that come from the opposing negotiator can be very influential, even when they are nonlinguistic (i.e., nonverbal), as they may influence the perceivers and their negotiation behaviors and outcomes. One's gender identity can be very salient (Chattopadhyay, George & Lawrence, 2004), and hence can be hard to avoid. This means that the influence of the sex of the opposing negotiator should not be overlooked. Specifically, the sex of the opposing negotiator acts as an identity cue that affects female businesspersons' negotiation behaviors through identity frame switching. While female businesspersons who are better able to integrate their gender and professional identities (i.e., high G-PIIs) assimilate to the identity cues, female businesspersons who are less able to integrate their dual identities (i.e., low G-PIIs) contrast against the identity cues. (Sacharin et al., 2009; Mok & Morris, 2012b; Cheng & Tan, 2014). Hence, the sex of the opposing negotiator acts as an identity cue that high G-PIIs will assimilate towards and that low G-PIIs will contrast against.

Lastly, this research tried to address the question of what happens when people are being primed with an identity that is not present within them but is nonetheless related to their identities. In particular, the influence of having a male opposing negotiator that primes a male identity on female businesspersons was examined, and it can influence female businesspersons in two potential ways. Firstly, the male identity is related to the business identity and it should cue the business

identity in female businesspersons such that female businesspersons were affected by it. Secondly, the male identity is directly in contrast with the female identity that the female businesspersons hold, and hence, female businesspersons who are faced with a male opposing negotiator can behave in a way that is in direct opposition to how they would if their female identity was being primed or if they were faced with a female opposing negotiator. Hence, even when being primed with an identity that is not present within them, people may nonetheless react to it, depending on the overlap between the primed identity with any one of the identities within them.

However, this study was unable to untangle which of the abovementioned mechanisms were at play (i.e., whether female businesspersons activated their female or business identity), or whether both mechanisms were at play when they are faced with a male opposing negotiator. Future research can seek to find out whether the presence of a male opposing negotiator activates and contrasts against the female identity or activates and goes with the business identity.

Nonetheless, due to the lack of significant findings for some of the dependent variables, it is imperative to re-examine the interactive relationship between female businesspersons' levels of G-PII and the sex of the opposing negotiator on their negotiation behaviors, so as to gather greater support for the findings in this research. Specifically, as it is possible that the lack of significant findings for some of the dependent variables was due to the lack of activation of the identities, and hence the identities were not perceived as important for female businesspersons' levels of G-PII to influence the variables in question. Future research can attempt to measure the perceived importance of the female and business identities and examine if it influences the relationship between G-PII and the variables of interest in this study.

In addition, as anchoring to first offers (intended or actual) and goals could also have contributed to the lack of significant findings for some of the dependent variables (e.g., Benton, Kelley & Liebling, 1972; Galinsky and Mussweiler, 2001; Polzer & Neale, 1995), future research can either seek to eliminate possible anchors to further examine the interactive relationship between female businesspersons' levels of G-PII and the sex of the opposing negotiator on their negotiation behaviors or to ascertain the role of anchoring in affecting the interactive relationship between female businesspersons' levels of G-PII and the sex of the opposing negotiator on their negotiation behaviors.

Practical Implications

Given the preliminary results of this study, it may be possible to predict when women in corporate positions will negotiate aggressively depending on their levels of G-PII and the sex of the opposing negotiator. Specifically, when a female businessperson with high G-PII is faced with a female opposing negotiator, she is likely to be less aggressive in her negotiation. The reverse is true for a female businessperson with low G-PII and is faced with a female opposing negotiator (i.e., more aggressive). At the same time, when a female businessperson with high G-PII is faced with a male opposing negotiator, she is likely to be more aggressive in her negotiation. The reverse is true for a female businessperson with low G-PII and is faced with a male opposing negotiator (i.e., less aggressive).

Coupled with the ability to find out if aggressive behaviors and strategies are useful in specific negotiation contexts and scenarios, the abovementioned predictions will be helpful in letting us know when women may be advantaged or disadvantaged in negotiations in terms of achieving negotiation outcomes. More importantly, this knowledge can allow us to determine if a particular person will be the most suitable

person for particular negotiation contexts and scenarios. To be better able to reap benefits from negotiations, we can then use the appropriate person based on the negotiation context and scenario. Specifically, as competitive behaviors are considered distributive tactics that are beneficial to distributive negotiations (Kimmel et al., 1980), female businesspersons with low G-PIIs are best suited to negotiate in distributive negotiations when the opposing negotiator is a female, whereas female businesspersons with high G-PIIs are best suited to negotiate in distributive negotiations when the opposing negotiator is a male.

On the other hand, as De Dreu, Weingart and Kwon (2000) found that having a prosocial tendency was more beneficial for achieving higher joint outcomes in integrative negotiations, female businesspersons who behave less competitively should be better suited to negotiate in integrative negotiations. This means that in integrative negotiations where the opposing negotiator is a female, female businesspersons with high G-PII will be better suited to be a negotiator so that higher joint outcomes can be attained. Conversely, in integrative negotiations where the opposing negotiator is a male, female businesspersons with low G-PII will be a better candidate instead.

Alternatively, the ability to predict when women may be advantaged or disadvantaged in negotiations in terms of achieving negotiation outcomes can inform us to employ suitable strategies to enhance their negotiation performance. For instance, female businesspersons who are high in G-PII and are faced with a female opposing negotiator will be less aggressive, which makes them disadvantaged in distributive negotiations. Since Kray et al. (2002) suggested that stereotype regeneration can help improve women's performance in mixed-gender negotiations and it is possible that it can aid in reversing any disadvantage of women that may

arise as a result of their levels of G-PII and the sex of the opposing negotiator. Hence, going back to the previous example, linking stereotypically feminine traits to negotiation effectiveness or linking stereotypically masculine traits to negotiation ineffectiveness may help to reverse the disadvantage that female businesspersons who are high in G-PII and are faced with a female opposing negotiator have in a distributive negotiation. However, the effectiveness of the strategies for women of different levels of G-PII who are facing opposing negotiators of different sexes will need to be empirically tested.

Future Directions

Based on some of the insights gathered from the theoretical and practical implications of this study, some ideas for future research were generated. Firstly, the low reliability found for the distance subscale suggests that there needs to be re-consideration of the validity of the findings of past research that examined G-PII, especially if the items measuring distance were adapted from previous BII measures. Hence, to give support to the findings of past research that used the distance component of G-PII, replications of these studies will be helpful. In addition, recruiting female businesspersons to provide descriptions of their perceived distance between their gender and professional identities can help in creating a new set of items that can capture the distance component of G-PII in a more meaningful manner.

Secondly, it was proposed that some of the predicted relationships were not found due to a lack of context to activate the gender and professional identities, and hence the identities might not have been perceived as important for G-PII to have an effect on the variables in question. Hence, future studies can seek to include a measure of perceived importance of the female and business identities so as to see if

the importance of identities does indeed influence the relationship between G-PII and the variables of interest in this study.

In addition, the lack of significant findings for some of the dependent variables that were included in the examination of the interactive relationship between female businesspersons' levels of G-PII and the sex of the opposing negotiator on their negotiation behaviors could be due to the resistant influence of anchors. Future research can seek to eliminate possible anchors, this can be done by not asking female businesspersons for their potential strategies in the negotiation.

Thirdly, even though this study examined the effect of having a male opposing negotiator with a male identity on female businesspersons' negotiation behaviors, this study did not investigate what the precise psychological mechanisms was. It was proposed that the presence of the male opposing negotiator can cause female businesspersons to (a) act as contrast to the female businesspersons' female identity or (b) act in assimilation with the female businesspersons' business identity. Future research can seek to find out which of these mechanisms is at play, or whether both of these mechanisms are at play.

This can be done using a reaction time task that can measure female businesspersons' response rate towards their female and business identities, so as to determine which identities are activated. In addition, it can be expected that if (a) is the underlying psychological mechanism, then female businesspersons will possess attitudes and exhibit behaviors that are similar to those that will occur when being in an out-group, as the male identity is in contrast with the female businesspersons' female identity. On the other hand, if (b) is the underlying psychological mechanism, female businesspersons' business identity will be activated and then they will possess attitudes and exhibit behaviors that are similar to those that will occur when being in

an in-group. Hence, future studies can attempt to measure in-group/out-group attitudes or behaviors to find out which of the two possible underlying mechanisms are at play when female businesspersons face a male opposing negotiator.

Lastly, it was suggested that stereotype regeneration can be a potential strategy that can help reverse the disadvantage the female businesspersons hold when their G-PII and the sex of the opposing negotiator have an interactive effect that is disadvantageous to the negotiation. This needs to be empirically tested, and it can be done by using the same methodology as in Study 2A or 2B, and also providing participants information about the link between stereotypic masculine (feminine) traits with negotiation ineffectiveness (effectiveness).

On top of the abovementioned future research ideas that were gathered from the theoretical and practical implications of this study, there are also various research ideas that can advance the research in this area. As this research used distributive negotiation tasks to examine the interactive effects of women's levels of G-PII and the sex of opposing negotiator on women's negotiation behaviors, future research can hence investigate the same interactive effects in integrative negotiation tasks instead, and this will allow us to find out if there is also an effect of type of negotiation.

It will also be interesting to examine how female businesspersons with different levels of G-PII will behave in group negotiations. Specifically, it may be worthy to examine how they will behave if they form the minority sex or the majority sex in the group negotiations.

Advancing beyond this research, future studies can examine if women's levels of G-PII and the sex of the opposing negotiator may interact to influence women's attitudes towards negotiations, perceptions of self-efficacy, emotions in negotiations, etc. As reviewed in the beginning of this paper, prior research sought to find out if

sex differences exist in negotiations, and aggressiveness is only one aspect where sex differences were postulated to exist. As negotiations are complex social interactions, various other aspects of the negotiation process, such as those mentioned above, can be examined to better predict people's effectiveness in them.

Conclusion

Given that more women are taking up jobs in management, professional and related occupations, and negotiations are especially prevalent and important in organisations, it is important to understand how women may behave in negotiations in the workplace. Based on this research, it was proposed that there is a need to consider that female businesspersons hold dual identities – the female and business identities, and how the two identities are integrated may have an influence in female businesspersons' negotiation behaviors. Hence, a measure for the construct of gender-professional identity integration (G-PII) was developed and examined for its factor structure, reliability and correlates. In addition, it was proposed that the role of the sex of the opposing negotiator is critical as it is very salient and it can also have an influence in female businesspersons' negotiation behaviors. Hence, this study also examined the interactive effect between G-PII and the sex of the opposing negotiator and it was hypothesized that female businesspersons' levels of G-PII can cause them to be more or less aggressive depending on the sex of the opposing negotiator that acts as an identity cue. Understanding this interactive effect of G-PII and sex of opposing negotiatior can allow female businesspersons and organisations can predict and improve their negotiation outcomes.

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Appendix 1

G-PII Scale (adapted from BIIS-1 and BIIS-2, Benet-Martinez, 2003; Huynh, 2009)

1 (Completely disagree) → 5 (Completely agree)

Component	Items	Study 1		Study 2A	Study 2B
		22-item	15-item	14-item	13-item
Distance	2. Both my gender and business identities make me who I am. [R]	✓	✓	✓	
	3. I cannot ignore the gender or business side of me. [R]				
	4. I feel like a female and a businessperson at the same time. [R]				
	5. I relate better to a combined gender-business identity than to a gender or a business identity alone. [R]	✓	✓	✓	✓
	6. I feel "female-businessperson" (hyphenated, a mixture of the two). [R]	✓	✓	✓	✓
	7. I feel part of a combined gender-business identity. [R]	✓	✓	✓	✓
	9. I do not blend my gender and business identities.				
	11. I have a foot in each identity, both gender and business identities. [R]	✓	✓		

	12. I am simply a female in a business workplace.	✓			
	13. I keep my gender and business identities separate.				
Conflict	1. I feel that there are more similarities than differences between my gender and business identities. [R]				
	8. I find it difficult to combine my gender and business identities.	✓	✓	✓	✓
	10. Being a female businessperson is like being divided into two parts.	✓	✓	✓	✓
	14. I find it easy to harmonize my gender and business identities. [R]				
	15. I do not find being a female businessperson difficult. [R]				
	16. I find it easy to have both gender and business identities. [R]				
	17. I rarely feel conflicted about being a female businessperson. [R]	✓			
	18. I find it easy to balance both my gender and business identities. [R]				
	19. I feel that my gender and business identities are complementary. [R]				
	20. I do not feel trapped between my gender and business identities. [R]	✓			
	21. I feel torn between my gender and business identities.	✓	✓	✓	✓

	22. When I am in a situation that makes my gender identity salient, I cannot relate to my business identity at the same time.	✓	✓	✓	✓
	23. It takes a lot of effort to be a female and a businessperson at the same time.	✓			
	24. Being a female businessperson means having two forces pulling on me at the same time.	✓	✓	✓	✓
	25. I feel that my gender and business identities are incompatible.	✓	✓	✓	✓
	26. When I am in a business-related situation, I cannot relate to my gender identity at the same time.	✓			
	27. It is a challenge to be a female and businessperson at the same time.	✓			
	28. I feel pulled by the gender and business cultural forces in my life.	✓			
	29. I find it difficult to hold both my gender and professional identities.	✓	✓	✓	✓
	30. I am conflicted between the female and business ways of doing things.	✓	✓	✓	✓
	31. I feel like someone moving between my gender and business identities.	✓	✓	✓	✓
	32. I feel caught between my gender and business identities.	✓	✓	✓	✓

Appendix 2

Ten-Item Personality Inventory (Gosling, Rentfrow & Swann Jr., 2003)

1 (Disagree strongly), 2 (Disagree moderately), 3 (Disagree a little), 4 (Neither agree nor disagree), 5 (Agree a little), 6 (Agree moderately), 7 (Agree strongly)

1. Extraverted, enthusiastic.
2. Critical, quarrelsome.
3. Dependable, self-disciplined.
4. Anxious, easily upset.
5. Open to new experiences, complex.
6. Reserved, quiet.
7. Sympathetic, warm.
8. Disorganized, careless.
9. Calm, emotionally stable.
10. Conventional, uncreative.

Appendix 3

Bem Sex-Role Inventory (Bem, 1974)

1 (Never or almost never true) → 7 (Always or almost always true)

1. Acts as a leader
2. Aggressive
3. Ambitious
4. Analytical
5. Assertive
6. Athletic
7. Competitive
8. Defends own beliefs
9. Dominant
10. Forceful
11. Has leadership abilities
12. Independent
13. Individualistic
14. Makes decisions easily
15. Masculine
16. Self-reliant
17. Self-sufficient
18. Strong personality
19. Willing to take a stand
20. Willing to take risks
21. Affectionate
22. Cheerful

23. Childlike
24. Compassionate
25. Does not use harsh language
26. Eager to soothe hurt feelings
27. Feminine
28. Flatterable
29. Gentle
30. Gullible
31. Loves children
32. Loyal
33. Sensitive to the needs of others
34. Shy
35. Soft spoken
36. Sympathetic
37. Tender
38. Understanding
39. Warm
40. Yielding
41. Adaptable
42. Conceited
43. Conscientious
44. Conventional
45. Friendly
46. Happy
47. Helpful

48. Inefficient
49. Jealous
50. Likeable
51. Moody
52. Reliable
53. Secretive
54. Sincere
55. Solemn
56. Tactful
57. Theatrical
58. Truthful
59. Unpredictable
60. Unsystematic

Appendix 4

Gender Role Egalitarianism Attitudes Test (Chang, 1999)

Instructions: If you think it is more important or more appropriate for men than it is for women, please use 1, 2, 3, or 4 next to "more for men" to indicate the degree to which you think it is more important or more appropriate for men than it is for women. If you think it is equally important or appropriate for men and women, please check zero. If you think it is more important or more appropriate for women than it is for men, please use 1, 2, 3, or 4 next to "more for women" to indicate the degree to which you think it is more important or more appropriate for women than it is for men.

Scale:

1 2 3 4 More for Men

0

1 2 3 4 More for Women

1. Be a leader
2. Have a successful career
3. Conduct business
4. Receive highest education possible
5. Make money
6. Take care of children
7. Do laundry
8. Do housework
9. Cook at home
10. Shop for groceries

Appendix 5

Satisfaction With Life Scale (Diener, Emmons, Larsen, & Griffin, 1985)

1 (Strongly disagree), 2 (Disagree), 3 (Slightly disagree), 4 (Neither agree nor disagree), 5 (Slightly agree), 6 (Agree), 7 (Strongly agree)

1. In most ways my life is close to my ideal.
2. The conditions of my life are excellent.
3. I am satisfied with my life.
4. So far I have gotten the important things I want in life.
5. If I could live my life over, I would change almost nothing.

Appendix 6

Organizational Commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1997)

1 (Strongly disagree) → 7 (Strongly agree)

1. I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organization
2. I really feel as if this organisation's problems are my own
3. I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organization"
4. I do not feel 'emotionally attached' to this organisation
5. This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me
6. I do not feel a strong sense of belonging to my organisation

Appendix 7

Job Satisfaction (adapted from Brayfield & Rothe, 1951)

1 (Strongly disagree), 2 (Disagree), 3 (Undecided), 4 (Agree), 5 (Strongly Agree)

1. I am often bored with my job
2. I feel fairly well satisfied with my present job
3. I am satisfied with my job for the time being
4. Most days I am enthusiastic about my work
5. I like my job better than the average worker does
6. I find real enjoyment in my work

Appendix 8

Intent to Quit Scale (adapted from Balaji, 1988)

1 (Strongly disagree) →5 (Strongly Agree)

What are your plans for staying with your current organisation?

1. I intend to stay until I retire
2. I will leave only if an exceptional opportunity turns up
3. I will leave if something better turns up
4. I intend to leave as soon as possible

Appendix 9

Task Performance (adapted from Williams & Anderson, 1991)

1 (Strongly disagree) → 7 (Strongly agree)

1. Adequately completes assigned duties
2. Fulfills responsibilities specified in job description
3. Performs tasks that are expected of me
4. Meets formal performance requirements of the job
5. Engages in activities that will directly affect my performance evaluation
6. Neglects aspects of job I am obligated to perform
7. Fails to perform essential duties
8. Helps others who have been absent
9. Helps others who have heavy work loads
10. Assists supervisor with his/her work (when not asked)
11. Takes time to listen to co-workers' problems and worries
12. Goes out of way to help new employees
13. Passes along information to co-workers
14. Attendance at work is above the norm
15. Gives advance notice when unable to come to work
16. Takes undeserved work breaks
17. Great deal of time spent with personal phone conversations
18. Complains about insignificant things at work
19. Conserves and protects organizational property
20. Adheres to informal rules devised to maintain order

Appendix 10

Creative Performance (adapted from George & Zhou, 2001)

1 (Not at all characteristic) → 7 (Very characteristic)

1. Suggests new ways to achieve goals or objectives
2. Comes up with new and practical ideas to improve performance
3. Searches out new technologies, processes, techniques, and/or product ideas
4. Suggests new ways to increase quality
5. Is a good source of creative ideas
6. Not afraid to take risks
7. Promotes and champions ideas to others
8. Exhibits creativity on the job when given the opportunity to
9. Develops adequate plans and schedules for the implementation of new ideas
10. Often has new and innovative ideas
11. Comes up with creative solutions to problems
12. Often has a fresh approach to problems
13. Suggests new ways of performing work tasks

Appendix 11

Job Engagement (Rich, Lepine & Crawford, 2010)

1 (Strongly disagree) → 5 (Strongly agree)

1. I work with intensity on my job
2. I exert my full effort to my job
3. I devote a lot of energy to my job
4. I try my hardest to perform well on my job
5. I strive as hard as I can to complete my job
6. I exert a lot of energy on my job
7. I am enthusiastic in my job
8. I feel energetic at my job
9. I am interested in my job
10. I am proud of my job
11. I feel positive about my job
12. I am excited about my job
13. At work, my mind is focused on my job
14. At work, I pay a lot of attention to my job
15. At work, I focus a great deal of attention on my job
16. At work, I am absorbed by my job
17. At work, I concentrate on my job
18. At work, I devote a lot of attention to my job

Appendix 12

Demographics and Strength of Identities

1. Age: _____
2. Ethnicity: African / Caucasian / East Asian (e.g. Chinese, Korean, Japanese) / Southeast Asian (e.g. Vietnam, Cambodia) / Other Asian (specify: _____) / Indian / Middle Eastern / Latino or Hispanic / Other (specify: _____)
3. How much do you identify yourself as a woman?

1	2	3	4	5
Very weak	Somewhat weak	Neutral	Somewhat strong	Very strong

4. How much do you identify yourself as a businessperson?

1	2	3	4	5
Very weak	Somewhat weak	Neutral	Somewhat strong	Very strong

Appendix 13

Negotiation Scenario (adapted from Barry & Friedman, 1998)

You are the manufacturing plant manager of a technology company. Currently, your company is facing a shortfall in the production of a personal cloud storage device, LiveCloud, and you will need to find a way to make up for the production shortfall. LiveCloud is sold by your company at a retail price of $199 per unit. You know that there is another technology company, AAB, which is selling a similar product and you are hoping to buy the required amount of the product from AAB company to make up for the shortfall at a reasonable price. You are now at a meeting with the manager of AAB company to discuss about the purchase of the product.

Appendix 14

Negotiation Task

(a) How much will you propose as a first offer for buying the product from Sam?

$_____

(b) Your first offer to Sam was $[Amount in (a)]. Sam proposes a counteroffer of $[Amount in (a) + 25]. Are you willing to accept the counteroffer?

Yes

No

(c) Since you are not accepting Sam's counteroffer, please state your next counteroffer below:

_____

Appendix 15

Negotiation Task (Diekmann, Tenbrunsel, & Galinsky, 2003; Galinsky, Leonardelli, Okhuysen & Mussweiler, 2005; Galinsky & Mussweiler, 2001; Galinsky, Mussweiler & Medvec, 2002)

You are a 2nd-year MBA from a prestigious university and you already possess an offer from a well-respected Boston consulting firm. The Boston firm is only offering a bonus of $5,000, but you have heard that bonuses of up to $30,000 had been offered to others in the consulting field. To accept the offer of employment in the current negotiation, you should get at least $10,000 as a signing bonus.

* Note: If both parties cannot agree on a bonus amount, they can choose to declare impasse and not reach a deal.

Appendix 16

Preparation Sheet

1. How much is your goal—the amount you hope to earn from your negotiation counterpart (the recruiter)? _____
2. How much will you propose as a first offer for the bonus to your negotiation counterpart (the recruiter)? _____

Appendix 17

Contract of Agreement or Impasse

1. Was there an agreement reached in the bonus amount offered by recruiter to candidate? Yes / No
2. Did you make the first offer?

Yes No

What was the first numerical offer made?

$_____

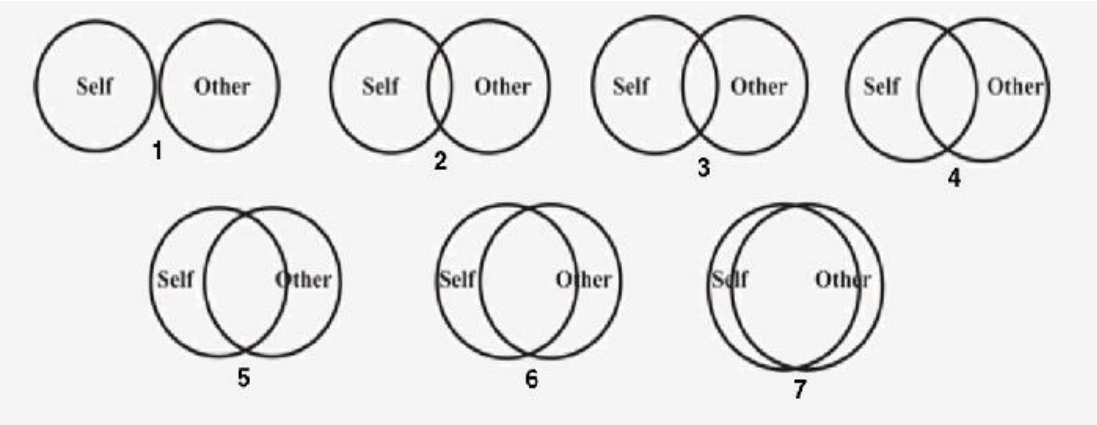
Appendix 18

Physical attractiveness and closeness to opposing negotiator

1. How physically attractive do you think your negotiation counterpart is?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Very physically unattractive						Very physically attractive

2. Using this graphic, answer the item below it.



Circle one option to indicate your "closeness" to your negotiation counterpart:

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Not very close						Extremely close