



2022

## A Study in the Effectiveness of Factual Versus Emotional Interventions in Reducing Ambivalent Sexism in Hiring Decisions

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LOYOLA UNIVERSITY CHICAGO

A STUDY IN THE EFFECTIVENESS  
OF FACTUAL VERSUS EMOTIONAL INTERVENTIONS IN REDUCING  
AMBIVALENT SEXISM IN HIRING DECISIONS

A THESIS SUBMITTED TO  
THE FACULTY OF THE GRADUATE SCHOOL  
IN CANDIDACY FOR THE DEGREE OF  
MASTER OF ARTS

PROGRAM IN APPLIED SOCIAL PSYCHOLOGY

BY

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CHICAGO, IL

MAY 2022

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## ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to thank all those people who made this thesis possible. The Psychology Department at Loyola University Chicago is marvelous especially my advisor, Dr. Scott Tindale, who always put up with my last-minute meeting request as he guided me through this process, and my second reader, Dr. Tracy DeHart, who always had a kind word to say while also pushing me to think about ideas in different ways. Finally, I would like to thank my family members for listening to me complain, about set-backs, pretending to understand when I went on statistical tangents, and always being my cheerleaders.

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## ABSTRACT

Ambivalent sexism – divided into the categories of benevolent sexism (BS) and hostile sexism (HS) – is imbedded in many parts of the workplace. This study aims to explore if ambivalent sexism influences hiring decisions and, if so, what can be done about it. After completing a series of surveys, participants were asked to read about an agentic female candidate who applied for a male-dominated position. Afterwards, participants went through either a factual or emotional intervention before reevaluating their decision. Major results showed that only the emotional intervention increased the likelihood of the candidate being hired but it is not a long-term solution.

## **A Study in the Effectiveness of Factual versus Emotional Interventions in Reducing Ambivalent Sexism in Hiring Decisions**

Although women have entered the workplace steadily over the last 50 years, they still face sexism at work. Specifically, 42% of woman reported facing gender discrimination at work (Pew Research Center, 2017). This gender discrimination includes the following eight categories: (1) being paid less than a man doing the same job, (2) being treated as incompetent, (3) experiencing frequent small slights, (4) receiving less support from superiors, (5) being passed over for important assignments, (6) feeling isolated, (7) being denied promotions, and (8) being turned down for a job. The biggest gender gap is in income as 25% of women report earning less than men while only 5% of men report earning less than women (Parker & Funk, 2017). On average the gender pay gap is 18% with women earning 82 cents for every dollar earned by an equal man (Hegewisch & Hartmann, 2019). Furthermore, evidence suggests that, through ambivalent sexist beliefs, woman have fewer opportunities for advancement, are devalued, and are less likely to be chosen for male gendered positions (Heilman & Parks-Stamm, 2007).

Ambivalent sexism can be broken down into two subcomponents: hostile sexism and benevolent sexism. Hostile sexism is the outward, negative thoughts and actions towards members of a particular gender while benevolent sexism involves using stereotypes to restrict someone based on gender but making it seem prosocial (Glick & Fiske, 1996). Moreover,



women who disregard the gender status quo are less likely to be hired and more likely to be disliked (Williams & Tiedens, 2016). To combat ambivalent sexism, there is some evidence to suggest that evidence-based confrontation works. On the other hand, there is some evidence to suggest that promoting empathy works.

### **Ambivalent Sexism**

Ambivalent sexism is called ambivalent because it encapsulates opposite feelings towards women. It contains hostile sexism (HS) and benevolent sexism (BS). Hostile sexism is the outward negative attitudes and behaviors towards women. Benevolent sexism is placing stereotypes and restrictions on women in a seemingly positive way. For example, hostile sexism would be not hiring a female because they think she is incompetent, and benevolent sexism would be not hiring a female because they think she is too caring and would be better suited elsewhere. Both HS and BS are said to be composed of the same three components. Paternalism includes dominant paternalism which is the view that women are incompetent and thus need to be subordinate (pertaining more so to HS), and protective paternalism, which is the view that women need to be protected as mothers and wives (pertaining more so to BS). Gender differentiation includes competitive gender differentiation which is the belief that men are more suited to power rolls (pertaining more so to HS) and complementary gender differentiation which is the belief that women have positive traits that complement men and thus should stay in the home (pertaining more so to BS). Heterosexuality includes heterosexual hostility which is the need to dominate women (pertaining more so to HS), and heterosexual intimacy which is a desire for a relationship but cannot seem to be separated from dominance (pertaining more so to BS). Overall, HS is linked to control whilst BS is linked to thinking women are great as household

figures only. Ambivalent sexism can be measured using the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (ASI). The ASI will separate individuals into four categories depending on their score: ambivalent sexists (high in both HS and BS), hostile sexists (high in HS only), benevolent sexists (high in BS only), and nonsexists (low in both HS and BS) (Glick & Fiske, 1996).

Ambivalent sexism, whether it be expressed by men or women, can negatively affect a woman's life in any aspect. Concerning parenting, men high in HS and in BS want to be a controlling parent (Aikawa & Stewart, 2020). This means they may disregard their partner's input and potentially inhibit their child's development. Furthermore, women high in benevolent sexism and both men and women high in hostile sexism oppose breastfeeding in public (Huang, Sibley & Osborne, 2020). Even though this process is to keep children alive, it is seen as an act to be looked-down-upon. Ambivalent sexism goes far beyond just parenting, though. In terms of determining if a situation is rape or not, those higher in BS will look at pleasure and wantedness more so than consent (Hills et al, 2020). Because BS is subtle and unnoticed as discriminatory, juries can acquit rapists whilst believing they themselves are still unbiased. As sexual assault cases are already hard to prove, this can exacerbate survivor's struggles and continue leaving people unpunished or uncaught. All of this continues because BS is not widely understood as sexism, and therefore men and women alike may be discriminating against women without even realizing they are doing so. Finally, in general, men high in sexist beliefs turn to misogynistic ideals when presented with societal norms (Bosson et al, 2020). When norms are salient, men high in sexist beliefs will always view women stereotypically and thus treat them stereotypically. Whether it be at home, in courtrooms, or at work, ambivalent sexism follows women everywhere.

## **Gender Stereotypes and Hiring Practices**

In general, it is thought that men are supposed to be agentic, aggressive, competitive, and determined (Williams & Tiedens, 2016). Women are supposed to be communal, nurturing, sensitive, and understanding. To challenge or not succumb to this gender status quo makes other people resent and harshly criticize that individual. These stereotypes and their consequences carry over into the workplace, as well. Regarding the view of managers, American men have a stereotypically masculine view while women have an androgynous view (Schein, 2001). Furthermore, American men have a positive bias towards males in hiring decisions, specifically for what are seen as male jobs (Koch et al, 2015). Males do have more power and more to gain from keeping the status quo (Pratto et al, 1997), even in regard to women taking on more agentic roles. Agentic women are breaking the gender stereotypes, and thus are seen as less likable and less hireable even though they are seen as equally competent (Williams & Tiedens, 2016). Moreover, agentic females are seen as too dominant (Rudman et al, 2012), having fewer social skills (Rudman & Glick, 2001), and are derogated for breaking the gender status quo (Rudman et al, 2012). These reactions can be explained by the Precarious Manhood Theory. Some men are very sensitive to challenges of their manhood, and if that manhood is threatened by an agentic female, then they will evaluate the agentic female negatively. This threat in part comes from power or a lack thereof. Therefore, in terms of hiring decisions, low-power men who are threatened by an agentic female candidate are more likely to discriminate against her (Hoover et al, 2019). Moreover, Good & Rudman (2010) discovered that ASI scores are related to hiring discrimination. That is, male participants with higher ASI scores are less likely to hire a woman,

especially for a predominately male position. In general, gender stereotyping and sexist beliefs can lead to ambivalent sexist beliefs and/or behaviors.

### **Successful Interventions**

Research has examined ways in which sexism can be countered. There is evidence to suggest that factual appeals can lower sexist ideals. Parker and Monteith (2018) found that evidence-based confrontation leads to greater guilt and future concern. When confronted with evidence of their own gender bias in a less accusatory and personal way as to limit backlash, participants were made more mindful of their gender bias in the future. In other words, an evidence-based approach leads to more self-regulation in the future regarding gender bias. Also, by using specific evidence about the participants' behavior and statistics, the participant was more forced to confront their reasoning for their decision head on. They could not just claim that they are not sexist because they “love women”. With no emotions involved in the confrontation itself and just facts, male participants were more likely to feel guilt and thus acknowledge that gender bias may play a role in their decisions, including hiring decisions.

There is also evidence to suggest that emotional appeals will reduce gender bias. Becker and Swim (2011) found that in order to reject sexist ideals in men, they need to have emotional empathy encouraged. Just having an increased awareness does not help reduce sexist beliefs. What drives the decrease of sexism is increased awareness as well as a push towards empathy. With no emotional component, male participants were no more likely to reduce their endorsement of sexism. However, when male participants were exposed to the frequency of sexism in their own lives and made to empathize, male participants were more likely to reduce their endorsement of sexism. Although this study only focused on Modern and Benevolent

Sexism (excluding hostile sexism), modern and benevolent sexist beliefs are more prevalent among college students (Glick & Fiske, 1996).

### **Current Research**

Previous research has shown that both factual and emotional approaches work in combating sexist attitudes towards men and that ASI scores correlate with sexist attitudes. The purpose of this proposed research is twofold. The first purpose of this study is to demonstrate the specific correlation between ASI scores and hiring decisions. The ASI is said to be correlated with sexist attitudes of participants as well as hiring practices (Glick & Fiske, 1996). Moreover, this project will present participants with an agentic female candidate who is qualified for the position. Previous research indicates that while seen as equally competent, agentic females are considered to have fewer social skills, be less likeable, and be less hireable than agentic males (Williams & Tiedens, 2016). From this it is expected that people high in sexism would also be more likely to reject agentic females who are breaking the gender status quo.

The second purpose of this project is to discern which type of confrontation is better able to 1) make male participants aware of sexist attitudes and 2) change these attitudes. Previous research suggests that evidence-based confrontation is able to make people self-regulate, be more mindful of their attitudes, and face their decisions instead of ignoring their thought processes. This works only when presented with facts, statistics, and evidence of their own biases. Previous research also suggests that emotion-based confrontation is able to promote empathy within males and therefore lower their endorsement of sexist attitudes and actions. This study will discern which of these two particular strategies will be able to make participants own up to their bias and

change their mind about a hiring decision. This project aims to demonstrate if this factual or this emotional intervention is better for reducing hiring discrimination.

Consistent with this previous research, I predict that participants with a high (sexist) score on the ASI will be less likely to hire an agentic female candidate compared to those participants with a low (nonsexist) score on the ASI. The second prediction will be that male participants will be more likely to acknowledge their sexist choice by being confronted with evidence but will be more likely to change their mind by being presented with emotional stories prompting empathy. This is consistent with previous research because evidence-based confrontation seems to lead to future concern and emotional confrontation seems to lead to immediate concern.

## **Method**

**Pilot study.** To ensure that the independent variable manipulations were strong enough, a pilot study was conducted using undergraduate male students from Loyola University Chicago. The results of the pilot test revealed a small effect size ( $d = .2$ ), and a paired samples  $t$ -test showed a non-significant difference in pre-test ( $M=5.316$ ) and post-test ( $M=5.421$ ) hiring decisions ( $t(18) = -.697, p=.494$ ). While not significant, the results were in the hypothesized direction and the sample size was quite small. Consequently, I went ahead to the full study.

**Participants and design.** This study recruited both undergraduate Psychology students at Loyola University Chicago and college-aged male participants from Amazon MTURK. 48 participants came from Loyola University Chicago and 260 participants came from Amazon MTURK. Thus, I recruited a total of 308 participants to achieve 93% power. This study was online, and all participants identified as males. In return for participating in this study,

participants from Loyola University Chicago received course credit while participants from Amazon MTURK received \$1.00 each. The independent variables will be the ASI score converted to be continuous (less sexist to more sexist), and the type of intervention used (factual vs. emotional). Because this was partially completed at a university with a limited participant pool, the participants are to be considered on a scale from sexist to nonsexist instead of grouped into four categories of ambivalent sexist, hostile sexist, benevolent sexist, and nonsexist. The dependent variables are acknowledgement of prejudice from the participant and the success of the intervention (did the participant change their mind or not). The Ten Item Personality Inventory and Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale will serve as distractors.

**Procedure.** After consenting to the research, all participants completed the ASI, the Rosenberg Self-Esteem Scale, and the Ten Item Personality Inventory in that order (see Appendices A, B, C, respectively). Self-esteem and personality were controlled for in the final analyses. Participants then read a short description of a job opening at a financial firm in a big city for an entry to mid-level position. Following the job description there is a brief biography of a female candidate with a quote from a letter of recommendation. After answering the question of how willing they would be to hire this woman or not on a scale on 1-7, participants rated Wendy on a scale of 1-7 on appropriateness of fit and explain their reasoning. Participants then received either a factual intervention or an emotional intervention. The factual intervention gave statistics on ambivalent sexism in the workplace while the emotional intervention promoted empathy in the participant without using statistics. After reading the intervention, participants explained if they thought their reasoning for hiring or not hiring the candidate could have been rooted in sexist attitudes. Then, they re-evaluated the candidates in the same manner

with rating how likely they would be to hire her, rating her in terms of fit, and explaining their reasoning (See Appendix D for materials).

Participants were placed into the sexist or nonsexist categories based on their score on the ASI. They were randomly assigned into either the emotional or factual intervention condition. This was done by letting a computer pick a random order of packets and then assigning them to the participants in order of completion. Success of intervention was measured by looking at whether the participant changed their mind from do not hire to hire. Successful intervention included final decisions that are to hire the candidate when previously they would not hire her. Acknowledgement of potential prejudice was measured by participants mentioning that they were made aware of sexist issues through the intervention even if their decision did not change for another reason besides gender, or if they previously said they would hire her but still acknowledged sexism in their new explanation.

Upon completion of the study, participants received a debriefing statement stating the reason for the study and justifying the use of deceit of statistics. Then participants were able to exit the program to complete the study. I assigned their credits earned on SONA to make sure student participants received class credit, and Amazon automatically paid participants upon completion of the study.

## **Results**

Unfortunately, this study was unable to replicate Glick & Fiske (1996) in finding that ASI scores significantly predict participants initial responses to how likely they are to hiring the fictional candidate. Results indicated that ASI score was not a significant predictor for initial hiring decision,  $R = .019$ ;  $t(1) = -.283$ ;  $p = .777$ , or initial appropriateness of fit decision,



$R = .080$ ;  $t(1) = -1.205$ ;  $p = .229$ . This is inconsistent with our hypothesis. There appeared to be a slight range restriction in the distribution of the ASI scores. We know this because a distribution graph showed that scores ranged from 0 (not at all sexist) to 4 (quite sexist) with no one scoring a 5 (the most sexist). Most people fell in the middle with fewer participants at the end points. The mean score was 2.35 with a standard deviation of .812. Thus, it may be possible that range restriction is partly to blame for the lack of a significant relationship. However, in this sample, a person's level of initial sexism did not predict hiring decisions.

In regard to the emotional and factual interventions, a 2 (pre vs. post intervention) x 2 (emotion vs. factual intervention) Repeated Measure Analysis of Variance was conducted to analyze if there were any differences between the first hiring decision and appropriateness of fit rating and the second hiring decision and appropriateness of fit rating. Results indicate that overall, there was a significant change between the pre- ( $M=4.05$ ) and post-test ( $M =4.69$ ) responses on hiring ( $F(1,213) = 3.793$ ,  $p = .002$ ,  $\eta^2 = .19$ ). Participants were more likely to hire the candidate after the intervention. There was also a main effect of type of intervention ( $F(1,213) = 9.580$ ,  $p=.002$ ) with a mean of 4.68 for the emotional group and a mean of 4.70 for the factual group and an effect size of .03.. Furthermore, there was a significant interaction between the first and second hiring decision and intervention group ( $F(1, 213) =4.100$ ,  $p=.044$ ) with an effect size of .03. Figure 1 below illustrates this interaction. Further testing revealed that only in the emotional group was there a significant difference in the pre- ( $\bar{x} = 4.37$ ,  $SD = 1.08$ ) and post-test ( $\bar{x} = 4.68$ ,  $SD = 1.08$ ) hiring decision ( $p<.001$ ). The factual intervention did not produce a significant difference between the pre- ( $M= 4.64$ ,  $SD = 1.03$ ) and post-test ( $M = 4.70$ ,  $SD = 1.04$ ). Looking at the appropriateness of fit ratings, the same

2x2 Analysis of Variance was conducted. There was no significant difference in ratings overall with the two main effects and the interaction reporting  $F < .005$ . Consequently, only the hiring decision changed after the intervention and thinking the hire was an appropriate fit did not. Moreover, this change only occurred in the emotional intervention and not in the factual intervention.

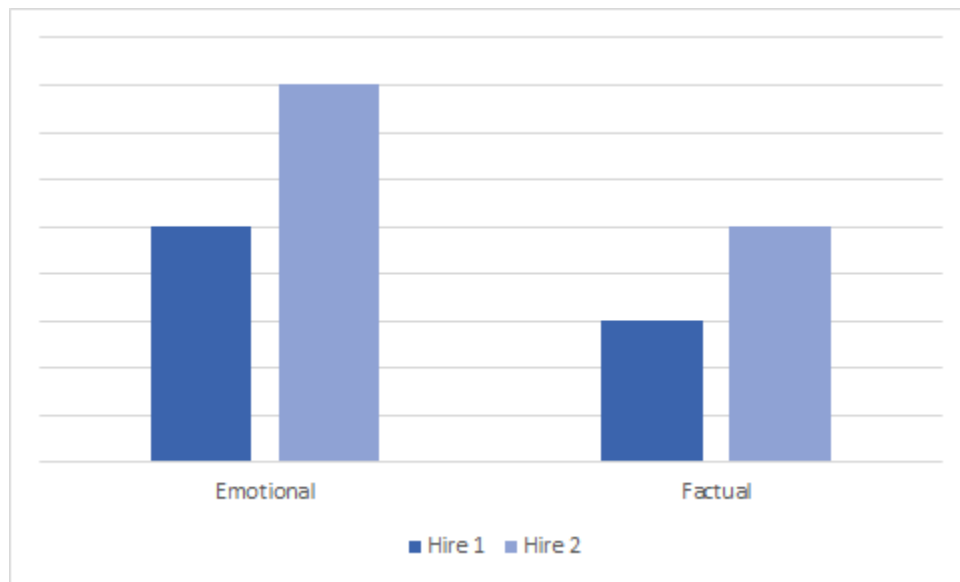


Figure 1. A demonstration of the the significant interaction the first and second hiring decision and intervention group.

To test the other hypothesis and determine which intervention impacts acknowledgement and which intervention impacts change, two chi-square tests were utilized. First, acknowledgement was determined by coding written responses from the participants to indicate whether or not they acknowledged sexism. Interrater reliability was .80. We used a chi square test to assess whether the intervention groups differed in participants acknowledgment of sexism after the intervention. The two groups did differ ( $\chi^2(1, 244) = 5.998, p = .015, \phi = .157$ ) showing that participants in the emotion intervention were more likely to acknowledge sexism (25%) as compared to the factual condition (13%). The second chi square test was used to test

change. Change was determined by noting if participants changed their hiring decision to be more likely to hire the candidate after the intervention. Simply put, change was recorded to have occurred if a participant's second hiring decision was positively different from the first hiring decision. We used a chi square test to assess whether the intervention groups differed in participants second hiring decision after the intervention. The two groups did differ  $\chi^2(1, 257) = 8.035, p = .006, \phi = .177$  showing that participants in the emotion intervention were more likely to change (37%) as compared to the factual condition (21%).

### **Discussion and Future Directions**

The present study attempted to further understand the relationship between ambivalent sexism and simulated hiring decisions by presenting a fictional agentic, female candidate. Then participants were randomly presented with either a factual or emotional intervention. We first tested whether participants ASI scores were related to hiring decisions. Counter to our hypothesis, ASI scores did not significantly predict the initial hiring decision. This was also not consistent with Good & Rudman (2010) that found that ASI scores did predict gender discrimination in hiring decisions. One possible explanation for this could be social niceties. The participant may not have wanted to appear sexist even in a confidential survey. Another possible explanation could be due to society's views on "social aggressiveness" today. As the hypothetical applicant in the study was described as "socially aggressive" to have her appear more agentic, this may have stuck out to participants as a negative attribute. Aggression has historically been lessening over time, and more people may not believe social aggression is a good trait to possess regardless of gender (Pinker, 2011). Consequently, future research may

want to again assess the association between ASI and hiring decisions using more appropriate hiring scenarios.

Our second goal was to compare two different interventions to observe which was better at reducing the role of sexism in hiring decisions. The two interventions involved either factual knowledge or an attempt to engage participants emotional responses. We assessed hiring decisions both before and after both interventions. The factual intervention, based off Parker & Monteith (2018), and the emotional intervention, based off Becker & Swim (2011), were both hypothesized to lead to an increased likelihood to higher the candidate. In the original studies, Parker & Monteith (2018) were able to prompt mindfulness around gender bias while Becker & Swim (2011) were able to reduce BS in male participants. Because of these results, we hypothesized that variations of these studies would be able to produce similar effects. However, we found that only the emotional intervention influenced hiring decisions in that the likelihood of hiring a female candidate increased after the emotional intervention. There was no significant increase found for the factual intervention. We also measured participants perceived job fit for the candidate, but the interventions did not appear to impact such perceptions. In the interventions, only the hiring decision was changed, and this only occurred in the emotional condition. This partially confirms our hypothesis in that the emotional condition would prompt male participants to be more likely to hire the candidate after prompting empathy. However, this does not confirm our hypothesis in that the factual condition did not lead participants to acknowledge their potentially sexist decision. This could be because the factual condition had to use general facts in this scenario instead of confronting the participant with specific instances of their own sexism (Parker & Monteith, 2018). Thus, future research should attempt this

intervention using specific examples of the participants own sexist decisions to evaluate if a factual intervention can lead to acknowledgement and/or change.

The emotional intervention did succeed in helping participants change their decision. It is possible that the emotional intervention prompted empathy in participants which led to the change in decision. However, participants only changed their minds in this case, and the appropriateness rating did not significantly change even though it was in the right direction. This means the emotional intervention in this case did affect hiring in this scenario, but it is unclear whether the intervention would affect later decisions. Furthermore, participants were more likely overall to change their mind and acknowledge sexism in the emotional group compared to the factual group. Again, using specific examples of a participant's own sexist beliefs could rectify this as seen in Parker & Monteith (2018). Future research should look at how different ways of prompting empathy could be a long-term solution to ambivalent sexist beliefs in hiring decisions.

### **Limitations**

Because this study used a hypothetical situation in which the decision was made by participants that were students and not hiring managers, it is limited in generalizations that can be made from the findings. This could be remedied by future research studying an actual working sample instead of a student sample. Furthermore, participants in this study tended to be in the center of the ASI scale. Few people scored on either extreme, and no one received the most sexist score. As this is contradictory to previous research, future research should investigate further.

## **Conclusion**

This study's aim was to test how to effectively reduce ambivalent sexism in hiring decisions. College-aged males, typically lower in ambivalent sexism (Glick & Fiske, 1996), evaluated a hypothetical female candidate for a female job. Using an agentic female and a male-dominated industry (finance) draws on past research such as Williams & Tiedens (2016) and Rudman et al (2012) that found agentic females are disliked and agentic males are well liked especially in male circles. Furthermore, this study looked at which types of interventions were most effective at (1) reducing ambivalent sexism in the moment and (2) reducing ambivalent sexism in the future. The factual intervention, which prompted the participants with facts about how many people are ambivalently sexist even if they do not realize it, did neither. The emotional intervention, which prompts empathy in the participants by making them think of themselves being overlooked, reduced ambivalent sexism in the moment. Consequently, this research shows that while the reduction may be possible, it prompts future research to explore long-term solutions.

APPENDIX A  
AMBIVALENT SEXISM INVENTORY

Below is a series of statements concerning men and women and their relationships in contemporary society. Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with each statement using the following scale: 0 = disagree strongly; 1 = disagree somewhat; 2 = disagree slightly; 3 = agree slightly; 4 = agree somewhat; 5 = agree strongly.

1. No matter how accomplished he is, a man is not truly complete as a person unless he has the love of a woman.
2. Many women are actually seeking special favors, such as hiring policies that favor them over men, under the guise of asking for “equality.”
3. In a disaster, women ought not necessarily to be rescued before men.
4. Most women interpret innocent remarks or acts as being sexist.
5. Women are too easily offended.
6. People are often truly happy in life without being romantically involved with a member of the other sex.
7. Feminists are not seeking for women to have more power than men.
8. Many women have a quality of purity that few men possess.
9. Women should be cherished and protected by men.
10. Most women fail to appreciate fully all that men do for them.
11. Women seek to gain power by getting control over men.
12. Every man ought to have a woman whom he adores.
13. Men are complete without women.
14. Women exaggerate problems they have at work.
15. Once a woman gets a man to commit to her, she usually tries to put him on a tight leash.



16. When women lose to men in a fair competition, they typically complain about being discriminated against.
17. A good woman should be set on a pedestal by her man.
18. There are actually very few women who get a kick out of teasing men by seeming sexually available and then refusing male advances.
19. Women, compared to men, tend to have a superior moral sensibility.
20. Men should be willing to sacrifice their own well being in order to provide financially for the women in their lives.
21. Feminists are making entirely reasonable demands of men.
22. Women, as compared to men, tend to have a more refined sense of culture and good taste.

APPENDIX B  
ROSENBERG SELF-ESTEEM SCALE

Please select whether you strongly disagree, disagree, agree, or strongly agree with each statement below.

1. I feel that I am a person of worth, at least on an equal plane with others.
2. I feel that I have a number of good qualities.
3. All in all, I am inclined to feel that I am a failure.
4. I am able to do things as well as most other people.
5. I feel I do not have much to be proud of.
6. I take a positive attitude toward myself.
7. On the whole, I am satisfied with myself.
8. I wish I could have more respect for myself.
9. I certainly feel useless at times.
10. At times I think I am no good at all.

APPENDIX C

TEN ITEM PERSONALITY INVENTORY

Here are a number of personality traits that may or may not apply to you. Please write a number next to each statement to indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with that statement. You should rate the extent to which the pair of traits applies to you, even if one characteristic applies more strongly than the other.

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

I see myself as:

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 D  
CANDIDATE SURVEY

You will be asked to read a brief description of an open position at a financial firm. Then, you will be asked to read a brief biography of a potential candidate for the position and decide whether or not you would hire this candidate.

A financial firm in Chicago is looking to hire an entry to mid-level financial analyst. This new hire will be primarily required to research market trends as well as pitch mergers and acquisitions to higher level executives. No formal experience is required, but a Bachelor's Degree in Business is required.

Female candidate:

Wendy graduated three years ago from an accredited university with a degree in Economics. She achieved a 3.5 GPA. Since then she has been working as a bank teller in the city. Last year, she went back to school to obtain her M.S. in Finance and will graduate in the upcoming spring. A letter of recommendation for Wendy describes her as "very sure of herself" and "socially aggressive".

Please rate how likely you are to hire this candidate on a scale of 1-7

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

*Not at all likely*                      *Extremely likely*

Please rate on a scale of 1-7 how well you believe this candidate would fit in this position.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

*Poor fit*   *Great fit*

Please explain your decision.





unfair. Think about the emotions that you felt when this happened. Now imagine it happening to any female loved ones in your life.

After reading about hiring discrimination, please go back and re-read the descriptions and re-evaluate the candidate.

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