

Attitudes Toward Nontraditional Others

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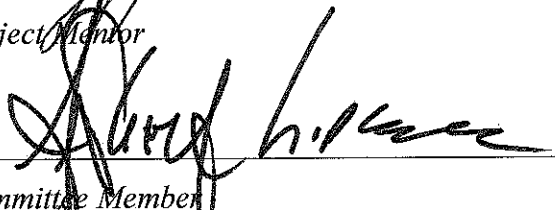
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Abstract

This study examined females' attitudes toward traditional-gender-role-stereotype-deviant individuals. The purpose of this study was to further investigate people's attitudes toward nontraditional individuals, and to measure the perceptions of stereotype-deviant individuals' levels of femininity, masculinity, fulfillment, happiness, successfulness, and acceptability. In order to test this, female undergraduates participated in an online survey designed to measure these opinions. The results of this study suggested that traditional females and nontraditional males are viewed as less masculine than traditional males and nontraditional females, respectively. However, both traditional and nontraditional females are regarded as more feminine than traditional and nontraditional males, respectively. In addition, the results suggested that traditional females and nontraditional males are perceived to be less fulfilled, happy, and successful than traditional males and nontraditional females. Additionally, the results suggested that people view stereotype-following individuals as exhibiting less acceptable behaviors than stereotype-deviant individuals, regardless of gender. Based on these findings, it is suggested that being a woman is intrinsically tied with perceived femininity; male-typed characteristics positively influence one's perceived levels of fulfillment, happiness, and acceptability; and people consider the behaviors of nontraditional individuals more acceptable than those of traditional individuals.

Throughout time, there have been countless restrictions, expectations, and stereotypes that have dictated how individuals present their gender in a “socially acceptable” manner. To name a few, some of today’s social standards that dictate how men “should” act include refraining from intimate expression (Gaia, 2013), being dominant (Ritter & Yoder, 2004), self-reliant, tough/violent, and having a high sex drive (Rummell & Levant, 2014). Women, however, are stereotyped as nurturing, physically attractive, unassertive, and emotional (Efthim, Kenny, & Mahalik, 2001). Differences between how men and women are expected to act in everyday life are so conditioned to meet these gender stereotypes that anthropologist Emily Martin (1991) even noted how gender inequalities and stereotypes bleed into the world of science—explaining how the sperm is often personified as a brave, masculine hero, while the egg is described as submissive and docile. In order to better understand the impacts gender role stereotypes have on this society, it is necessary to evaluate when and how these stereotypes are taught, the effects on and outside perceptions of the individuals who deviate from these stereotypes, and motivations for the continuation of stereotype-abiding behaviors.

Referencing Martin’s (1991) review, if such biased academic perceptions are unconsciously taught to children—not to mention the everyday reinforced gender stereotypes they witness in the media—one would expect gender biases to develop early in life. Interestingly, most children are typecast to match their gender stereotypes the day they are born. In a study by Rubin, Provenzano, and Luria (1974), new parents (within 24 hours of their child’s birth), were interviewed about their new child. The results of these interviews showed that parents described daughters as significantly softer, littler, finer-featured, and more inattentive than sons. It appears that before children have a chance to freely express themselves, they are described to fit previously established role norms. With this description being made within 24 hours of their

birth, it can be expected that parents will raise their children to fit their preconceived perceptions. In addition to parental influence on how a child learns and expresses gender normativity in the home, children are also subtly exposed to traditional standards via more traditional means of learning.

One common mean by which children are taught gender-role norms in both the home and religion is with children's books. Although a useful tool in helping children learn how to read, children's books also serve the purpose of teaching children the distinctions between how men and women behave in society. For example, in one study of parental figures in children's books, researchers Anderson and Hamilton (2005) analyzed a large representative sample of 200 children's books that were either showcased as Caldecott Medal winners, Honor Books, or praised by critics like *New York Times*, Barnes and Nobel, and *Publishers Weekly*. Anderson and Hamilton found that father figures were significantly underrepresented, unaffectionate, and absent in terms of feeding, carrying babies, and communicating with children. Mothers, on the other hand, were portrayed as caring nurturers, emotional, and had a stronger presence in the lives of their children. The results of this study show how children begin to set up stereotypes for what it means to be a father versus a mother simply by reading gender stereotypical portrayals before bedtime. This could not only affect what children come to expect from each of their parents, but—if used as a reference—may also affect how new parents come to establish their parental role. While the aforementioned study contained a large number of secular books to generalize their findings, it is also important to note how religion-centered children's books play a role in typecasting people into gender-specific roles.

Many religious children's books are aimed not only at teaching children the history of the religion itself, but they also serve as examples for how men and women are supposed to behave

according to their religious affiliation. In particular, a study by Sigalow and Fox (2014) looked at the extent to which Jewish children's books perpetuate gender stereotypes in both the home and religious life. According to Sigalow and Fox's findings, women were represented as more of a "domestic" Judaism, performing household tasks such as raising children, cleaning the house, and silently and devotedly completing Jewish rituals within the home. Men, however, were depicted as holding positions of religious power and privilege outside of the home, often times earning them prestige and honor for their public shows of religion. The content of Jewish children's books, then, are consistent with the already established stereotypes for men to act as strong public figures and women as docile and subordinate homemakers. The authors of this study noted that because the books they utilized for their study were written and produced for American Jewish children, the portrayals within them should be looked at as both a reflection of religious traditions and American gender standards. This note does not discount religion as a motivator for perpetuating stereotypes, but instead signifies just how impactful social stereotypes are across various aspects of life (including—but not limited to—modern religious teachings). In fact, religion and society seem inextricably linked in the perpetuation of gender stereotypes.

To further this point, Morgan (1987) studied the relationship between religious devotedness and gender-role attitudes among college females. In her study, Morgan found that the more devout a woman ranked herself, the more likely she would be to prefer traditional gender roles, including the different hands men and women played in familial roles and extrafamilial roles, as well as the appropriate level of assertiveness for men versus women. Although traditional gender roles are introduced in the forms of religious teachings and children's texts, it is important to address areas that maintain these stereotypes through adulthood.

Studies have shown that not only do children possess gender biases, but their biases develop and gain strength over time. In their study regarding child and adolescent perceptions of gender inequality, researchers Neff, Cooper, and Woodruff (2007) found that as children's age increases, so do their perceptions of male dominance. Specifically, the older adolescents and undergraduates in this study believed that men held more power and had higher status in politics and business than women. Based on the evidence this study provides, it appears as though an individual's opinions regarding the existence of gender inequality increase as they are exposed to more of the real world with age—perhaps reflecting their own experiences with gender inequality. Not only do people witness these stereotypes firsthand, but they often seek out media that showcases and promotes gender differences.

While people recently seem to have more positive contact with nontraditional gender roles via the media, the media continues to showcase traditional roles, perpetuating stereotypical standards. In one study looking at these effects in magazine articles, researchers Ménard and Kleinplatz (2008) found that sex columns in both male and female magazines (i.e., *Men's Health*, *Cosmopolitan*, etc.) reinforce traditional gender roles. Specifically, there was a prominent theme of women being portrayed as subservient to men in the bedroom, participating in sex solely for the man's benefit, and desiring romance and love over sex itself. Men, in comparison, were depicted as having aggressive and animalistic sex drives, which could universally be tamed with the realization of stereotypical male fantasies (i.e., threesomes). Magazines like *Cosmopolitan* pride themselves for promoting liberation of traditional gender roles, but when they write contradictory sex columns, a disconnect forms between their intent and their actual message.

In addition to magazine portrayals of gender stereotypes, television programs are another source of media-driven gender roles. For example, after conducting a comprehensive television

program review, Glascock (2001) found significant discrepancies between male and female characters. Glascock's findings included that male characters were more likely to have positions of power (i.e., being the boss), while female characters were often depicted as having a lower-status job. Furthermore, female characters were often portrayed as younger and more provocatively clothed than their male counterparts. Overall, media outposts (i.e., magazines, television shows, etc.), while beginning to alter their platforms towards nonconformity, continue to send messages of traditional male and female gender roles. After discussing the various sources of exposure to gender stereotypes in our society, one should examine the impact these stereotypes have on the people that follow them.

While some people support teaching children to act certain ways based on their sex, there is evidence suggesting that such restrictive behaviors and ideals can negatively impact boys and girls. For example, a study by Thomas, Ricciardelli, and Williams (2000) found that children who expressed higher levels of femininity were more likely to experience an eating disorder. Due to this finding, children who feel pressured to conform to feminine standards are more likely to put their health at risk to measure up to what they are shown in the media. While some may argue that this is a result of childhood naiveté, Good and Sanchez (2010) have shown a negative correlation between pressures to conform and self-esteem in adult participants. In their research, Good and Sanchez discovered that when individuals obey their gender stereotypes due to an outside pressure to conform (i.e., acting a certain way because people expect certain behaviors from men and women), their self-esteem suffers. It would seem, then, that the answer to the adverse impact of stereotype conformity would be for individuals to abstain from following what they have been taught and to break the norms for their gender.

In fact, this possibility seems to be becoming more obtainable starting at a young age with the creation of children's books that contest the traditional roles of males and females portrayed in typical children's literature. Although there seems to be a disproportionate number of stereotype-promoting children's books, there are also children's books that present gender atypical characters and situations. Scholars Abad and Pruden (2013) investigated the impact of these books on children's overall sense of conformity. After examining the findings of several studies, Abad and Pruden concluded that when children's books have atypical gender roles (i.e., a female character playing with a toy truck), the children reading them are not only more accepting of nontraditional roles, but they also perform the atypical roles themselves (i.e., a female child playing with toy trucks). Based on this information, it appears that children's books have the capacity to change stereotypic thinking in children—but it is up to open-minded creators to start that change. Until the market of children's books is dominated by atypical characters, children will predominately relate to the available stereotypical male and female characters. Exposure to new materials that show children that they can express gender atypical traits are important not only to promote acceptance of the concept of nonconformity, but also to promote self-acceptance.

Referencing back to the Thomas, et al. (2000) study, in contrast to the children who expressed high levels of femininity, female children who rated themselves as both masculine and feminine expressed less body dissatisfaction. These findings indicate that when children are able to relate to both masculine and feminine traits—without being restricted to one—they are more likely to feel comfortable in their body. This evidence suggests that one of the benefits of being able to express characteristics outside of strict gender role norms includes safety from self-

deprecation. Children are not the only group to benefit from nonconformity, however, as several studies have suggested positive outcomes for adults who go beyond their traditional gender roles.

In regards to gender stereotypes in business, researchers Kunkel, Dennis, and Waters (2003) conducted a study in which they measured perceived similarities and differences between male and female CEOs. Compared to the results of this topic from reports in the 1970s, the researchers found that the differences between ratings of what made successful male and female CEOs decreased over time. This finding shows that, as time goes on, the gap between how people categorize a successful businessperson becomes less about gender roles, and more about characteristics pertaining to the position itself. These findings are likely a result of the fact that more women (although still disproportionately represented) are obtaining higher employment positions, which breaks traditional gender-role norms. Similar to the findings of Morgan's (1987) study, as more people are exposed to nontraditional experiences, the strength of stereotypical judgments decreases. While Kunkel et al. (2003) and Morgan (1987) studies have focused on the relationship between increased experience with females breaking employment norms and decreased gender stereotypes, it is also important to discuss how exposure to other nontraditional gender roles have impacted attitudes.

Beyond changes in traditional employment, gender deviance over time has also been portrayed by people who break traditional sexuality roles. For example, a study by Newman (2007) indicated that college students in 2001 possessed more accepting attitudes towards lesbians than did college students in 1985. Highly predicted by an exposure to media and homosexual education, the findings of Newman's study suggest that gender stereotype deviance is generally more accepted once people are exposed to individuals who break gender norms. This again acts as an example of familiarity bridging the gap between nonconformity and

acceptability. This is particularly intriguing based on current events in the United States that have brought freedom of gender expression to the forefront of people's minds—notably, the public transformation of former Olympic athlete from male Bruce Jenner to female Caitlyn Jenner, and the Supreme Court's passing of marriage equality. Both of these accounts have been portrayed widely across countless media platforms, exposing more people to nontraditional gender and sexuality roles. Interestingly, some evidence even suggests that nontraditional sexuality may increase one's perceived acceptability in society.

In their study on susceptibility of negative stereotype activation, Nielich, Steffens, Krause, Settke, and Ebert (2015) found that lesbians evoke a different response than heterosexual women when leading more traditional roles. Specifically, this study found that raters evaluate heterosexual women as less competent during a job interview when they informed the interviewer that they moved to improve their partner's job opportunities, compared to lesbians who gave the same response. Although sexual orientation is now largely believed to be innate, lesbians seem to have an imbalanced advantage over heterosexual women when they perform the same traditional female role. It remains to be seen whether one's preferred attitudes towards the lesbians in this study are a result of lesbians' nontraditional sexual orientation, or the fact that a lesbian is not meeting the classic traditional stereotype of moving for a man's benefit. However, this study still shows some social benefit involving their nontraditional status. While there is evidence for the negative impact of gender role conformity, there is also evidence pointing to negative repercussions when people break the traditional gender molds.

Although research has shown a trend in increasing acceptability of gender stereotype deviance, research has also shown a tendency for individuals to internalize feelings of shame and guilt in relation to not meeting the norm for their gender (i.e., women are more likely to feel

shame when they are emotionally detached) (Efthim, 2001). In fact, Ritter and Yoder (2004) found that when dominant women were paired with less dominant men, the women appointed their submissive male counterparts to the leader position during a masculine-typed or neutral paired task, appearing to relinquish their gender deviant dominance to a man. Why, if people are evolving to see beyond stereotypes, are individuals shame-prone and resistant to breaking the norms for themselves?

One explanation of this phenomenon may be that although there has been a positive shift towards promoting explicit acceptance for nontraditional lifestyles, some lingering implicit attitudes for tradition remain. In their study of gendered salary differences from automatic stereotypes, researchers Williams, Paluck, and Spencer-Rodgers (2010) found that people still think men should earn higher wages than women for doing the same job. This team of researchers measured implicit attitudes towards men and women after developing four IATs, in which they paired male and female words to wealth-, status-, competence-, and deservedness-related words. The results of these IATs showed that participants responded significantly faster when pairing male words (compared to female words) to wealth-related and competence-related words. After running a regression analysis, it was also found that performance on the wealth-related gender IAT significantly influenced salary estimates—specifically, the faster the participants matched male words and wealth-related words, the higher they predicted the salary of men relative to women. The findings of this study suggest that even if people are making a conscious effort to be more progressive in terms of their gender-related attitudes, implicit attitudes may still affect their judgment on what men and women deserve. In addition to having implicit stereotype-positive attitudes regarding wages for men and women, other studies expand on attitudes towards gender, parenthood, and the workplace.

In their study of parents in the workplace, Fuegen, Biernat, Haines, and Deaux (2004) found significant differences between the perception of mothers and fathers. While the results suggested that both mothers and fathers are rated as less committed to their work and less agentic (aggressive, dominant, intelligent, etc.) than non-parents and what participants deemed their “ideal” worker, there was a significant difference between how lenient one would be for mothers versus fathers. Although non-parents were held at the same standards regardless of their gender, mothers were held to higher standards than fathers. Further, fathers were held with lower standards than both non-parent males and participants’ ideal worker. In relation to hiring and promotion, it was found that being a mother was disadvantageous, whereas being a father had no effect. This finding is especially problematic for women in the workplace, because according to the Women’s Bureau of the United States Department of Labor (2012), the number of women participating in the labor force has significantly increased from 1963 (with 38% participation) to 2012 (with 58% participation), with a 30% increase of workforce participation over those years by mothers alone. So, if the percentage of female employees (particularly mothers) continues to climb, more women may fall subject to workplace prejudice.

Another study by Heilman and Okimoto (2008) showed similar results as the Fuegen et al. (2004) study, in regard to parent versus non-parent, and mother versus father. In their study, both mothers and fathers were rated as less committed to their job, less likely to strive for achievement, and less dependable in the workplace than nonparents. While these effects were seen for parents regardless of gender, mothers were especially more likely to have lower competence and agentic ratings than fathers and non-parents, which in turn made participants less likely to recommend mothers for potential job screenings. Overall, while both mothers and fathers are viewed as less committed, agentic, and dependable, only being a mother was

detrimental to one's workplace experience. These findings suggest that when women break their stereotypical role of being a homemaker (Sigalow & Fox, 2014; Morgan, 1987; Mottarella, Fritzsche, Whitten, & Bedsole, 2009) and join the workforce, they are looked down upon and discriminated against.

While it has been discussed that assuming nontraditional gender roles may actually benefit women (with the exception of mothers in the workplace), one study has furthered the discussion of male stereotype deviance in the workplace, showing that such nonconformity may be harmful for men. Researchers Moss-Racusin, Phelan, and Rudman (2010) investigated this phenomenon in a study measuring ratings of modest men in job interviews. In their study, participants viewed four confederates in a job interview setting and rated them on competence, hirability, and how much the participant liked the interviewee. When viewing a modest male confederate, participants rated them as having low status, and expressing weakness and uncertainty. Modest women, in comparison, were not penalized for their modesty—perhaps because modesty is a traditional female feature. These findings suggest that when men break gender role norms (in this case, confidence and ambition), it does not bode well for them.

Furthering the persistence of male conformity to masculine gender roles, Bradley (2012) showed the consequences of stereotype deviance in pop culture. Specifically, Bradley evaluated the television show *Two and a Half Men*, in which he analyzed the behaviors of the two main male characters, Charlie and Alan. While Charlie is depicted as a “man's man” (through his ability to have sex with numerous women, remain emotionless, and have success in his career), Alan is portrayed as effeminate (not possessing any of the aforementioned qualities) and is frequently ridiculed by the masculine Charlie. This example shows that the consequence for heteronormative deviance by men often leads to shaming the transgressor. Because this portrayal

is popular in the media, it can be argued that individuals who watch stereotype-positive shows are subject to learning how to treat stereotype-deviant others through televised depictions. Due to findings such as this, it becomes clear why men may not be as receptive to societal change as women—they do not reap the same benefits as women for expressing nontraditional characteristics. It is important to note that this phenomenon seems more prevalent in nontraditional men than nontraditional women, a finding that in itself exemplifies gender stereotypes. Although the aforementioned studies show that men may experience backlash for accepting nontraditional gender roles (which may explain why men are not as commonly accepting of gender-role changes for themselves), one must keep in mind that not all women are receptive to changing their traditional social roles either.

Another explanation of why not all people have adopted nontraditional gender roles during a nontraditional revolution may be that lingering negative conceptions about gender deviance elicit feelings of conformity among men and women. To illustrate this concept, researchers Roy, Weibust, and Miller (2007) studied the impact of the portrayal of feminism on women's self-acceptance of the feminist title. They found that women were more likely to identify as a feminist after reading positive stereotypes for feminism, and less likely to identify as a feminist after reading negative stereotypes against feminism. In summary, when exposed to negativity in relation to nontraditional social changes, people are less likely to express attitudes accepting of those changes, perhaps avoiding potential backlash. The results of this study may be applied beyond feminism to help explain what maintains conformity to one's gender stereotypes.

Overall, after reviewing the complexities of gender role stereotypes and their impact on individuals in this society and the society as a whole, it is still not perfectly clear how much progress Western society has made in terms of accepting stereotype-deviant individuals (i.e.,

some nontraditional individuals are celebrated, while others are not). The purpose of this study is to further investigate people's attitudes toward these nontraditional individuals and clear some of the confusion. Specifically, it is hypothesized that individuals view those who deviate from their stereotypical male or female role as less fulfilled, happy, successful, and acceptable compared to their stereotype-following counterparts. This study was also intended to examine whether the ratings of nontraditional others on levels of femininity and masculinity are significantly different than for traditional individuals. It was hypothesized that traditional women and nontraditional men are viewed as more feminine than traditional men and nontraditional women, respectively. Also, the research of this study hypothesized that traditional men and nontraditional women are viewed as more masculine than traditional women and nontraditional men, respectively. Additionally, the researcher also wanted to see if being presented with a stereotypical gender role prompt had any influence on ratings of fulfillment, happiness, successfulness, and acceptability. So, the final hypothesis was that participants who are prompted to think about the stereotypes of females or males will rate nontraditional others as less fulfilled, happy, successful, and acceptable than the traditional individuals, compared to unprompted participants. If the results of this study match the aforementioned hypotheses, it will provide a crucial insight to the process of understanding stereotypes.

Method

Participants

A total of 142 female Northern Kentucky University students participated in this study. Participants were recruited through SONA, an online experiment participation database leased by the university's Department of Psychological Science. The age of participants ranged from 18 to 66 years ($M = 20.28$, $SD = 5.10$). Out of the 142 participants, the majority identified as single

(93%), while nine (6.3%) were either married or in a domestic partnership, and one participant (0.7%) was either divorced or separated. In relation to sexual identity, the majority of participants identified as heterosexual (90.1%). The remaining women identified as bisexual (4.9%), homosexual (2.1%), or identified with another sexuality (2.8%). With respect to religious affiliation, the majority of participants identified as Christian (66.2%). The remaining participants identified as being non-religious (26.8%), or recognized Islam (0.7%), Atheism (2.1%), or another religious affiliation (4.2%). With respect to college standing, the majority of participants were freshman (57%), although several participants held sophomore (13.4%), junior (10.6%), or senior (14.8%) standing. Additionally, six participants (4.2%) identified as something other than a freshman, sophomore, junior, or senior (i.e., high school student taking dual credit through the university).

Materials

Two prompts were used in this study—one describing traditional female roles, and the other discussing traditional male roles. In addition to these leading prompts, there were also four reading selections—each portraying either a traditional female, nontraditional female, traditional male, or nontraditional male. Once participants read their randomized reading selections, they completed a brief questionnaire. The questionnaire included several Likert scales, with prompts such as “How emotional is [male or female portrayed in their reading material] on a scale from 1 (non-emotional) to 5 (emotional)?,” “How strong is [male or female portrayed in their reading material] on a scale from 1 (weak) to 5 (strong)?,” etc. In total, the questions asked covered the attributes of dependence, emotionality, rebelliousness, tough-skin, sexual aggression, strength, confidence, aggression, experience, acceptance, and nurturance. Also, participants were asked to rate their character’s levels of femininity and masculinity, as well as indicate how fulfilled,

successful, and happy they presumed their character to be. Finally, participants were asked to rate how acceptable their character's behavior was on a scale from 1 (not acceptable at all) to 5 (completely acceptable). See Appendix for complete reading and questionnaire material.

Procedure

Participants signed up for this study through SONA, an online experiment management system leased by NKU's Department of Psychological Science. Once participants signed up for this study through SONA, they were directed to [surveymonkey.com](https://www.surveymonkey.com), through which they were able to access and complete the survey itself. After agreeing to the informed consent, participants were randomly assigned to one of eight possible experimental conditions, which include the following: prompted, traditional, female/ prompted, nontraditional, female/ unprompted, traditional, female/ unprompted, nontraditional, female/ prompted, traditional, male/ prompted, nontraditional, male/ unprompted, traditional, male/ and unprompted, nontraditional, male. Each character description was coded as either traditional or nontraditional based on whether the character's gender matched their respective stereotypes. For instance, a female character description was coded as traditional if the character description depicted a woman who portrayed stereotypically female attributes. Furthermore, a female character description was coded as being nontraditional if the character description depicted a woman who portrayed stereotypically male attributes.

In the prompted conditions, participants read a brief passage that detailed the traditional stereotypes of either a female or a male. Then, after reading a prompt, participants in the prompted conditions read another brief paragraph that described either a traditional female character (a woman who portrayed stereotypical female characteristics), a nontraditional female character (a woman who portrayed stereotypically male characteristics), a traditional male

character (a man who portrayed stereotypically male traits), or a nontraditional male character (a man who portrayed stereotypically female traits). If participants were in the unprompted condition, they began reading one of the abovementioned character descriptions right after agreeing to the informed consent. Due to this set-up, the unprompted participants were not exposed to either the traditional female or traditional male prompt previously described. All participants, regardless of condition, completed a questionnaire following the character descriptions. Overall, the completion of the survey took no more than 30 minutes.

Statistical Analysis

A 2 (prompted v. unprompted) X 2 (traditional v. nontraditional) X 2 (female v. male) ANOVA was run for each of the 17 attributes. Each attribute was rated on a five point Likert scale. See Appendix.

Results

Main Effects

Prompted v. unprompted

One-way ANOVAs were conducted to evaluate the relationship between the prompted v. unprompted condition and attribute ratings. The main effects of prompting on all of the dependent variables showed non-significance. See Table 1.

Traditional v. nontraditional

One-way ANOVAs were conducted to evaluate the relationship between the traditional v. nontraditional condition and attribute ratings. The main effects of traditional v. nontraditional roles were significant for the attributes of dependence, femininity, and acceptability. Ratings of dependence were significantly higher for traditional individuals ($M = 3.38$, $SD = 1.54$) than nontraditional individuals ($M = 2.80$, $SD = 1.66$), $t(140) =$

2.15, $p = .03$. Ratings of femininity were approaching significance, with traditional individuals ($M = 2.75$, $SD = 1.23$) being rated as less feminine than nontraditional individuals ($M = 3.13$, $SD = 1.12$), $t(140) = -1.93$, $p = .056$. Ratings of acceptability were significantly lower for traditional individuals ($M = 3.03$, $SD = 1.04$) than nontraditional individuals ($M = 3.77$, $SD = 1.20$), $t(140) = -3.96$, $p < .0001$. The remaining attributes did not have significant main effects. See Table 2.

Female v. male

One-way ANOVAs were conducted to evaluate the relationship between the female v. male condition and attribute ratings. The main effects of female v. male roles were significant for the attributes of femininity and masculinity. Because the ANOVA was significant follow-up simple main effects analyses using independent-samples t tests were conducted. The results of the independent-samples t tests showed that ratings of femininity were significantly higher for females ($M = 3.52$, $SD = .95$) than males ($M = 2.35$, $SD = 1.11$), $t(140) = 6.73$, $p < .0001$. Additionally, the results of the independent-samples t tests showed that ratings of masculinity were significantly lower for females ($M = 2.04$, $SD = .98$) than males ($M = 3.28$, $SD = 1.00$), $t(140) = -7.46$, $p < .0001$. The remaining attributes did not have significant main effects. See Table 3.

Two-Way Interactions

Prompted v. unprompted and traditional v. nontraditional

A two-way ANOVA was conducted to evaluate the relationship between prompted v. unprompted and traditional v. nontraditional conditions on attribute ratings. There were no significant two-way interactions between the prompted v. unprompted and traditional v. nontraditional conditions for the attributes of dependence, ($F(7, 134) = 1.90$,

$p = .17$), emotionality ($F(7, 134) = .20, p = .66$), rebelliousness ($F(7, 134) = .52, p = .47$), sexual aggression ($F(7, 134) = .26, p = .61$), strength ($F(7, 134) = 1.53, p = .22$), tough-skin ($F(7, 134) = .98, p = .32$), self-confidence ($F(7, 134) = .97, p = .33$), aggression ($F(7, 134) = 2.14, p = .15$), experience ($F(7, 134) = .09, p = .77$), acceptance ($F(7, 134) = .18, p = .68$), nurturance ($F(7, 134) = .36, p = .55$), femininity ($F(7, 134) = .26, p = .61$), masculinity ($F(7, 134) = .32, p = .57$), fulfillment ($F(7, 134) = .01, p = .94$), happiness ($F(7, 134) = .01, p = .92$), successfulness ($F(7, 134) = .04, p = .85$), and acceptability ($F(7, 134) = .02, p = .90$).

Prompted v. unprompted and female v. male

A two-way ANOVA was conducted to evaluate the relationship between prompted v. unprompted and female v. male conditions on attribute ratings. The result of the ANOVA indicated a significant interaction between the prompted v. unprompted and female v. male conditions for the attribute of acceptance, $F(7, 134) = .4.71, p = .03$. Because the ANOVA was significant, simple main effects analyses using independent-samples t tests split by prompted v. unprompted condition were conducted. The results of the independent-samples t tests showed that ratings of acceptance were not significantly different for prompted females ($M = 3.31, SD = 1.11$) than prompted males ($M = 3.53, SD = 1.24$), $t(67) = -.76, p = .45$. However, the results of the independent-samples t test showed that ratings of acceptance were significantly higher for unprompted females ($M = 3.69, SD = .92$) than unprompted males ($M = 3.19, SD = 1.24$), $t(71) = 1.97, p = .05$. See Figure 1.

There were no significant two-way interactions between the prompted v. unprompted and female v. male conditions for the remaining attributes of dependence

($F(7, 134) = .13, p = .72$), emotionality ($F(7, 134) = .03, p = .86$), rebelliousness ($F(7, 134) = .03, p = .87$), sexual aggression ($F(7, 134) = .34, p = .56$), strength ($F(7, 134) = .001, p = .98$), tough-skin ($F(7, 134) = .42, p = .52$), self-confidence ($F(7, 134) = .17, p = .68$), aggression ($F(7, 134) = .24, p = .63$), experience ($F(7, 134) = 1.13, p = .29$), nurturance ($F(7, 134) = .26, p = .61$), femininity ($F(7, 134) = .23, p = .63$), masculinity ($F(7, 134) = .22, p = .64$), fulfillment ($F(7, 134) = .13, p = .72$), happiness ($F(7, 134) = 1.01, p = .32$), successfulness ($F(7, 134) = .72, p = .40$), and acceptability ($F(7, 134) = 3.31, p = .07$).

Traditional v. nontraditional and female v. male

A two-way ANOVA was conducted to evaluate the relationship between traditional v. nontraditional and female v. male conditions on attribute ratings. The result of the ANOVA indicated a significant interaction between the traditional v. nontraditional and female v. male conditions for the attributes of dependence ($F(7, 134) = 85.35, p < .0001$) (see Figure 2), emotionality ($F(7, 134) = 118.99, p < .0001$) (see Figure 3), rebelliousness ($F(7, 134) = 87.31, p < .0001$) (see Figure 4), sexual aggression ($F(7, 134) = 192.39, p < .0001$) (see Figure 5), strength ($F(7, 134) = 33.00, p < .0001$) (see Figure 6), tough-skin ($F(7, 134) = 143.88, p < .0001$) (see Figure 7), self-confidence ($F(7, 134) = 243.74, p < .0001$) (see Figure 8), aggression ($F(7, 134) = 268.83, p < .0001$) (see Figure 9), experience ($F(7, 134) = 93.99, p < .0001$) (see Figure 10), acceptance ($F(7, 134) = 54.61, p < .0001$) (see Figure 11), nurturance ($F(7, 134) = 196.84, p < .0001$) (see Figure 12), femininity ($F(7, 134) = 13.76, p < .0001$) (see Figure 13), masculinity ($F(7, 134) = 33.72, p < .0001$) (see Figure 14), fulfillment ($F(7, 134) = 13.21, p < .0001$) (see

Figure 15), happiness ($F(7, 134) = 6.32, p = .01$) (see Figure 16), and successfulness ($F(7, 134) = 64.23, p < .0001$) (see Figure 17).

Because these ANOVAs were significant, follow-up simple main effects analyses using independent-samples t tests split by the traditional v. nontraditional condition were conducted. Regarding the attributes of dependence, emotionality, acceptance, nurturance, and femininity the results of the independent-samples t tests showed significant simple main effects indicating that these ratings were significantly higher for traditional females than traditional males, and significantly lower for nontraditional females than nontraditional males. With respect to the attributes of rebelliousness, sexual aggression, strength, tough-skin, self-confidence, aggression, experience, fulfillment, and successfulness, the results of the independent-samples t tests showed significant simple main effects indicating that these ratings were significantly lower for traditional females than traditional males, and significantly higher for nontraditional females than nontraditional males. Additionally, the results of the independent-samples t tests for the attributes of masculinity and happiness showed significant simple main effects indicating that the traditional female rated significantly lower on masculinity and happiness than traditional men, while nontraditional females and nontraditional males did not significantly differ. See Tables 4 and 5.

There were no significant two-way interactions between the traditional v. nontraditional and female v. male conditions for the remaining attribute of acceptability ($F(7, 134) = .001, p = .98$).

Three-Way Interaction

A three-way ANOVA was conducted to evaluate the relationship between the prompted v. unprompted, traditional v. nontraditional, and female v. male conditions and attribute ratings. The results of the ANOVA indicated a significant interaction between the prompted v. unprompted, traditional v. nontraditional, and female v. male conditions for the attribute of rebelliousness. Because this finding was significant, two two-way ANOVAs split by female v. male were conducted to determine potential significance between the prompted v. unprompted and traditional v. nontraditional. The results of the two-way ANOVA regarding the female condition showed a nonsignificant interaction between the prompted v. unprompted and traditional v. nontraditional conditions ($F(3, 67) = 1.46, p = .23$). See Figure 18. However, the results of the two-way ANOVA regarding the male condition indicated a significant interaction between prompted v. unprompted and traditional v. nontraditional ($F(3, 67) = 5.00, p = .03$). See Figure 19. Because this ANOVA was significant, follow-up simple main effects analyses using independent-samples t tests split by the traditional v. nontraditional condition were conducted. However, upon analyzing the simple main effects, the results of the independent-samples t tests showed that ratings of rebelliousness were not significantly lower for prompted traditional males ($M = 2.53, SD = .74$) than unprompted traditional males ($M = 3.14, SD = 1.20$), $t(34) = -1.75, p = .09$, nor were the ratings of rebelliousness significantly higher for prompted nontraditional males ($M = 1.79, SD = .98$) than unprompted nontraditional males ($M = 1.38, SD = .72$), $t(33) = 1.41, p = .17$.

Additionally, the results of the three-way ANOVAs indicated a nonsignificant interaction between the prompted v. unprompted, traditional v. nontraditional, and female v. male conditions for the remaining attributes of dependence ($F(7, 134) = .06, p = .81$), emotionality ($F(7, 134) = .004, p = .95$), sexual aggression ($F(7, 134) = .16, p = .69$), strength ($F(7, 134) = 1.15, p = .29$),

tough-skin ($F(7, 134) = .51, p = .48$), self-confidence ($F(7, 134) = .48, p = .49$), aggressiveness ($F(7, 134) = .73, p = .39$), experience ($F(7, 134) = .001, p = .97$), acceptance ($F(7, 134) = .43, p = .51$), nurturance ($F(7, 134) = .11, p = .74$), femininity ($F(7, 134) = .56, p = .46$), masculinity ($F(7, 134) = .82, p = .37$), fulfillment ($F(7, 134) = .21, p = .65$), happiness ($F(7, 134) = .06, p = .80$), successfulness ($F(7, 134) = .60, p = .44$), and acceptability ($F(7, 134) < .0001, p = .98$).

Discussion

With regard to the character attribute ratings for dependence, emotionality, rebelliousness, tough-skin, sexual aggression, strength, confidence, aggression, experience, acceptance, and nurturance, the results showed that the characteristics were appropriately matched and interpreted for the intended traditional versus nontraditional male and female characters. Specifically, the findings that traditional women and nontraditional men were rated as being more dependent, emotional, accepting, and nurturing than traditional men and nontraditional women, respectively, reflects that those traits are more female stereotypes than male stereotypes. Additionally, the findings that the traditional male and nontraditional female characters were rated as being more rebellious, tough-skinned, sexually aggressive, strong, confident, aggressive, and experienced than the traditional female and nontraditional male characters, respectively, reflects the stereotypes that those qualities are typically more associated with men.

The findings of this study did not support the original hypothesis that nontraditional others would be viewed as less fulfilled, happy, successful, and acceptable than traditional men and women. Instead, the results of character fulfillment, happiness, and successfulness showed that traditional females are viewed as less fulfilled, happy, and successful than their traditional male counterparts. Additionally, nontraditional females are perceived as being more fulfilled and successful than nontraditional males. Regarding acceptability ratings, nontraditional others were

actually rated as exhibiting higher levels of acceptable behavior, which is completely contrary to the initial hypothesis.

Also, the findings of this study did not support the hypothesis that traditional women and nontraditional men would be viewed as more feminine than traditional men and nontraditional women, respectively. Instead, both traditional and nontraditional women were rated as being significantly more feminine than traditional men and nontraditional men, respectively. While both findings were significant, the significant two-way interaction between traditional versus nontraditional and female versus male indicated that the difference between traditional female versus traditional male was greater than the difference between nontraditional female versus nontraditional male. As well, the findings of this study partially supported the hypothesis that traditional men and nontraditional women would be viewed as more masculine than traditional women and nontraditional men, respectively. Specifically, the traditional female character was rated as being significantly less masculine than the traditional male character, while the nontraditional female and male characters' masculinity ratings did not significantly differ.

Finally, the findings of this study did not support the hypothesis that compared to unprompted participants, participants who are prompted to think about the stereotypes of females or males rate nontraditional others as less fulfilled, happy, successful, and acceptable than the traditional individuals. In fact, prompting had no effect on the measures of fulfillment, happiness, successfulness, and acceptability. While prompting did not have an effect on fulfillment, happiness, successfulness, and acceptability ratings, it did have an effect on acceptance. Specifically, unprompted females were significantly more accepting than unprompted males, while there was no significant difference in character acceptance between prompted females and prompted males.

Limitations

One of the main limitations of this study was that all of the participants were female. So, while this study reflects the attitudes of women towards traditional and nontraditional others, these findings cannot be generalized to reveal the opinions of both men and women. Additionally, the majority of participants were freshmen, single, heterosexual, and Christian. Due to these particular demographic majorities, we are unable to conclude if these results are applicable to a more diverse group of people.

Future Research

Based on the limitations of the current study, it would be beneficial to collect data from people of different sexuality, marital, and age groups. Additionally, future research should include male participants in the data collection process to determine if men rate traditional and nontraditional males and females differently than female participants. In addition to these changes, future studies should incorporate questions that ask the participant how they would rate themselves on the attribute measures. Lastly, future research should ask participants to identify the specific standards with which they determine whether someone is fulfilled, happy, and successful.

Implications

The femininity ratings in particular mirror the more recent feminist discussions about what it means to be a woman. Specifically, there is a push to broaden the definition of a female: No woman is either more or less of a woman if she stays at home or if she is a member of the workforce. Additionally, based on the larger gap between traditional and nontraditional males' ratings of femininity, it is suggested that current feminist declarations are not as focused on broadening the definition of male—a man is still viewed as more of a man if he is a member of

the workforce, and he is viewed as more effeminate if he stays at home. This finding is particularly interesting because, if the aforementioned reasoning is valid, the definition of woman (however broad it may be becoming) still seems to be intrinsically tied to the word “feminine.”

Overall, the results of fulfillment, happiness, and successfulness seem to indicate that people think individuals are more fulfilled, happy, and successful if they portray stereotypically male characteristics, compared to stereotypically female characteristics. These findings might reflect the push of the American dream, in which people are encouraged to work hard in order to obtain the life that they want. Traditionally, men were seen as the primary member of the workforce, but in accordance to the Women’s Bureau of the United States Department of Labor’s (2012) statistics, we have seen the emergence of more women taking on that role as well in recent decades. Since it has traditionally been the man who has been portrayed as the one working towards the American dream, it would make sense that male characteristics would positively influence fulfillment, happiness, and successfulness ratings.

Finally, while it is a good sign that we are making progress by accepting people who deviate from traditional male and female roles, as a society, we still need to work on accepting people regardless of whether they follow traditional or nontraditional roles. Additionally, we might want to reevaluate how we determine whether someone is fulfilled, successful, and happy. As outsiders, we may be imposing our standards for these qualities on others, while different people measure their degree of fulfillment, happiness, and successfulness with different standards. If we are to keep progressing towards accepting individual differences, we should continue to listen and respect the various opinions of everyone, and be receptive to broadening our own standards.

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Appendix

Historically, the prototypical woman is often described as soft and sensitive. She is flirtatious while remaining innocent, passive, and sexually submissive. Although she can be emotional to the point of being self-critical, she is accepting and warm towards others, which reflects her role as a nurturer. To match her quiet and graceful demeanor, she is set in a petite frame. Because of such a slight frame, she is generally considered physically weak, and thus is dependent on someone with strength.

Mary is a 30-year-old stay-at-home mother of two young children. Mary not only takes care of her children on a daily basis, but she is known as the neighborhood nurturer—the other mothers of the neighborhood often come to Mary for guidance and emotional support. Even when she is busy, she finds time to help these women feel better about themselves. She married her high-school sweetheart when they were 18 years old. When she met her husband, he was the star athlete and valedictorian of their class. She was shocked that he fell for her, considering that she was relatively weak and not as smart in comparison. Over time, his strengths came to her advantage, as she was able to rely on him for financial dependence—he was able to make her feel safe. They decided to get married because he was who took her virginity, and she wanted him to be the only person with whom she would sleep. Whenever she wants to engage in sexual behavior, she sends subtle hints by flirting with him the same way she did in high school, but she always leaves it up to him to initiate anything. When her passive advances are not answered, she usually begins doubting her sex appeal, criticizing her small frame for her husband's lack of attraction.

Mary is known by her graduating class as the youngest CEO of a major corporation. At 28 years old, she was promoted to CEO of a company that she had only worked for three years. Mary did not get this position by luck, however, as she is known as a shark in her field—she is extremely competitive and tough-skinned, which makes her a ballbuster in negotiating deals. On top of being hard in the office, she also displays her aggressiveness in her personal affairs. Mary is not shy around men, and uses her sexual dominance to her advantage—men are drawn to her self-confident demeanor. Because of her incredible performance in work and life, she has become accustomed to a certain amount of independence, with which she relies almost solely on herself.

How feminine is Mary on a scale from 1 (not feminine at all) to 5 (extremely feminine)?

Not feminine at all 1 2 3 4 5 Extremely feminine

How masculine is Mary on a scale from 1 (not masculine at all) to 5 (extremely masculine)?

Not masculine at all 1 2 3 4 5 Extremely masculine

How dependent is Mary on a scale from 1 (independent) to 5 (dependent)?

Independent 1 2 3 4 5 Dependent

How emotional is Mary on a scale from 1 (non-emotional) to 5 (emotional)?

Non-emotional 1 2 3 4 5 Emotional

How rebellious is Mary on a scale from 1 (not rebellious at all) to 5 (very rebellious)?

Not rebellious at all 1 2 3 4 5 Rebellious

How sexually aggressive is Mary on a scale from 1 (sexually submissive) to 5 (sexually aggressive)?

Sexually submissive 1 2 3 4 5 Sexually aggressive

How strong is Mary on a scale from 1 (weak) to 5 (strong)?

Weak 1 2 3 4 5 Strong

How tough-skinned is Mary on a scale from 1 (sensitive) to 5 (tough-skinned)?

Sensitive 1 2 3 4 5 Tough-skinned

How confident is Mary on a scale from 1 (self-critical) to 5 (self-confident)?

Self-critical 1 2 3 4 5 Self-confident

How aggressive is Mary on a scale from 1 (passive) to 5 (aggressive)?

Passive 1 2 3 4 5 Aggressive

How experienced is Mary on a scale from 1 (innocent) to 5 (experienced)?

Innocent 1 2 3 4 5 Experienced

How accepting is Mary on a scale from 1 (non-accepting) to 5 (very accepting)?

Non-accepting 1 2 3 4 5 Very accepting

How nurturing is Mary on a scale from 1 (neglectful) to 5 (nurturing)?

Neglectful 1 2 3 4 5 Nurturing

How fulfilled is Mary on a scale from 1 (unfulfilled) to 5 (fulfilled)?

Unfulfilled 1 2 3 4 5 Fulfilled

How happy is Mary on a scale from 1 (unhappy) to 5 (happy)?

Unhappy 1 2 3 4 5 Happy

How successful is Mary on a scale from 1 (unsuccessful) to 5 (successful)?

Unsuccessful 1 2 3 4 5 Successful

How acceptable is Mary's behavior on a scale from 1 (not acceptable at all) to 5 (completely acceptable)?

Not acceptable at all 1 2 3 4 5 Completely acceptable

Historically, the prototypical man is often described as non-emotional to the point of being hard and tough-skinned. His aggressive demeanor is portrayed by his competitiveness and sexual assertiveness. He is physically strong and self-confident. His rebelliousness and independence have allowed him to live an active life marked by experience.

Benjamin is known by his graduating class as the youngest CEO of a major corporation. At 28 years old, he was promoted to CEO of a company that he had only worked for three years. Benjamin did not get this position by luck, however, as he is known as a shark in his field—he is extremely competitive and tough skinned, which makes him a ballbuster in negotiating deals. On top of being hard in the office, he also displays his aggressiveness in his personal affairs. Benjamin is not shy around women, and uses his sexual dominance to his advantage—women are drawn to his self-confident demeanor. Because of his incredible performance in work and life, he has become accustomed to a certain amount of independence, with which he relies almost solely on himself.

Benjamin is a 30-year-old stay-at-home father of two young children. Benjamin not only takes care of his children on a daily basis, but he is known as the neighborhood nurturer—the other fathers of the neighborhood often come to Benjamin for guidance and emotional support. Even when he is busy, he finds time to help these men feel better about themselves. He married his high-school sweetheart when they were 18 years old. When he met his wife, she was the star athlete and valedictorian of their class. He was shocked that she fell for him, considering that he was relatively weak and not as smart in comparison. Over time, her strengths came to his advantage, as he was able to rely on her for financial dependence—she was able to make him feel safe. They decided to get married because she was who took his virginity, and he wanted her to be the only person with whom he would sleep. Whenever he wants to engage in sexual behavior, he sends subtle hints by flirting with her the same way he did in high school, but he always leaves it up to her to initiate anything. When his passive advances are not answered, he usually begins doubting his sex appeal, criticizing his small frame for his wife's lack of attraction.

How feminine is Benjamin on a scale from 1 (not feminine at all) to 5 (extremely feminine)?

Not feminine at all 1 2 3 4 5 Extremely feminine

How masculine is Benjamin on a scale from 1 (not masculine at all) to 5 (extremely masculine)?

Not masculine at all 1 2 3 4 5 Extremely masculine

How dependent is Benjamin on a scale from 1 (independent) to 5 (dependent)?

Independent 1 2 3 4 5 Dependent

How emotional is Benjamin on a scale from 1 (non-emotional) to 5 (emotional)?

Non-emotional 1 2 3 4 5 Emotional

How rebellious is Benjamin on a scale from 1 (not rebellious at all) to 5 (very rebellious)?

Not rebellious at all 1 2 3 4 5 Rebellious

How sexually aggressive is Benjamin on a scale from 1 (sexually submissive) to 5 (sexually aggressive)?

Sexually submissive 1 2 3 4 5 Sexually aggressive

How strong is Benjamin on a scale from 1 (weak) to 5 (strong)?

Weak 1 2 3 4 5 Strong

How tough-skinned is Benjamin on a scale from 1 (sensitive) to 5 (tough-skinned)?

Sensitive 1 2 3 4 5 Tough-skinned

How confident is Benjamin on a scale from 1 (self-critical) to 5 (self-confident)?

Self-critical 1 2 3 4 5 Self-confident

How aggressive is Benjamin on a scale from 1 (passive) to 5 (aggressive)?

Passive 1 2 3 4 5 Aggressive

How experienced is Benjamin on a scale from 1 (innocent) to 5 (experienced)?

Innocent 1 2 3 4 5 Experienced

How accepting is Benjamin on a scale from 1 (non-accepting) to 5 (very accepting)?

Non-accepting 1 2 3 4 5 Very accepting

How nurturing is Benjamin on a scale from 1 (neglectful) to 5 (nurturing)?

Neglectful 1 2 3 4 5 Nurturing

How fulfilled is Benjamin on a scale from 1 (unfulfilled) to 5 (fulfilled)?

Unfulfilled 1 2 3 4 5 Fulfilled

How happy is Benjamin on a scale from 1 (unhappy) to 5 (happy)?

Unhappy 1 2 3 4 5 Happy

How successful is Benjamin on a scale from 1 (unsuccessful) to 5 (successful)?

Unsuccessful 1 2 3 4 5 Successful

How acceptable is Benjamin's behavior on a scale from 1 (not acceptable at all) to 5 (completely acceptable)?

Not acceptable at all 1 2 3 4 5 Completely acceptable

Table 1

Mean attribute ratings between prompted and unprompted conditions.

Attribute	Prompted	Unprompted	<i>F</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>
	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>			
Dependence	3.26 (1.65)	2.93 (1.59)	.04	1	.84
Emotionality	3.30 (1.15)	3.15 (1.18)	.21	1	.65
Rebelliousness	2.23 (1.14)	2.52 (1.32)	.19	1	.66
Sexual Aggression	2.61 (1.40)	3.10 (1.45)	1.38	1	.24
Strength	3.25 (1.21)	3.40 (1.22)	.00	1	.99
Tough-Skin	3.03 (1.38)	3.41 (1.35)	.43	1	.40
Self Confidence	2.94 (1.50)	3.37 (1.55)	.24	1	.62
Aggression	2.62 (1.45)	3.08 (1.40)	.85	1	.36
Experience	2.91 (1.34)	3.30 (1.21)	.91	1	.34
Acceptance	3.42 (1.17)	3.44 (1.12)	1.33	1	.25
Nurturance	3.75 (1.37)	3.49 (1.30)	.04	1	.85
Femininity	3.06 (1.17)	2.82 (1.19)	.70	1	.41
Masculinity	2.58 (1.23)	2.74 (1.11)	.02	1	.90
Fulfillment	3.10 (1.18)	3.40 (1.05)	1.16	1	.28
Happiness	3.20 (.99)	3.41 (.96)	.80	1	.37
Successfulness	3.71 (1.15)	3.82 (1.19)	.19	1	.67
Acceptability	3.52 (1.13)	3.29 (1.22)	1.63	1	.20

Table 2

Mean attribute ratings between traditional and nontraditional conditions.

Attribute	Traditional	Nontraditional	<i>F</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>
	<i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>)	<i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>)			
Dependence	3.38 (1.54)	2.80 (1.66)	7.24	1	.01
Emotionality	3.11 (1.10)	3.34 (1.22)	2.32	1	.13
Rebelliousness	2.25 (1.14)	2.51 (1.33)	2.59	1	.11
Sexual Aggression	3.00 (1.40)	2.72 (1.47)	3.61	1	.06
Strength	3.15 (1.06)	3.49 (1.33)	3.25	1	.07
Tough-Skin	3.08 (1.35)	3.37 (1.40)	2.49	1	.12
Self Confidence	3.08 (1.57)	3.24 (1.51)	1.08	1	.30
Aggression	2.86 (1.41)	2.86 (1.48)	.00	1	.98
Experience	3.11 (1.28)	3.11 (1.29)	.03	1	.87
Acceptance	3.32 (1.14)	3.54 (1.13)	.88	1	.35
Nurturance	3.54 (1.44)	3.70 (1.22)	1.10	1	.30
Femininity	2.75 (1.23)	3.13 (1.12)	4.63	1	.03
Masculinity	2.68 (1.26)	2.65 (1.07)	.00	1	.97
Fulfillment	3.18 (1.06)	3.32 (1.18)	.51	1	.48
Happiness	3.25 (.92)	3.37 (1.03)	.30	1	.59
Successfulness	3.72 (1.07)	3.82 (1.27)	.20	1	.66
Acceptability	3.03 (1.04)	3.77 (1.20)	13.42	1	.00

Table 3

Mean attribute ratings between female and male conditions.

Attribute	Female	Male	<i>F</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>
	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>			
Dependence	3.01 (1.80)	3.17 (1.43)	.25	1	.62
Emotionality	3.23 (1.06)	3.23 (1.27)	.00	1	.97
Rebelliousness	2.51 (1.31)	2.25 (1.17)	2.61	1	.11
Sexual Aggression	2.83 (1.38)	2.89 (1.50)	.17	1	.68
Strength	3.42 (1.32)	3.23 (1.10)	.73	1	.39
Tough-Skin	3.31 (1.47)	3.14 (1.28)	.77	1	.38
Self Confidence	3.07 (1.59)	3.25 (1.49)	1.72	1	.19
Aggression	2.87 (1.48)	2.85 (1.40)	.00	1	.99
Experience	3.15 (1.33)	3.07 (1.25)	.28	1	.60
Acceptance	3.51 (1.03)	3.35 (1.24)	.70	1	.40
Nurturance	3.73 (1.24)	3.51 (1.42)	2.03	1	.16
Femininity	3.52 (.95)	2.35 (1.11)	49.28	1	.00
Masculinity	2.04 (.98)	3.28 (1.00)	66.80	1	.00
Fulfillment	3.20 (1.05)	3.31 (1.19)	.41	1	.53
Happiness	3.23 (1.02)	3.39 (.93)	1.14	1	.29
Successfulness	3.89 (1.09)	3.65 (1.24)	1.94	1	.17
Acceptability	3.45 (1.18)	3.40 (1.18)	.14	1	.71

Table 4

Simple main effects results of attribute ratings between female and male in traditional condition.

Attribute	Female	Male	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>
	<i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>)	<i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>)			
Dependence	4.31 (1.13)	2.47 (1.34)	6.25	69	<.0001
Emotionality	3.91 (.66)	2.33 (.86)	8.67	69	<.0001
Rebelliousness	1.60 (.81)	2.89 (1.06)	-5.73	69	<.0001
Sexual Aggression	1.86 (.91)	4.11 (.75)	-11.40	69	<.0001
Strength	2.71 (1.10)	3.58 (.84)	-3.75	69	<.0001
Tough-Skin Self	2.17 (.99)	3.97 (1.03)	-7.54	69	<.0001
Confidence	1.74 (.74)	4.39 (.93)	-13.20	69	<.0001
Aggression	1.69 (.80)	4.00 (.79)	-12.27	69	<.0001
Experience	2.31 (1.13)	3.89 (.89)	-6.54	69	<.0001
Acceptance	4.00 (.87)	2.67 (.99)	6.02	69	<.0001
Nurturance*	4.69 (.63)	2.42 (1.08)	10.85	56.73	<.0001
Femininity	3.66 (.77)	1.86 (.90)	9.05	69	<.0001
Masculinity	1.60 (.65)	3.72 (.70)	-13.21	69	<.0001
Fulfillment	2.77 (.84)	3.58 (1.11)	-3.47	69	.001
Happiness	2.94 (.87)	3.56 (.88)	-2.95	69	.004
Successfulness	3.17 (.82)	4.25 (1.03)	-4.88	69	<.0001

*indicates *df* variability due to $p = .001$ for Levene's Test for Equality of Variances. *df* reflects equal variances not assumed.

Table 5

Simple main effects of attribute ratings between female and male in nontraditional condition.

Attribute	Female	Male	<i>t</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>
	<i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>)	<i>M</i> (<i>SD</i>)			
Dependence	1.75 (1.38)	3.89 (1.16)	-7.05	69	<.0001
Emotionality	2.56 (.94)	4.14 (.91)	-7.22	69	<.0001
Rebelliousness	3.39 (1.08)	1.60 (.88)	7.65	69	<.0001
Sexual	3.78 (1.07)	1.63 (.91)	9.09	69	<.0001
Aggression	4.11 (1.14)	2.86 (1.22)	4.48	69	<.0001
Strength	4.42 (.91)	2.29 (.89)	9.97	69	<.0001
Tough-Skin	4.36 (1.02)	2.09 (.95)	9.72	69	<.0001
Self	4.03 (1.00)	1.66 (.73)	11.41	69	<.0001
Confidence	3.97 (.94)	2.23 (.97)	7.68	69	<.0001
Aggression	3.03 (.94)	4.06 (1.08)	-4.27	67.10	<.0001
Experience	2.81 (.95)	4.63 (.65)	-9.43	69	<.0001
Nurturance	3.39 (1.10)	2.86 (1.09)	2.04	69	.045
Femininity	2.47 (1.06)	2.83 (1.07)	-1.41	69	.162
Masculinity	3.61 (1.08)	3.03 (1.22)	2.13	69	.037
Fulfillment	3.50 (1.08)	3.23 (.973)	1.11	69	.271
Happiness	4.58 (.84)	3.03 (1.15)	6.52	69	<.0001
Successfulness					

*indicates *df* variability due to $p = .04$ for Levene's Test for Equality of Variances. *df* reflects equal variances not assumed.

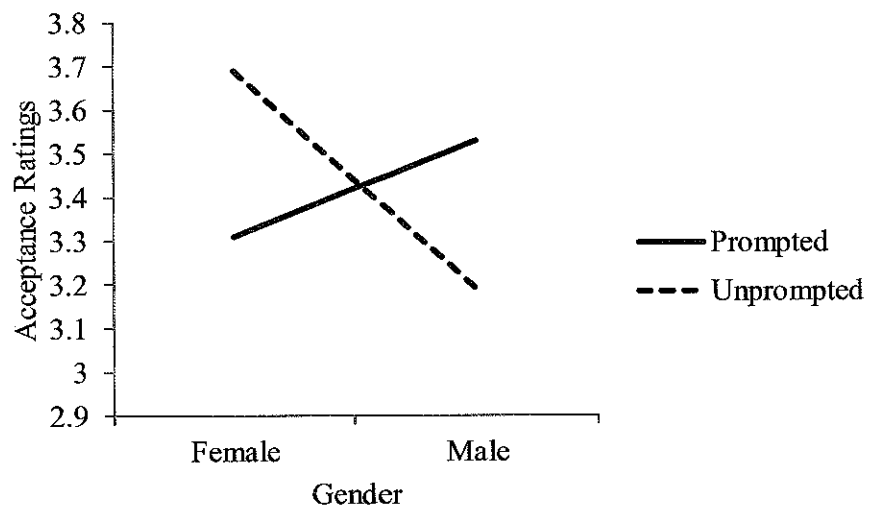


Figure 1: Mean ratings of acceptance across female v. male and prompted v. unprompted conditions.

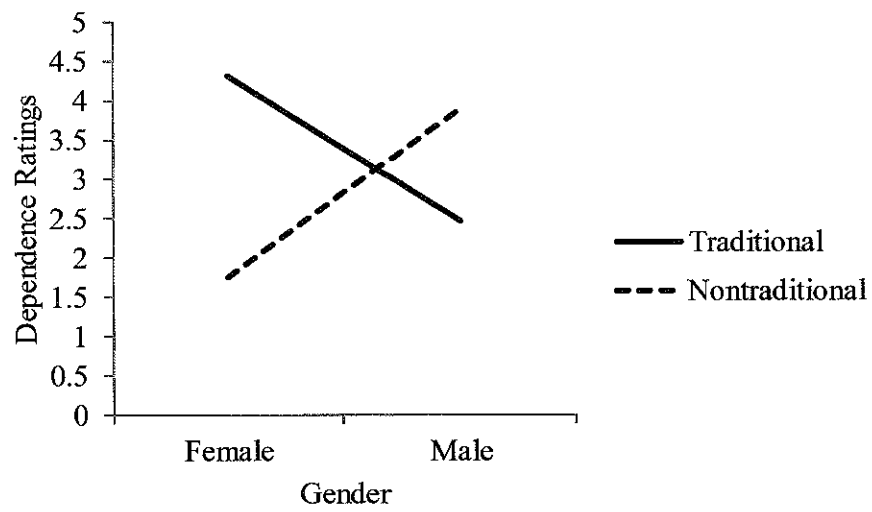


Figure 2. Mean ratings of dependence across female v. male and traditional v. nontraditional conditions.

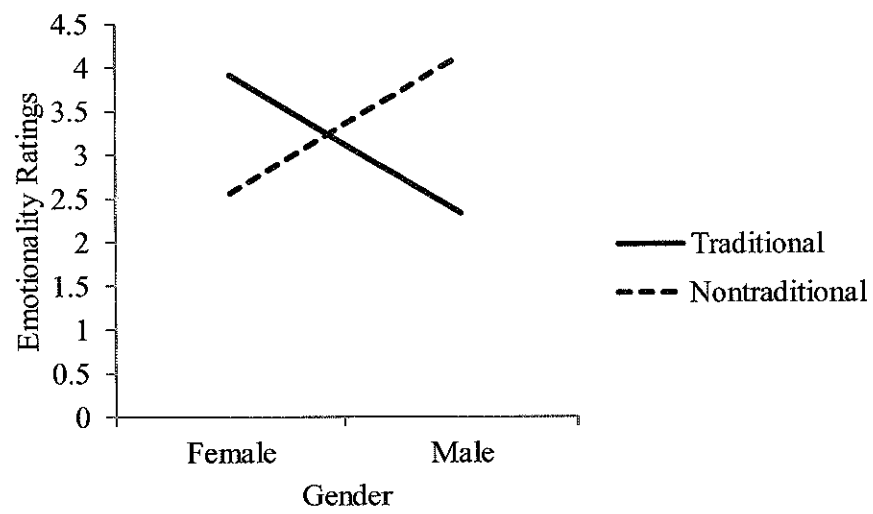


Figure 3: Mean ratings of emotionality across female v. male and traditional v. nontraditional conditions.

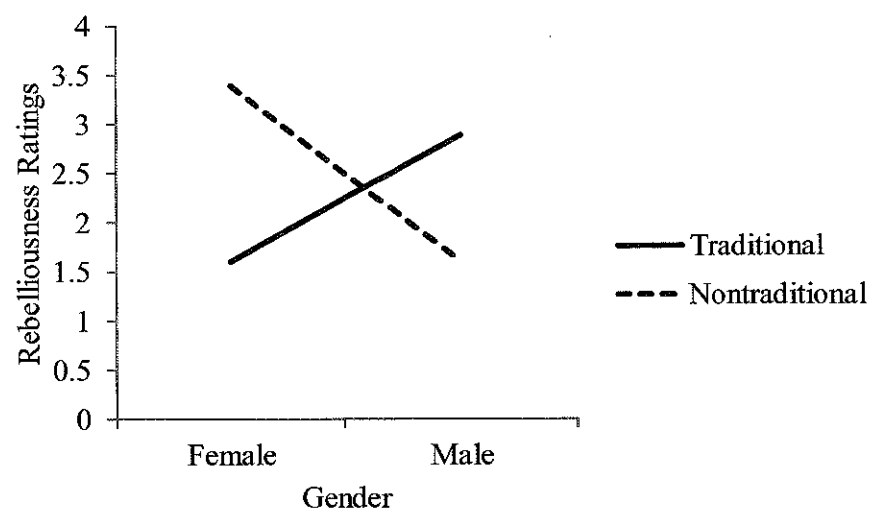


Figure 4. Mean ratings of rebelliousness across female v. male and traditional v. nontraditional conditions.

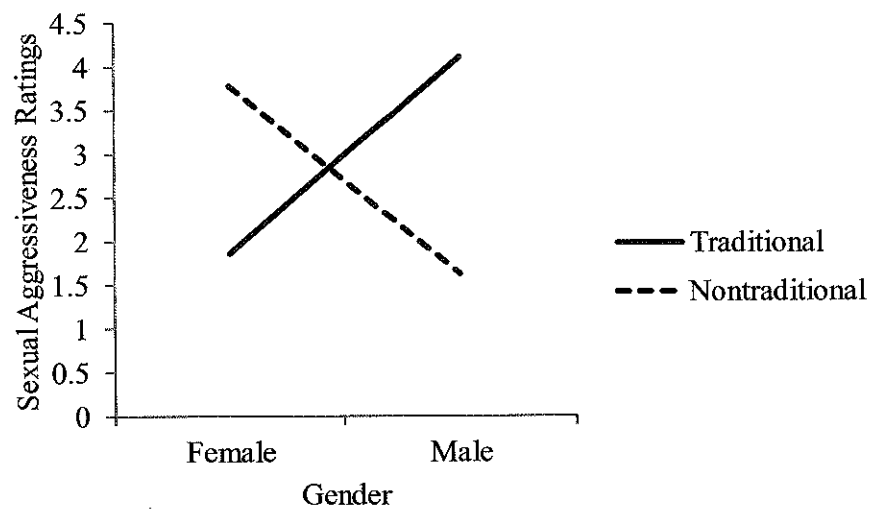


Figure 5: Mean ratings of sexual aggressiveness across female v. male and traditional v. nontraditional conditions.

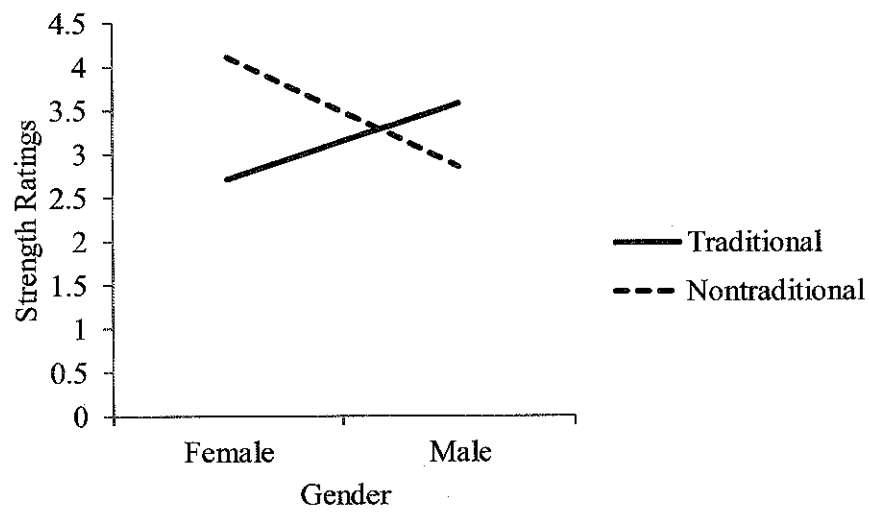


Figure 6. Mean ratings of strength across female v. male and traditional v. nontraditional conditions.

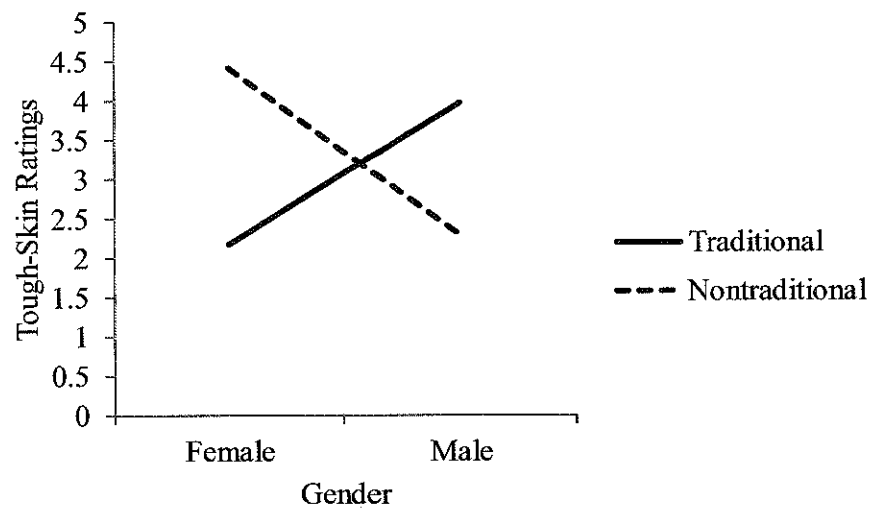


Figure 7. Mean ratings of sensitivity across female v. male and traditional v. nontraditional conditions.

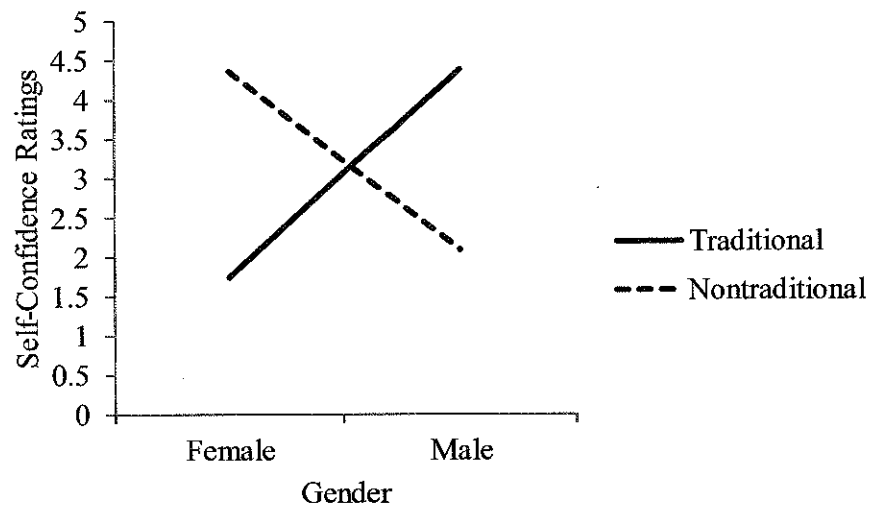


Figure 8. Mean ratings of self confidence across female v. male and traditional v. nontraditional conditions.

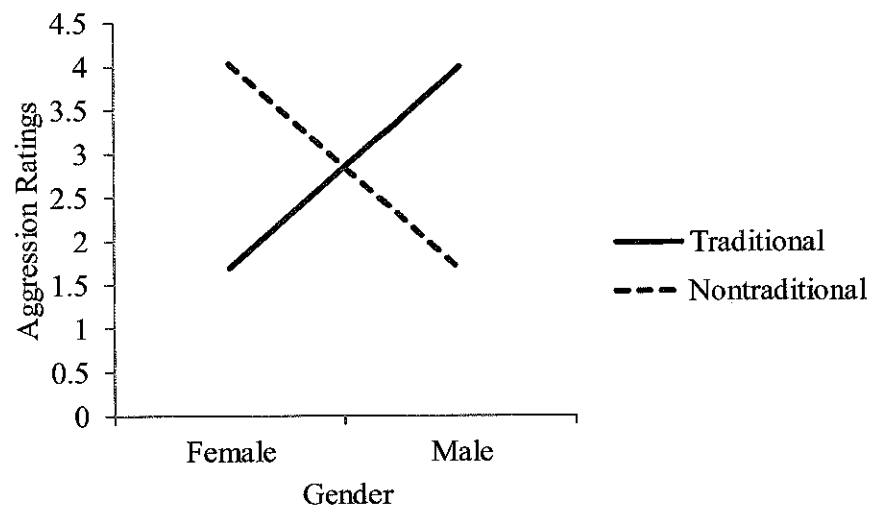


Figure 9. Mean ratings of aggression across female v. male and traditional v. nontraditional conditions.

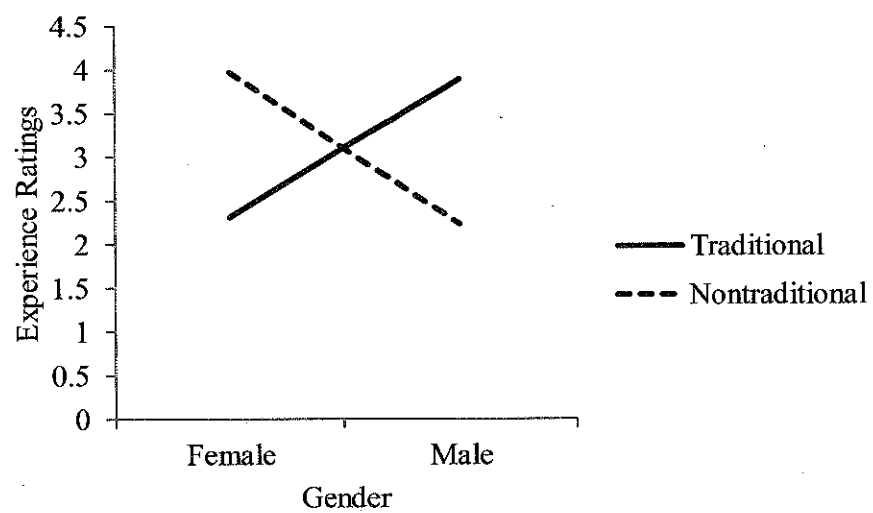


Figure 10. Mean ratings of experience across female v. male and traditional v. nontraditional conditions.

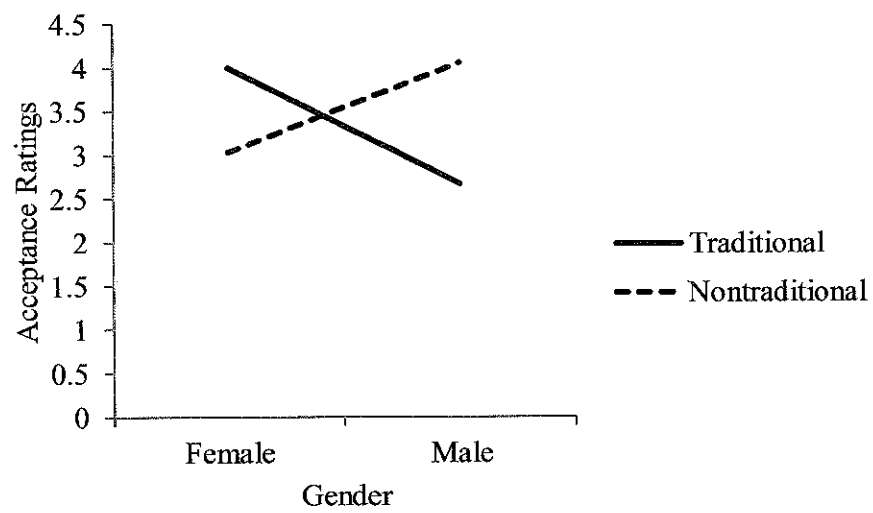


Figure 11. Mean ratings of acceptance across female v. male and traditional v. nontraditional conditions.

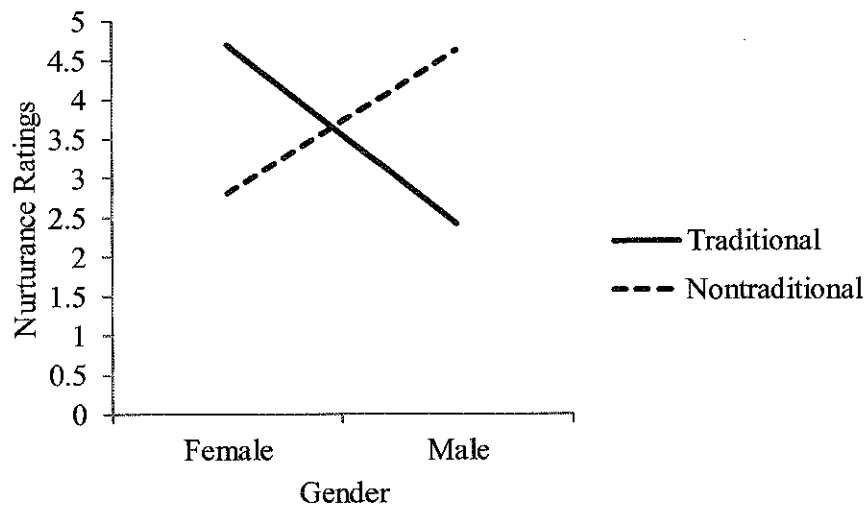


Figure 12. Mean ratings of nurturance across female v. male and traditional v. nontraditional conditions.

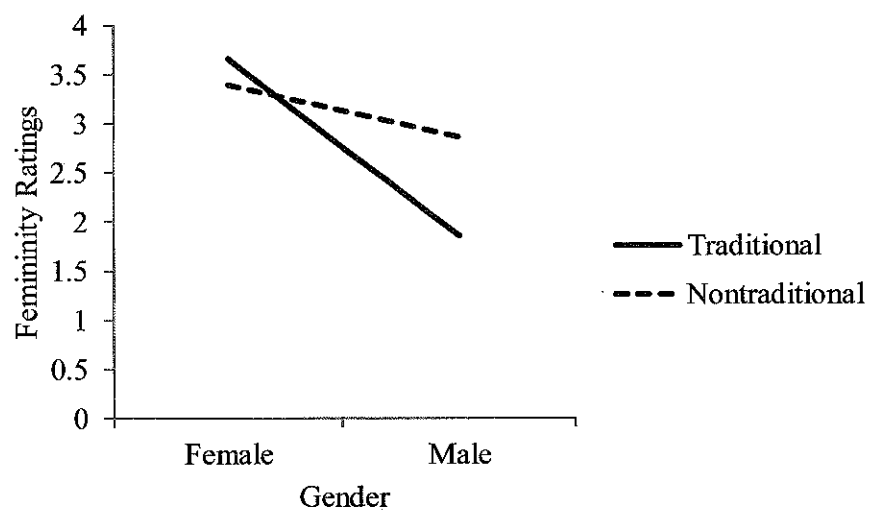


Figure 13. Mean ratings of femininity across female v. male and traditional v. nontraditional conditions.

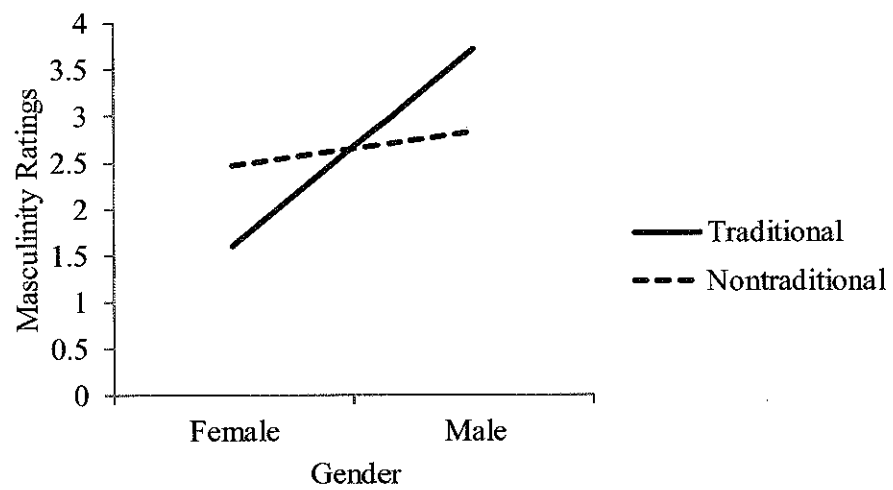


Figure 14. Mean ratings of masculinity across female v. male and traditional v. nontraditional conditions.

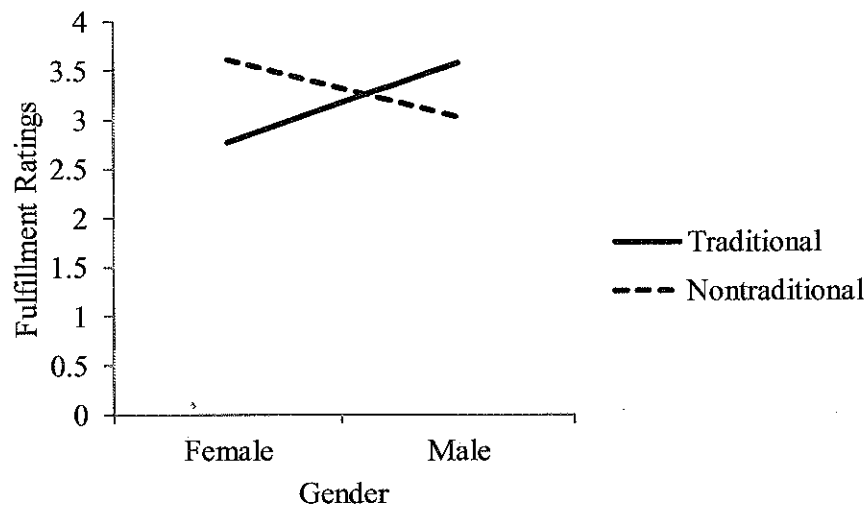


Figure 15. Mean ratings of fulfillment across female v. male and traditional v. nontraditional conditions.

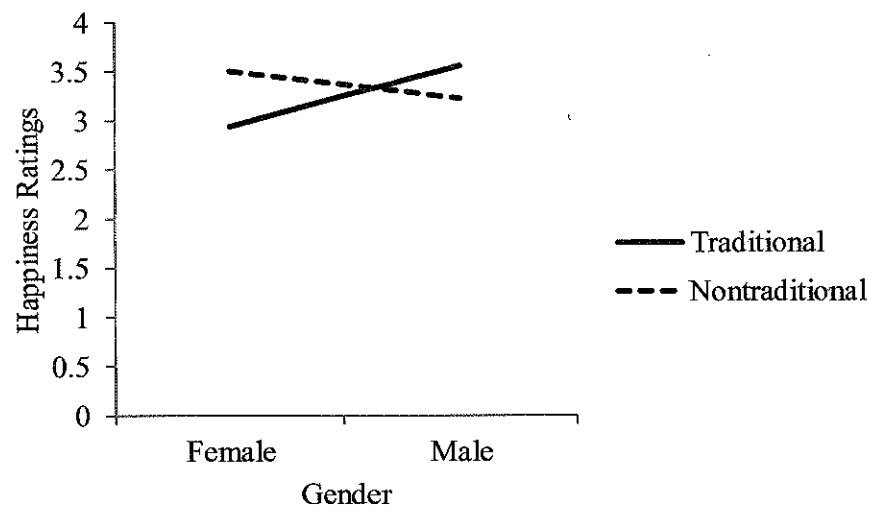


Figure 16. Mean ratings of happiness across female v. male and traditional v. nontraditional conditions.

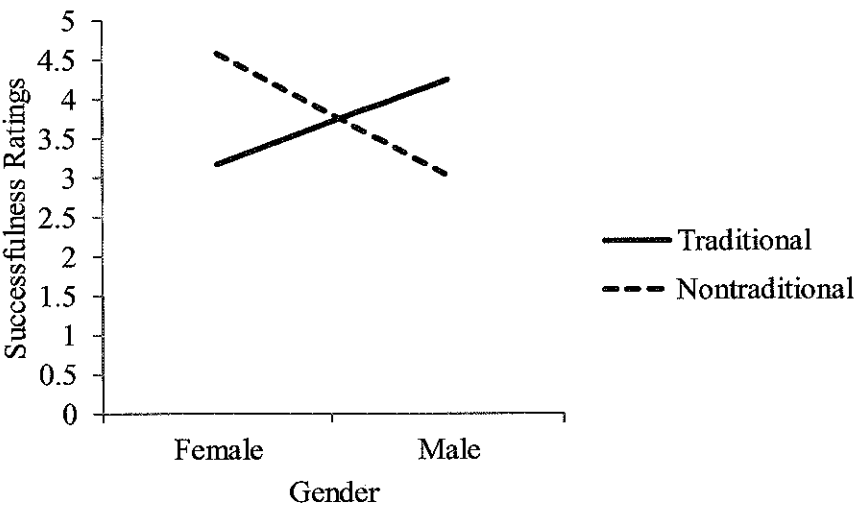


Figure 17. Mean ratings of success across female v. male and traditional v. nontraditional conditions.

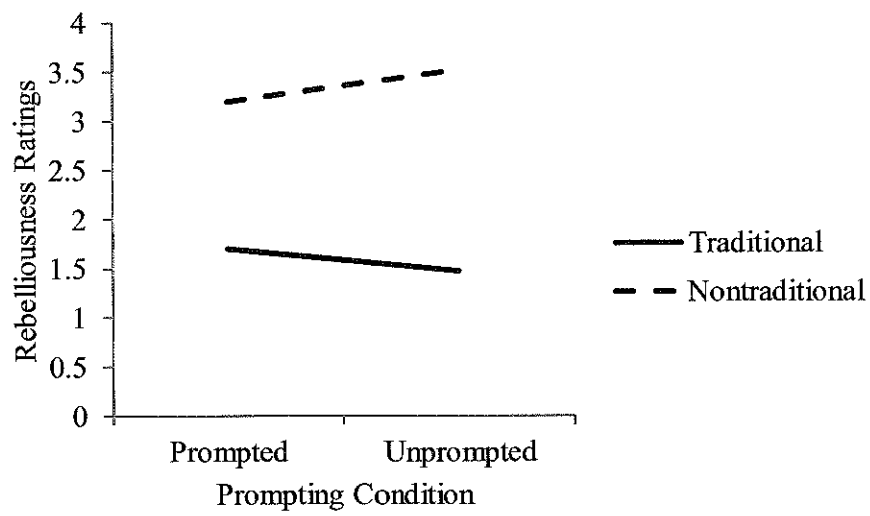


Figure 18. Mean ratings of rebelliousness across prompted v. unprompted and traditional v. nontraditional conditions of females.

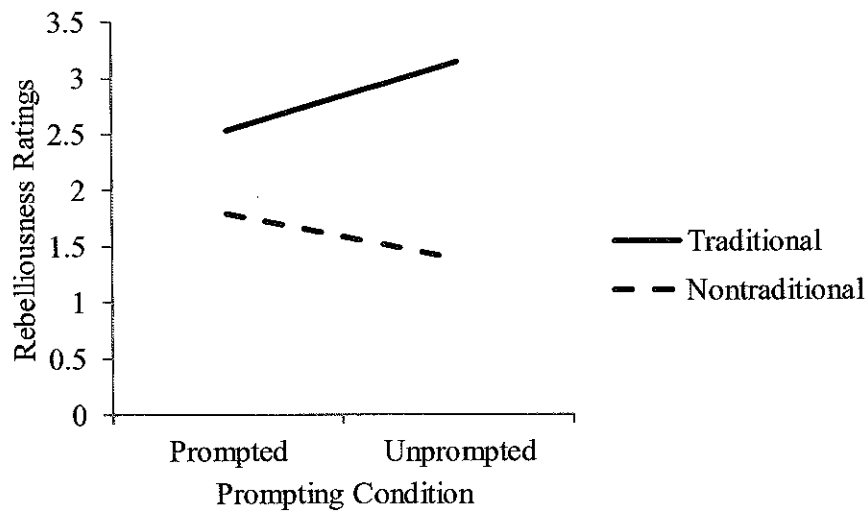


Figure 19. Mean ratings of rebelliousness across prompted v. unprompted and traditional v. nontraditional conditions of males.