

THE INFLUENCE OF SOCIAL DOMINANCE ORIENTATION AND MASCULINITY ON MEN'S PERCEPTIONS OF WOMEN IN THE WORKPLACE

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Abstract

Male participants viewed a videotape of a female confederate manager in an office setting displaying dominant and submissive behaviors. Participants were pre-tested for levels of Social Dominance Orientation (SDO) and masculinity prior to viewing the videos. Participants in all conditions viewed the dominant and submissive managers differently. Participants disliked the dominant manager and rated them less effective and less competent. The dislike for the dominant manager was influenced strongly by the level of SDO of the participants. Masculinity was a stronger indicator of the how negatively the participants viewed the dominant manager in regard to the factor of competency. This study shows how SDO and masculinity interact and influence men's perceptions of women in the workplace.

Introduction

Women constitute almost half of the work force, however to date there have only been a select few who have been able to rise to the level of CEO's in Fortune 500 Companies. As more women enter higher positions in the workforce, it becomes important to investigate factors that prevent women from access to higher status positions in our society. We believe that biological and socialized beliefs in society place women at a disadvantage in the modern workplace. Reasons for this gender inequality among top positions in society have been explained by theories of gender stereotypes (Ridgeway, 2001) and Social Dominance Orientation (SDO) (Pratto, Stallworth and Sidanius, 1997). It is difficult for women to attain positions of managerial power because traditional feminine traits do not correspond with prototypical characteristics of higher-level management positions.

Sex- Role Stereotypes

Expectations and perceptions of other individuals are strongly influenced by status cues such as race and gender (Berger, Fisek, Norman & Zelditch, 1977). Gender functions to divide people into two distinctive groups. Gender roles are determined by particular masculine and feminine behaviors that are independent constructs (Bem, 1974); those that possess both characteristics are classified as androgynous (Bem, 1974). Masculine traits are indicated as the following: self-reliant, assertive, leadership abilities,

independent, makes decisions easily, takes a stand, ambitious, athletic and self-sufficient. The series of traits described as feminine is affectionate, compassionate, cheerful, loyal, sensitive, sympathetic, gentle, understanding and tender and warm (Bem, 1974, Kolb 1999).

Men and women interact constantly with one another and often gender is used as a mechanism to organize their behavior and to establish roles within the natural status hierarchy system (Ridgeway 2001). Gender is a large component of the expectations and perceptions we form of individuals' behavior (Carli, 1991). Gender stereotypes develop and can be explained as a set of rules or expectations of an individual's behavior based upon their gender (Ridgeway, 2001). Eagly & Mladinic (1994) found that these stereotyped expectations originate from the distribution of men and women into different and distinctive roles in our society. Women are predominantly seen as more communal and as caretakers while men are occupy occupational roles (Eagly & Mladinic, 1994). Women and men are expected to behave according to prescribed behaviors and inhibit behaviors that do not correspond to their gender (Copeland et .al. 1995).

Ridgeway & Berger (1986) propose that men and women interact with one another based upon an *expectation states theory*. According to this theory, gender stereotypes function as a prescribed schema that is used to act and judge one another (Ridgeway & Berger, 1986). Gender is a component of status beliefs, which serve to characterize men and women into two distinctive groups of high and low status within the hierarchy system (Jackman, 1994). Status beliefs link particular positive or negative qualities to one category or social group and form the basis of inequality (Ridgeway & Berger, 1986).

When people interact toward achieving a shared common goal, the expectation theory is enacted, and status beliefs and gender stereotypes combine to influence the behavior of the individuals and their perceptions of the opposite sex (Ridgeway & Walker, 1995). Gender becomes a status characteristic because it is more advantageous to be a man than a woman in our society (Copeland, 1995). The adherence to status characteristics and gender stereotypes creates a pattern of legitimacy and a differentiation of characteristics based upon gender. In relation to the work environment, gender becomes a salient characteristic because it primes people to form expectations about their own contributions and expectations of others' contributions to the shared task and whether or not they will distinguish themselves as leaders (Wagner & Berger, 1997).

The Influence of Gender on Interactions With the Opposite Sex

Men have more power and status than women do, especially in high power positions in public spheres such as government and in other leadership positions (Espinoza & Pratto, 2001). Ample research shows that members in superior positions of groups display more masculine behaviors and demand more control over the groups' resources. Women are assigned to a lower status because of various societal and cultural understandings that associate them with lower performance and lower effectiveness within a mixed group (Copeland et. al 1995).

Eagly (1995) assessed mixed group interactions and found that men display more dominance, assertiveness and are more influential than women. In order to attain leadership positions or positions of power women must battle against expected societal norms. Feminine behaviors' conflict with the expected masculine appropriate behaviors of higher-level status positions (Eagly, 1992). Copeland (1995) found that when subjects

were presented with men and women exhibiting low and high dominant behaviors, the dominant female speaker was perceived more negatively than the dominant male. Implying that behavior inconsistent with one's gender role is not well received in general.

Gender in the Workplace

The attainment of a managerial position in the workplace in and of itself enhances one's status (Heilman, 2001). Gender remains a salient factor in characterizing an individual. Therefore when a woman becomes a manager, she has higher expectations to meet because her newfound status conflicts with typical masculine managerial associations. Previous research has shown that top management jobs are characterized by masculine traits, such as achievement oriented aggressiveness and emotional toughness (Heilman, 2001). Females must overcome implicit assumptions about their gender while attempting to adopt masculine traits associated with a managerial role (Ridgeway, 2001). Heilman, Block and Martel (1995) found that when a female and male manager of equal ability were compared, the female was rated less competent than her male counterpart.

Often times the same behavior exhibited by males and females are interpreted less positively for female managers. Heilman (2001) observed that indecision, often viewed as a feminine characteristic, was more acceptable among male managers than female managers. Male managers were thought to be more cautious, resulting in higher ratings of their competence. A simple task such as talking on the phone was deemed more acceptable and business related for males than females in the business setting. Women are seen as deviating from work related tasks when on the phone, while men were thought to be industrious (Heilman, 2001).

Nonverbal Behavior and Gender

In accordance to gender, the nonverbal behavior of individuals serves to influence how one perceives another. There are particular nonverbal gestures/behaviors that convey a person's status within a group (Copeland, et al., 1995). Nonverbal gestures have been linked to status cues such that men are expected to portray more competent and dominant gestures in their efforts to maintain their higher role in the status hierarchy and women should adhere to a submissive role (Ridgeway, 1987). Men are more receptive to a woman that is not only competent but also sociable (Carli, et al., 1995).

Carli et al., (1995) investigated the effects of nonverbal gestures exhibited by males and females, with a special focus on those gestures that are atypical for one's gender. Participants were shown women displaying dominant/controlling behaviors and submissive/appeasing behaviors, and judged for their competency. Carli predicted and showed that women who show submissive/appeasing behaviors and more feminine characteristics were better liked by male subjects. Women who displayed dominant/controlling behaviors are viewed as threatening to a male audience unless they were able to show that they are not attempting to usurp male power and a higher status position.

Social Dominance Orientation

Previous research on gender inequality in the workplace has been explained mostly through theories of sex-role stereotypes. However, another possible explanation for this phenomenon is provided by the Social Dominance Theory. Social Dominance Theory states that all societies are structured through group based social hierarchies (Sidanius & Pratto, 1993; 1999), therefore creating societies where one or a few dominant groups are superior, while the rest are inferior. The process of advocating for

the superiority of the dominant group serves to minimize group conflict (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999). Thus in order for the dominant groups to maintain their position and the structural hierarchy, they must to continue to keep wealth, power, education and high social status in their possession (Sidanius & Pratto, 1999).

The degree of one's social dominance orientation is seen by their desire for inequality among social groups and is referred to as one's Social Dominance Orientation (SDO), (Pratto, Stallworth & Sidanius, 1997). Those in dominant groups have been shown to have higher measures of SDO. Recent research has shown a relationship between SDO and gender. Sidanius has studied extensively the relationship between gender and SDO and has proposed the invariance hypothesis to explain this phenomenon. The invariance hypothesis states that men are higher in SDO than women because they occupy dominant social roles and have a strong desire to maintain their group dominance (Sidanius et al, 1994). Gender socialization, both masculinity and femininity has been linked to higher levels of SDO (Foels & Pappas 2002). Masculine traits such as dominance and assertiveness correspond to high SDO and the maintenance of social hierarchies (Bem, 1974 cited in Ballard & Elton, 1992). Whereas traits associated with femininity such as caring and compassion serve to maintain their lower status and lower levels of SDO (Bem, 1974).

In our society men are in the top of the social hierarchy and therefore must make efforts to secure their position. It is imperative for men to display socially domineering behaviors to maintain the superiority of their gender. As women gain more access to predominately male fields, men feel the need to justify their higher status through the use of legitimizing myths (Sidanius, Pratto & Bobo, 1994).

Occupational segregation is explained by Pratto et al. (1997) through hierarchy enhancing and hierarchy attenuating roles. Hierarchy enhancing roles serve to defend the resources of the privileged, and are characterized by jobs dealing with the law, crime and business. Hierarchy attenuating roles favor the oppressed and are defined more through civil rights, human rights and helping the poor. Men are disproportionately represented in hierarchy enhancing roles, while women constitute most of the hierarchy attenuating jobs (Pratto et al., 1997). Therefore this may explain why men in hierarchy enhancing jobs would not hire women to join them because they are a threat towards maintaining male dominance.

Our study will examine how masculinity and SDO relate to men's perceptions of women in non-traditional roles exhibiting dominant and submissive behaviors. Participants will view two female managers who act in a traditional or non-traditional manner and will rate the managers on four characteristics: competency, likeability, professionalism and power/influence. We aim to test the influence of implicit judgements and socialization processes upon how we view others in the workplace.

Predictions

We predict that men with a traditional sex-role orientation i.e. high masculinity will prefer the traditional female manager to the non-traditional female manager. Males with low masculinity will be the opposite and will not be as negative towards the manager in the non-traditional role. In addition, males with higher SDO will prefer the traditional female manager to the non-traditional female manager. Males with lower SDO will not be as unfavorable to the non-traditional manager. Support for our SDO

predictions comes from Pratto's (1997) research on hierarchy attenuating and hierarchy enhancing roles.

We predict that because SDO and masculinity are so closely related to one another and because of their importance for securing higher status within our society, these two variables will interact in how the men view the female managers. Given that our study is first to combine sex role orientation and SDO as factors in manager perception, there is no available data on which to base predictions. Therefore, we can not be sure whether SDO or sex role stereotypes will be a stronger predictor but we do believe that they will interact and influence one another on multiple variables.

Method

Participants

Thirty-one male students from a small liberal arts college participated in this study; the average age of the participants was nineteen. The participants received partial course credit for taking part in the study.

Materials

Materials included: pre and post video questionnaires, (see appendix A) and two, one minute video clips of a confederate video. The confederates used in our video were a male and female undergraduate student and a young faculty member. Pre-testing information for Social Dominance Orientation and Sex-Role Stereotypes of the participants was conducted prior to our testing period. The scale used to measure SDO was the SDO measure developed by Pratto. The BSRI scale, designed by Bem (1974) was used to assess Sex-Role Stereotypes.

Procedure

Participants were recruited from an introductory psychology class. Participants were run at a maximum of eight at a time. The seating was consistent such that two tables were set up so participants were equally spaced and not distracted by others in the room. Once consent was received, the participants were informed that they would be viewing tapes on workplace interactions. Participants filled out a pre-video questionnaire assessing their general beliefs on managerial employee relations and gender in the workplace (see appendix A). Participants viewed one of two versions of confederate videotape. The videotape displayed a woman confederate manager exhibiting dominant and submissive non-verbal behavior while speaking to a male employee. In order to control for differences in attractiveness of the female confederates, the participants rated the female manager on a series of traits representing attractiveness. The video was taped so that the manager was in full view, whereas only the male employee's profile was visible. The sound was omitted to control for any potential reactions to the verbal dialogue. Two versions of the video were produced so that each confederate woman would be seen depicting both dominant and submissive behaviors. Half the participants were shown the first version, with the other half viewing the second version. After viewing the dominant and submissive manager, the participants filled out a questionnaire aimed at capturing their perceptions of the female confederate manager. The questionnaire asked participants to rate the manager on a seven point Likert scale on the basis of four categories of traits: power, competency, likeability and managerial and attractiveness. A post questionnaire was given at the end of both the dominant and

submissive clips to assess the participants' preference for a particular clip. Upon completion of the questionnaires, the participants will be debriefed and awarded credit for their introductory psychology class.

Results

The twenty-eight ratings were combined into four a priori factors based on Carli, (1995). The five factors were: competency (summary composite of self-confident, independent, competent, dependent, incompetent and meak) likeableness (summary composite of pleasant, positive, likeable, rude, unreceptive and unpleasant) power (summary composite of influential, persuasive, strong, weak, unproductive and ineffective) and managerial (summary composite of skilled, professional, managerial, unskilled, unprofessional and unresourceful). A fifth factor was included to examine any differences between the two confederates on attractiveness (summary composite of pretty, attractive, ordinary and unattractive). Items that were reversed scored were coded to reflect a standard uni-polar dimension. Alpha correlation's coefficients for each factor were: competency, ($\alpha=-.80$), likeableness ($\alpha=-3.49$), power ($\alpha=.06$), managerial ($\alpha=-.80$) and attractive ($\alpha=-1.16$) respectively. A median split was applied to participants' measures of SDO and masculinity to create low and high categories for each group.

Comparison of two confederate managers

In order to establish whether female confederates were perceived similarly, a 2 x 2 (SDO x masculinity) between subjects analysis of variance was computed for ratings on each of the five factors. The only significant difference was for likeability when confederates portrayed submissiveness ($F(1,28)=9.32, p<.05$). F-values ($df=28$) for the other factors ranged from .19 to 9.32, $p>.05$. In addition, there were no differences in attractiveness ratings between the two actors, ($F(1,28)=.69, p<.05$). Because there were such few differences, the data were collapsed across confederates.

Tests on Ratings of Managers in Submissive/Dominant Conditions

To see whether hi/low SDO and masculine participants were differentially influenced by the dominant and submissive non-verbal behavior of confederates, we compared their reactions to each performance, using a 2 x 2 x 2 (SDO x masculinity x Nonverbal behavior) ANOVA with repeated measures on the last factor. Separate tests were computed for each of the four dependent measures. There were no main effects and no interactions for SDO and masculinity for any of the four dependent variables. The F values for all factors ranged from $F(1, 28) = .00$ to $F(1, 28) = 1.27$, $p>.05$. However there was a main effect for nonverbal behavior for each variable meaning that participants response changed for each condition: likeableness: ($F(1, 28)=27.52, p<.05$), power: ($F(1, 28)=32.31, p<.05$) and competency: ($F(1, 28)=41.68, p<.05$), managerial ($F(1, 28)=24.92, p<.05$),.

Ratings of Confederates in Dominant/Submissive Conditions

To test our hypothesis that men with high SDO and masculinity would respond less favorably to the confederate displaying dominant nonverbal gestures and that men with low SDO and low masculinity would not respond as negatively, we performed a 2 x 2 ANOVA between subjects, (SDO and masculinity) for all four factors. Means are reported in table 1. As shown in figure 1, only one of our predictions was supported, the variable for competency showed an interaction effect in the dominant condition ($F(1,$

14)=4.35, $p < .05$). The F values for the other factors ranged from .10 to 4.35, $p > .05$. We could not be sure whether SDO or masculinity would be more influential in the rating of the dominant manager, however, our results indicate that men with higher levels of masculinity rated the dominant manager less favorably for competency than all other groups, ($t(14)=2.9$, $p < .05$). One's level of SDO was a factor for ratings of likeableness of the two managers; men with higher levels of SDO liked the manager exhibiting submissive gestures, ($t(14)=4.05$, $p < .05$).

Post-Video Questionnaire

The ratings for the participants' reactions to the videos were also assessed based on the dependent variables of comfort, effectiveness, preference and likeableness. Paired-samples t-tests were performed for each dependent variable and revealed that participants of all levels of SDO and masculinity did not rate the two managers differently on comfort and preference, but did show differences for effectiveness ($t(28) = -3.27$, $p < .05$) and likeability ($t(28)=3.25$, $p < .05$). Indicating that participants found the submissive manager to be more favorable.

Post Videos Comparison Questions

Following the viewing of both submissive and dominant conditions, participants compared the dominant and submissive confederates on the basis of three factors: preference, likableness and competency. A 2x2 ANOVA, between participants (SDO and masculinity) was performed for all three factors. While there were no differences for likeableness and preference, our predictions were further supported by a main effect for masculinity for competency ($F(1,14)=4.35$, $p = .05$). SDO had no main effect and no interactions were found. On a series of opinion questions following viewing the confederates in both conditions all participants reported that a man would be hired for a managerial position. More specifically when assessing their preference for a leader of one's own gender there was a difference between high and low SDO, ($t(15)= 2.16$, $p < .05$), the higher SDO males preferred the manager displaying submissive behavior and disliked the dominant manager.

Discussion

Our hypothesis that high SDO and high masculinity men would rate the dominant non-traditional manager less favorably on competency, power, managerial, and likeableness was only partially supported by our results. In accordance with past research we found that higher levels of SDO and masculinity resulted in lower ratings of effectiveness, likeability and competency for the manager in the dominant condition (Carli et al, 1995). However, we did not find that subjects rated the submissive and dominant managers differently in terms of power and managerial traits as we had expected and as previous studies had demonstrated.

Differences were found on the basis of effectiveness and likeability of the managers when subjects were asked to compare the submissive and dominant managers. As predicted, those with higher levels of SDO and masculinity rated the dominant manager less effective and less likeable than the submissive manager. We were uncertain as to whether SDO or masculinity would be more influential on the ratings tested, however from our findings we can assume that SDO was a greater indicator than masculinity levels in the assessment of the manager in terms of likeability. A women

exhibiting power and dominance is not well liked by men with high levels of SDO because it is viewed as threatening.

Our results further support Pratto's Social Dominance Theory that those high in SDO will strive to maintain the social hierarchy and in the case for gender, men will dislike women displaying dominant behavior. When we compared subject's responses to the dominant and the submissive conditions separately we found a main effect for nonverbal behavior but not predominately for differences between SDO and masculinity. Indicating that all subjects in the study viewed the submissive and dominant managers differently on the four main factors tested. However, there was one instance where SDO and masculinity interacted to produce less favorable ratings of the manager. When rating the confederates on the basis of their competency, participants rated the manager in the dominant condition less competently.

When assessed more closely we found that masculinity was a more powerful predictor of the male's reactions to rating the dominant manager as less competent. While other studies have shown that one's level of masculinity determines how they view a woman exhibiting dominant behaviors, our study compared another possible influence, SDO and found that masculinity was a more indicative factor. It seems that gendered stereotypes influence the perception of women's competency more so than one's maintenance of an unequal social hierarchy. This finding corresponds to Carli's (1995) findings that women who display more sociable traits and act according to their specific gender role are viewed to be more competent by men. Therefore women in managerial positions must overcome an additional challenge of balancing managerial traits with more submissive feminine behaviors expected of them.

Our finding that high levels of masculinity in men causes them to rate dominant women more negatively is in accordance with the Ridgeway and Berger's (1996) gender expectation theory that one's gender creates a set of appropriate behaviors expected to be displayed by each sex. Our study also agrees with Heilman's (2001) findings that males immediately view women in non-traditional roles in the workplace, such as a managerial position less favorably.

Methodologically, our study contains several measures that serve to increase the validity of our results. Our video was taped in a natural workplace setting, and was effective in eliciting different responses to a submissive and dominant condition. There was no audio, limiting any potential confounds for the subject's ratings and focused the subject's attention to the nonverbal behavior exhibited. Indicating that non-verbal behavior is effective in provoking implicit perceptions of others. By pre-selecting subjects, using previously validated scales to determine one's SDO and masculinity levels, we were able to see how these two variables interacted and influenced male's perceptions of women in the workplace. In addition, our questionnaire tested not only the subjects' initial reactions to the behavioral display, but allowed them to compare and report preference after viewing the dominant and submissive managers.

Weaknesses in our study include the order of our submissive/dominant confederate displays. The dominant and submissive portrayals were confounded by order as dominance was always shown first and therefore creating a carry-over effect that may have interfered with how viewers rated the submissive confederate. In addition, it is possible that the submissive gestures were not potent enough to illicit responses from the participants. The adjectives chosen to represent the four factors of power, competency,

managerial and likableness may not have been appropriate for what we were aiming to analyze. Another methodological shortcoming may have been a result of our small sample size of 30 males. In reference to the testing conditions, it is possible that social desirability could have effected males' responses in that they were responding not entirely truthfully. The two experimenters were female and also present during the study, potentially influencing the testing environment.

Our study was conducted at a liberal arts college, not representative of the general population. We used demographic questionnaires and discovered that 25% of the males tested had mothers who were employed outside the home. It is possible that one's background or family situation could have been a potential factor influencing our study. Future studies should be conducted that include a larger sample size, counterbalancing the order of dominant and submissive conditions, using participants from a more representative population including women to provide a comparison group. It would be interesting to examine the influence of nonverbal submissive/dominant behaviors exhibited by male confederates and to observe how they would be rated in comparison to the female managers.

The implications of this study serve to expose the societal influences that SDO and masculinity have on our implicit perceptions and judgements of others. It is evident that women in non-traditional roles such as managerial positions must work harder to be promoted and to be accepted by their male co-workers. Until the work environment realizes this inherent bias, women will continue to struggle against sex role stereotypes and social dominance hierarchy maintenance in their efforts to succeed in the workplace.

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Post Video #1 Questionnaire

Please rate the following from 1-7, 1 being Agree and 7 Disagree... (*Circle one number for each item*)

- | | Strongly
Agree | | | | | Strongly
Disagree | |
|--|----------------------------|---|---|---|---|------------------------------|---|
| 1.) I felt comfortable watching this interaction | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 2.) The manager is effective in this position | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 3.) I would like to have the manager as my boss | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 4.) The manager would be well-liked by others | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 |
| 5.) Do you have any female siblings? | <input type="checkbox"/> Y | | | | | <input type="checkbox"/> N | |
| 6.) How many roommates do you have? | _____ | | | | | | |
| 7.) Are you on a sports team? | <input type="checkbox"/> Y | | | | | <input type="checkbox"/> N | |
| 8.) Do you have any female professors? | <input type="checkbox"/> Y | | | | | <input type="checkbox"/> N | |
| 9.) Rate how well each of the following adjectives used to describe the female manager: (<i>Circle one number for each item</i>) | | | | | | | |

	Strongly Agree					Strongly Disagree	
Unprofessional	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Unpleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Influential	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Self-Confident	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Attractive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Unproductive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Unreceptive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7

	Strongly Agree				Strongly Disagree			
Strong	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Independent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Ordinary	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Unskilled	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Rude	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Persuasive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Competent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Pretty	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Skilled	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Pleasant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Weak	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Dependant	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Unattractive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Professional	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Positive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Ineffective	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Incompetent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Managerial	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Likeable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	
Meak	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	

Post-Video Questions

Please circle "Video 1" or "Video 2"

- | | | |
|---|---------|---------|
| 1.) Which manager would most people prefer? | Video 1 | Video 2 |
| 2.) Which manager would you prefer? | Video 1 | Video 2 |
| 3.) Which manager would be better liked in the office? | Video 1 | Video 2 |
| 4.) Which manager would be better liked at home? | Video 1 | Video 2 |
| 5.) Which manager performed their job better? | Video 1 | Video 2 |
| 6.) Which manager had a better repertoire with their employee? | Video 1 | Video 2 |
| 7.) Which video would you recommend be used for future marketing on managerial communications with employees? | Video 1 | Video 2 |
| 8.) If you had to pick a manager to be on a team project with you, who would you select? | Video 1 | Video 2 |
| 9.) Most women in the workplace behave like the manager in... | Video 1 | Video 2 |
| 10.) Which manager is acting appropriately for their position? | Video 1 | Video 2 |
| 11.) In which video did the <i>employee</i> have more influence? | Video 1 | Video 2 |
| 12.) The manager was most effective in..... | Video 1 | Video 2 |
| 13.) Is it more likely that a man be hired for a managerial position? | Y____ | N____ |
| 14.) I prefer a leader of my own gender. | Y____ | N____ |
| 15.) What do you think this study is about? | | |

Table 1

Means and Standard Deviations for 2 x 2 (SDO x Masculinity) ANOVA Between Subjects for Factor Ratings for the Dominant Condition.

Factors	Masculinity				SDO			
	High		Low		High		Low	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Like	3.87	.38	3.59	.38	3.63	.37	3.83	.39
Manager	4.91	.25	4.80	.25	4.65	.24	5.06	.25
Power	4.92	.18	4.80	.18	4.81	.17	4.91	.19
Competency	5.37a	.17	5.01a	.17	5.09	.16	5.29	.18

Note: Ratings were made on a 7-point scale, with 7 indicating the highest rating for that behavior. Means having a subscript indicate significance, $p < .05$.

Figure 1

