Gender Stereotypes and Emotions: Are Sad Dads Perceived as Less Competent?

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Acknowledgements

I would like to thank Dr. Mark Sibicky for his patience, support, encouragement, and assistance throughout this process. His unlimited passion for Social Psychology and his consistent editing and revising of numerous drafts made the idea possible and the process bearable. I would also like to thank Dr. Alicia Doerflinger for her helpful and constructive comments on previous drafts of this thesis. Her keen eye for detail greatly improved many components in this paper. Finally, I need to acknowledge some fellow classmates. I would like to thank Eileen Filozoff, Mike Judd, and Rachel Sheiding for their willingness to act as my confederates in the interview clips. I would also like to thank Jonah Juarez for assisting me in making DVD copies of the interviews, Anna Weber for her helpful editing of previous versions of this paper, as well as Kaitlyn Carpenter for being my research assistant during data collection. I could not have successfully completed this process without their assistance and support.
Abstract

Researchers investigating gender stereotypes have found that it is often more socially acceptable for men to display confidence and anger rather than insecurity and sadness. Moreover, gender stereotypes often prescribe and describe emotional displays for men and women in specific social roles including parenting, a social role where emotional expressions are stereotypically feminine. Based on this research, this study investigated gender role violations concerning emotional displays specified in terms of the roles of parenting. It was hypothesized that participants would give sad dads significantly lower ratings of competence, knowledge, and approval in regards to being accepted into an after school program as compared to angry dads, sad moms, and angry moms. Overall, the findings did not support the hypotheses.
Gender Stereotypes and Emotions: Are Sad Dads Perceived as Less Competent?

Research on stereotypes has produced a better understanding of what they really are. Stereotypes were originally assumed to be ingrained negative evaluations of others. Early scientific research on stereotypes defined them as negative preconceptions of certain groups based on shared traits (Saenger & Flowerman, 1954; Fishman, 1956). However, psychologists have found that stereotypes are more cognitively based processes that utilize generalizations. Psychologists have identified stereotypes as automatic pre-judgments that are used frequently to classify and categorize people and objects in order to simplify cognitive overload (Ashmore & Del Boca, 1979; Gilbert & Hixon, 1991; Sherman, 2001). In other words, stereotypes are seen today as being linked with basic cognitive processes rather than a deeply rooted hatred for others.

Researchers have investigated stereotype formation. Research shows that individuals learn to stereotype others from an early age. Neugarten (1946) conducted a study on the development of stereotypes in which fifth-grade and sixth-grade school children were instructed to rate their classmates on desirable traits. The findings showed that the upper-class children were rated more desirable overall than the lower-class children, which suggests that even young children have rudimentary ideas of stereotypes and how to implement them in judgments. Stereotypes are complex and multiply determined; as such, researchers have concluded that stereotypes are created by a constellation of factors including individual experiences, normal cognitive processes, and cultural influences (Schneider, 2004). This leads to the conclusion that stereotypes form at an early age and arise from a variety of factors.

A major portion of stereotype research has been devoted to investigating the
accuracy of stereotypes and the cognitive functions they serve in memory. Researchers still debate the accuracy of stereotypes today, but initially, stereotypes were assumed to be inaccurate (Madon, Jussim, Keiper, Eccles, Smith, & Palumbo, 1998). Recent research suggests that stereotypic information can be both accurate and inaccurate, nevertheless the effects it has on individual’s perceptions of others is limited and small (Diekman, Eagly, & Kulesa, 2002). In relation to memory functions, Sherman and Frost (2000) claim that stereotype-consistent information is more readily available in memory than stereotype-inconsistent information when an individual’s cognitive capacity is low or overloaded. Hall and Crisp (2003) also found that people tend to increase their use of stereotypes during the times they are under a lot of stress, which can cause cognitive overload as well. Although some stereotypes are associated with negative categorizations and cognitive overload, not all stereotypes are linked to these factors.

In fact, some stereotypes have a variety of positive uses and applications. Stereotype research shows that many stereotypes appear to be useful generalizations that are occasionally accurate. Thus, stereotypes may aid individuals in making quick and relatively efficient judgments when they find it too difficult to think through every available option. For example, Sassenberg and Moskowitz (2005) argue that stereotypes make cognitive processing more efficient. Similarly, other researchers claim that stereotypes are useful in decision-making when individuals experience low cognitive capacity. Schneider (2004) suggests that the human tendency to evaluate people and objects should not be seen as a negative defining aspect of stereotypes, but rather a common and useful strategy for classification. This research shows that stereotypes can be relatively useful generalizations. However, stereotypes encourage prejudice and
discrimination when they are used for the negative devaluation of others. Therefore, stereotypes can result in negative social perceptions and cognitive effects that undermine social relationships because they can function as inflexible assumptions of others (Macrae, Milne, & Bodenhausen, 1994). This paper will focus on the latter use of stereotypes.

**Gender Stereotypes**

The result of continuing research on stereotypes has shown that there is something unique about race, gender, and age groups which are commonly referred to as the “big three” (Schneider, 2004, p.437). The “big three” are special for many reasons. One important reason they are special is that becoming a member in these groups does not involve a choice (Schneider, 2004). For instance, an individual is either Caucasian or African American, male or female, young or old.

In recent years, gender stereotypes have surfaced as one of the most studied generalizations out of the “big three” by psychologists (Schneider, 2004). Gender stereotypes are defined as “a set of beliefs about personal characteristics of women and men which is shared by the members of some group” (Ashmore et al., 1979). As the result of the continued use of over generalized perceptions in today’s society, gender stereotypes involve assigning common masculine and feminine traits to an individual based on his or her gender. Research has shown that stereotypes, specifically gender stereotypes, tend to develop in childhood.

Gender stereotypes form as young as age two (Hill & Flom, 2007). The process of gender stereotype formation continues into children’s pre-school years (Freeman, 2007) and it becomes more defined and salient in their high school years (Rowley, Kurtz-
A major hypothesis has surfaced on gender stereotype formation in childhood. Many researchers argue that children acquire gender stereotypes from early learning experiences and exposure to gender-based generalizations from their parents, siblings, and peers in their social environment (Cowan & Hoffman, 1986; Martin & Ruble, 2004). Once formed in childhood, gender stereotypes are then carried into adulthood, where they prescribe and describe gender appropriate emotional displays for men and women within specific social roles.

**Gender Stereotypes and Emotion**

Western cultures maintain the stereotypical belief that women are generally more emotional than men (Fischer & Manstead, 2000). Specifically, the male gender role is more restricted than the female gender role in emotional expressivity (Basow, 1992). These emotional stereotypes extend from childhood well into adulthood due to display rules (Brody, 2000). In essence, these display rules tend to prescribe social norms by dictating the emotions that are considered gender appropriate. For instance, Western cultural norms prescribe boys to display little or no emotions at all, but girls are expected to display a variety of emotions (Brody, 2000). In addition, gender differences have been found in stress coping styles between boys and girls (Vingerhoets & Schiers, 2000). These findings indicate that boys are taught to handle stress instrumentally and aggressively, while girls are taught to actively express emotions and seek support when under stress (Vingerhoets et al., 2000).

Although men and women experience emotions in the same manner, they tend to express them differently based on their culture (Plant, Hyde, Keltner, & Devine, 2000). For instance, women evaluate men in Western society who express sadness or fear more
negatively because it violates their masculine gender role (Brody, 2000). In contrast, the display of anger or aggression by men is seen as acceptable; although, the expression of anger is not acceptable for women (Shields, 2000). In general, femininity emphasizes the “communal” ability to openly communicate emotions as well as empathize with others, while masculinity refers to the “agentic” ability to contain emotions both verbally and physically (Fisher et al., 2000). Although the male gender role restricts the freedom of men to express an array of emotions in Western society, men have been granted the ability to display anger, by default of masculine stereotypes. In terms of explaining the association between cultural gender differences in emotion, supporters of Social Role Theory (SRT) argue that gender stereotypes are created from exposure to men and women occupying different roles (Eagly, Wood, & Diekman, 2000). In addition, gender stereotypes are molded by the uneven distribution of men and women into separate social roles (Cramer, Million, & Perreault, 2002). Thus, laypeople mistake the differences between men and women as resulting from gender instead of social roles.

Madden, Barrett, and Pietromonaco (2000) suggest that the core claim of SRT is the influence of traditional gender roles on men and women’s current behavior. Supporters of SRT assert that a woman’s traditional social role is to be a homemaker, while a man’s traditional role is to be a worker. In addition to social role prescription, theorists have proposed that gender role differences help promote the gender orientation of emotional expression. Over time women have learned that it is acceptable to display emotions because they are required to utilize empathy and sympathy for the purpose of being a successful homemaker, whereas men have learned that it is unacceptable for them to display any emotion beyond anger because they are assumed to be the protectors and
Gender Stereotypes

providers (Shields, 2000). Hence, it would be counterproductive for a man to express sadness because it is a sign of weakness.

Single Parents

The number of households headed by single dads has grown from 510,000 in 1989 up to 1.7 million in 1996, showing a dramatic increase in men taking over the primary childcare and household duties (Brown, 2000). The increase in single dads assuming primary parenting duties has helped redefine fatherhood in terms of childcare, financial responsibility, and expectations. Even though the number of men assuming the primary parenting role has increased, they are still perceived in a negative light (Eggebeen, Snyder, & Manning, 1996; Leininger & Ziol-Guest, 2008). There are a few possible explanations for the bias against single dads.

One explanation is the pervasive assumption that moms are the better and more involved parents compared to dads (Chase-Lansdale & Vinovskis, 1995), a phenomenon known as the “cult of motherhood” (LaRossa, 1997, p.108). For instance, Videon (2005) found that most social theories assume that moms “have unique capabilities for nurturing and caring for children…fathers are classified as secondary influences, if mentioned at all” (p.58). Similarly, research shows that men are stereotyped more negatively for exhibiting feminine characteristics and behavior rather than the reverse (Cahill & Adams, 1997; Hughes & Seta, 2003; Lehavot & Lambert, 2007). Another explanation for the bias against single dads is that the institution of marriage has evolved from a lifetime commitment to a non-traditional cohabitation between two individuals in a relationship (Skinner, Bahr, Crane, & Call, 2002). This evolution has not been widely accepted, especially by religious groups who place a high level of importance on keeping families
together by teaching that divorce is wrong. Therefore, single individuals, especially single parents, are typically viewed negatively by others, at least by those with more traditional gender role beliefs.

In terms of social policy, there are public protocols that imply the notion that dads are not the equivalent of moms. For example, Scarr (1998) reports that even the U.S. Labor Department refers to dads as “other relative care.” In addition, Wegner (2005) noted a few public policies that are currently changing, but in the past these policies have denied dads access to information concerning their children. First, doctors and teachers used to focus their attention toward the mom instead of both parents when discussing the child’s personal information (Wegner, 2005). Second, there used to be selective installations of baby changing stations in women’s restrooms only. Although social theories and public policies are becoming more gender neutral, they still need to be revised in order to correct the misconceptions that mothers are the more efficient and caring parents than fathers. Furthermore, single fathers, both never married and divorced, are attempting to demonstrate their parenting abilities. However, men’s attempts to show their parental capabilities involve displaying stereotypically feminine behaviors and emotions, which violates their prescribed gender roles and can lead to socially destructive consequences.

**Gender Role Violation**

Previous research shows women who exhibit anger are given lower status than men who also exhibit anger (Brescoll & Uhlmann, 2008). This gender role violation research led to Brescoll et al.’s (2008) series of studies examining the influence of gender roles and atypical emotional display on evaluations of a target person’s competence and
emotional stability. Specifically, they examined the perceptions of a female executive who displayed anger in relation to participant’s ratings of her competence and emotional stability level. Overall, the participants rated an angry female professional as less competent and more emotional than her male counterpart. Brescoll et al. (2008) clearly demonstrated the detrimental effects of females displaying anger, which is an emotion prescribed for males in Western society. On the other hand, males tend to be perceived negatively when they exhibit stereotypical female emotions such as sadness. For instance, Brescoll et al.’s (2008) findings indicate that men who displayed sadness in a professional context were granted lower status than men who displayed anger. Therefore, research suggests that individuals who violate their gender role expectations are more likely to be negatively evaluated by others.

Generally, women are allowed more flexibility in their social roles than men. This unbalanced flexibility is evident from research on social roles in which findings indicate that men are evaluated more harshly and negatively for exhibiting cross-gendered behavior than women (Berndt & Heller, 1986; Fagot, 1977; Tilby & Kalin, 1980). For example, men displaying stereotypic female emotions such as sadness will most likely be rejected by their peers, sometimes more negatively because a male who violates his gender role expectations tends to become associated with traits of homosexual males, a commonly stereotyped group even today (Schneider, 2004). Troilo and Coleman (2008) conducted a study on college student’s perceptions of seven different stereotypes about dads. An intriguing finding from their research indicated that gay dads were rated the most negatively by college students, which implies that men who display stereotypically feminine qualities are perceived more negatively by others because of their gender role
violation (Troilo et al., 2008). Another example of the imbalance between genders in emotional expression is that it is permissible and sometimes encouraged for a girl to be a tomboy and display masculine traits, but it is more culturally unacceptable for a boy to exhibit feminine behaviors or to have interests in traditionally feminine domains (Martin, 1990). Brody (2000) explains that males who exhibit self-conscious emotions such as sadness or fear are perceived as “unmanly” (p.25).

Although researchers have begun investigating how gender roles may prescribe the emotional displays of men and women in professional contexts, little research has been done investigating other social roles, for example the role of parenting. Typically, moms are regarded as more nurturing and involved with their children’s lives because they are women. Likewise, dads are assumed to be less nurturing and involved with their children because of their gender. Specifically, I am interested in exploring whether single dads are perceived as less competent parents when displaying sadness in comparison to single dads displaying anger as well as single moms displaying both anger and sadness.

**The Current Study**

The current study employed a 2 (Parent Gender: single dad, single mom) X 2 (Emotion: sadness, anger) between-subjects factorial design using the participant’s ratings of perceived parental competence, knowledge, and approval as the primary dependent measures. Participants arrived at the laboratory under the impression that they were acting as judges of the parent, (fictional) child, and the interviewer on the video clip. The participants were led to believe that the interview was for parents trying to get their children into an exclusive after school program in Marietta that was full. Participants were also purposefully misinformed that their task involved evaluating the
parent, child, and interviewer on their level of competence, knowledge, and acceptance in order to screen out inconsistent parents, unacceptable children, and ineffective interviewers. Instead, participants were randomly assigned to one of four conditions: judging a video clip of a sad dad, angry dad, sad mom, or angry mom, and their ratings of the target parent were analyzed.

The participants completed a survey packet that contained three six-item surveys—one for the parent, child, and interviewer (i.e. the Interview Survey created by the researcher; See Appendix A). Attached to the survey packet was a thirteen-item questionnaire that the participants completed as well (i.e. the Additional Questionnaire created by the researcher; See Appendix B). The questionnaire consisted of thirteen questions from the Social Role Questionnaire (SRQ), which was a measure of the contemporary idea that social roles should be seen as gender neutral. The SRQ was adapted from the version used in Baber and Tucker’s (2006) research.

The general goal of this study was to investigate current social perceptions regarding emotional gender role violations through atypical emotional display in the context of parenting. The unanswered question the current study seeks to answer is whether men and women are still perceived as opposites in emotional expression in the role of parenting. I predicted that a single dad displaying the emotion of sadness would be rated by the participants as significantly less competent, less knowledgeable, and less approved than a single dad showing anger. In contrast, I predicted there would be no significant differences in participant’s ratings of a mom who displayed both sadness and anger (i.e. control group) because women are perceived as being more “emotional” and
will be granted more freedom in emotional expression by participants when participants rate their parenting skills.

Method

Participants

A total of 98 undergraduate students, 38 males and 60 females, participated in this study in order to fulfill an optional Introductory Psychology course requirement. They were recruited from both the online Marietta College Research Participation Pool and from viewing and replying to flyers placed around the campus. The mean age of participants was 19 years old (SD = 3.29).

Materials

Videotaped Interviews. Similar to the methodology employed by Brescoll et al.’s (2008) study, the current study used videotaped interviews of parents displaying emotion created by the primary researcher. In all four interviews, target parents were confederates who wore semi-professional attire and were interviewed to determine if their children would be good candidates for certain after school programs; the interviewer was out of view of the camera during the entire interview. The confederates (i.e. parents) were seated at a table and answered questions concerning their profession, size of family, and why they wanted their children to be in an after school program.

The confederate responded to the interviewer’s questions differently depending on the condition. During the interview, three major issues surfaced that caused the target parent to exhibit an emotion (i.e. uncomfortable divorce, children misbehaved at school, and the after school programs charge extra money for parents being late). The parent reacted with either anger or sadness during the interview depending on the condition (i.e.}
sad vs. angry).

In addition to watching the interview video clips, participants completed the following dependent measures and secondary analysis measure after viewing the video clip of the interview.

**Dependent Measures.** Similar to the measures of Brescoll et al. (2008), participants completed three six-item surveys in which they rated the target parent on the trait dimensions of competent-incompetent, knowledgeable-ignorant, and approval-disapproval using 7-point scales (1 = disagree, 7 = agree). The questions that elicited the participant’s ratings of parental competence (i.e. aware of child’s needs; supportive of child), knowledge (i.e. discipline techniques), and approval (i.e. for entry into the after school program) were marked with an asterisk and were used on the Interview Survey created by the researcher (See Appendix A & D).

**Secondary Analysis Measure.** Participants completed an additional thirteen-item questionnaire (see Appendix B), which used a 7-point scale (1 = disagree, 7 = agree), with five questions taken from the Gender Transcendent subscale and eight questions from the Gender-Linked subscale imbedded within the Social Roles Questionnaire (Baber et al., 2006). The Social Roles Questionnaire (SRQ) measures the contemporary idea that gender roles should be seen as equal. In Appendix B, there are eight questions marked with asterisks that tend to reflect more traditional beliefs about gender and social roles if the participant rates them with a higher indication of agreement (For example, “A father’s major responsibility is to provide financially for his children” and “Only some types of work are appropriate for both men and women”). The SRQ was included in the analysis to examine any possible significant interactions in the primary analyses in which
participants may have rated the target parents differently on the three dependent variables based on their individual SRQ scores. Low scores (13-32) on the SRQ reflected egalitarian beliefs concerning gender and social roles, whereas high scores (33-64) reflected more traditional beliefs.

Baber et al. (2006) found the SRQ to be both reliable and valid. The SRQ has both internal and test-retest reliability with a Cronbach α of .86 for the General Scale and .71 for the Gender Transcendental Scale. Convergent validity was calculated using the Modern Sexism Scale, in which scores were found to be correlated with those scores on the General subscale \( r = .36, p < .01 \) and the Career Orientation Scale (Baber et al., 2006).

Procedure

Participants arrived at the laboratory assuming that they would be judging parent and child applicants, as well as an interviewer, for an after school program. More specifically, the participants believed that they were judges rating the general acceptability of a parent and child into an after school program and an interviewer on her ability to conduct the interview procedure. In actuality, the parents and interviewer were confederates of the experimenter who read a scripted interview on camera; the children were fictitious and never actually made an appearance on any interview clip. Prior to beginning the study, each participant met with the experimenter and was asked to read and sign an informed consent form. After reading a brief summary of the cover story (See Appendix C), the participants were shown the criteria they would use to rate the interviewees and the interviewer (See Appendix D). Next, the experimenter left the participant alone in a cubicle to watch one of the four video clips (i.e. conditions: sad
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dad, angry dad, sad mom, angry mom). Afterwards, the experimenter instructed the participants to complete the survey packet.

At the conclusion of the session, all participants were probed for suspicion and asked if they had any questions or concerns about the study. All participants were then thanked and informed they would be emailed or sent a letter with the complete explanation of the study and a copy of the results.

Results

This study was conducted to examine whether gender and emotion had a significant effect on participants’ ratings of a single divorced parent in competency, knowledge, and approval. An alpha level of .05 was used for the following three independent factorial analyses of variance (ANOVAs) and all other analyses conducted on the data. The effect size of each ANOVA was computed using partial $\eta^2$ where a small sized effect is indicated by $\eta^2 = .01$, a medium sized effect is indicated by $\eta^2 = .06$, and a large sized effect is indicated by $\eta^2 = .14$ (Cohen, 1988). Refer to Table 1 for information on participant distribution in each of the four video conditions; refer to Table 2 for the means and standard deviations of participant’s overall ratings of the parent’s competency, knowledge, and approval.

To assess the influence of the manipulations of gender and emotion on participant’s ratings of the parent’s competency, a 2 (Parent Gender: single dad, single mom) X 2 (Emotion: sadness, anger) ANOVA was performed on participant’s responses as to whether they perceived the parent as competent. This analysis yielded a main effect for the single parent’s gender, $F(1, 49) = 4.55, p = .036, \eta^2 = .046$. The participants rated the single dad ($M = 4.36, SD = 1.25$) as significantly less competent than the single mom
(M = 4.89, SD = 1.18), regardless of the emotion that was displayed. The main effect for the emotion manipulation as well as the expected parent gender by emotion interaction was not significant (Fs < 1; See Table 3).

A second 2 (Parent Gender: single dad, single mom) X 2 (Emotion: sadness, anger) ANOVA assessed the influence of gender and emotion on participant’s ratings of the parent’s knowledge. Overall, there were no significant main effects for the gender or emotion manipulations (Fs < 1). There was also no significant interaction (Fs < 1). These results indicate that participants perceived sad/angry moms and sad/angry dads as equivalent in their knowledge as parents (See Table 4).

A third and final 2 (Parent Gender: single dad, single mom) X 2 (Emotion: sadness, anger) ANOVA was conducted on participant’s approval ratings of how much they acceptable they perceived the parents to be for the after school programs. Similar to the results of the previous ANOVA, there were no significant main effects for the gender or emotion manipulations and no significant interaction found (Fs < 1; See Table 5).

A secondary analysis was conducted using a bivariate Pearson correlation to examine whether participant’s ratings of competency, knowledge, and approval for parents were associated with their beliefs concerning gender and social roles (i.e. traditional, egalitarian), which were reflected by their scores on the Social Roles Questionnaire (SRQ). It was hypothesized that participants scoring high on traditional gender role beliefs might rate the sad dad more negatively than the angry dad or the sad/angry mom. The data revealed no significant correlations between participants SRQ scores (i.e. gender role beliefs) and their ratings of the target parent’s competency, knowledge, and approval (See Table 6).
Discussion

Research on gender stereotypes shows that men and women are expected to behave in accordance with their cultural gender roles (Ashmore et al., 1979; Plant et al., 2000). Similarly, gender stereotypes are both descriptive and prescriptive in regards to the emotions that men and women are allowed to display (Shields, 2000). For instance, one common gender stereotype is that women are generally more emotional than men (Fischer et al., 2000). Therefore, this study was conducted to investigate current social perceptions of emotional gender role violations in the context of parenting. Additionally, research on parenting has shown that single parents are typically evaluated more negatively than married parents (Eggebeen et al., 1996; Leining et al., 2008). This negative evaluation persists even though the divorce rate has increased dramatically in Western society since the late 1980s (Rosen-Grandon, Meyers, & Hattie, 2004), which may account for the rising numbers of single parent households (Klebanow, 1976).

The current study examined gender role violations caused by atypical emotional displays to examine whether these violations would result in a significant difference in ratings of competency, knowledge, and approval for a single dad who displayed sadness compared to a single dad displaying anger, as well as a single mom displaying both anger and sadness. In other words, I investigated whether a participant would rate a sad dad as a significantly less competent and knowledgeable parent, as well as less approved as a responsible parent for entry into an afterschool program, compared to an angry dad, sad mom, or angry mom.

Although the findings revealed a significant main effect of parent gender for competency ratings, a major portion of the findings failed to confirm the expected
significant interactions and the expected negative ratings of parental competence, knowledge, and approval for the sad dad as compared to the angry dad and the mom who displayed both emotions. More specifically, the results indicated that the sad dad was rated as significantly less competent than the sad mom, angry dad, and angry mom. However, the results failed to confirm the predictions in which the gender of the target parent and the emotion that was displayed was expected to have a significant effect on the participant’s reported ratings of knowledge and approval. In general, the data showed that there was no significant difference in participant’s ratings of the single dad versus the single mom, except in participant’s ratings of the target parent’s competency. There are several possible factors that may have contributed to the lack of significant findings from the current study.

First, the emotions displayed by the confederates in the interview clips may not have been at the proper intensity level that would have allowed participants to believe the emotional display was significant or genuine. One suggestion for future researchers is for them to conduct a pilot study where a separate group of participants can be used to verify the emotional intensity as believable and real. A second suggestion for future researchers is for them to implement a manipulation check at the end of each session in both the pilot study and the primary study to probe for participant’s suspicion of the true nature of the study.

Second, it is possible that participants did not fully read or understand the cover story before they watched the interview clip. In order to ensure that participants are fully invested in the experiment, future researchers should either read the instructions to the
participants or have an assistant read the instructions rather than having participants read a written version of the instructions.

Many researchers have demonstrated the negative effects of gender role violation through displaying gender-inconsistent emotions (Brescoll et al., 2008; Brody, 2000; Shields, 2000). In addition, some studies have generally shown that single dads are negatively evaluated compared to single moms (Eggebeen et al., 1996; Leininger et al., 2008; Troili et al., 2008). However, the results of this experiment do not support the conclusions of previous research. This experiment should be conducted again using the suggested corrections to re-examine the influence of gender role violation through atypical emotional display on participant’s social perceptions of single dads.
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Appendix A

Interview Survey

Instructions: Please circle “he” or “she” to indicate if you are rating a father or a mother. Also, please circle the number corresponding to how much you agree with each statement based on the interview you just watched. Be sure to take your time and answer each question honestly please.

1 = Disagree  7 = Agree

In regards to the Parent:

1. He/she is a clear speaker.
   1  2  3  4  5  6  7

2. He/she is an attentive person.
   1  2  3  4  5  6  7

3. He/she is a competent parent.
   1  2  3  4  5  6  7

4. He/she is a knowledgeable parent.
   1  2  3  4  5  6  7

5. He/she is an honest person.
   1  2  3  4  5  6  7

6. Overall, you would approve this applicant for entry into an afterschool program.
   1  2  3  4  5  6  7
Instructions: Please circle “he” or “she” to indicate if you are rating a boy or a girl. Also, please circle the number corresponding to how much you agree with each statement based on the interview you just watched. Be sure to take your time and answer each question honestly please.

1 = Disagree 7 = Agree

In regards to the Child:

1. He/she is a clear speaker.
   
   1  2  3  4  5  6  7

2. He/she is an attentive child.
   
   1  2  3  4  5  6  7

3. He/she is a well-behaved child.
   
   1  2  3  4  5  6  7

4. He/she is an intelligent child.
   
   1  2  3  4  5  6  7

5. He/she is an honest child.
   
   1  2  3  4  5  6  7

6. Overall, you would approve this applicant for entry into an afterschool program.
   
   1  2  3  4  5  6  7
Instructions: Please circle “he” or “she” to indicate if you are rating a male or female interviewer. Also, please circle the number corresponding to how much you agree with each statement based on the interview you just watched. **Be sure to take your time and answer each question honestly please.**

1 = Disagree 7 = Agree

**In regards to the Interviewer:**

1. He/she is a clear speaker.

   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

2. He/she is an attentive person.

   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

3. He/she is a competent interviewer.

   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

4. He/she is a knowledgeable interviewer.

   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

5. He/she is an honest person.

   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

6. Overall, you would approve of this interviewer as acceptable and efficient.

   1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Appendix B

Additional Questionnaire

Please fill out the following information before proceeding to the next section of this survey.

1. Please circle your gender:  Female   Male

2. Please indicate your age: ______

3. Please indicate your major/minor:___________________________________

4. Please circle one:

   Single-parent household   Two-parent household   Blended household (stepfamily)

Instructions: Please circle the number that corresponds to how much you agree with each statement.

1 = Disagree                      7 = Agree

1. Mothers should make most decisions about how children are brought up*.

   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

2. Girls should be protected and watched over more than boys*.

   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

3. Mothers should work only if necessary.*

   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

4. A father's major responsibility is to provide financially for his children*.

   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

5. The freedom that children are given should be determined by their age and maturity level and not by their sex.

   1   2   3   4   5   6   7

6. People can be both aggressive and nurturing regardless of sex.

   1   2   3   4   5   6   7
1 = Disagree  
7 = Agree

7. Tasks around the house should not be assigned by sex.
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

8. For many important jobs, it is better to choose men instead of women*.
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

9. Men are more sexual than women*.
   1 2 3 4 5 6 7

10. People should be treated the same regardless of sex.
    1 2 3 4 5 6 7

11. We should stop thinking about whether people are male or female and focus on other characteristics.
    1 2 3 4 5 6 7

12. Some types of work are just not appropriate for women*.
    1 2 3 4 5 6 7

13. Only some types of work are appropriate for both men and women*.
    1 2 3 4 5 6 7
Appendix C

**Background Information:**

There has been a large demand for children to be accepted into after school programs in Marietta, Ohio. Some of these after school programs include the Boys and Girls Club and the YMCA. These institutions have certain criteria they have developed in order to assess the acceptability of both the child and parent applying. They are currently restructuring their application process and are now utilizing videotaped interviews of the parents and their children for their new assessment technique. They have asked the MC Psychology Department to conduct a pilot study, which in turn was handed to some of the graduate students including me for our practicum credit.

Some of the main problems with these institutions taking on extra children in their programs are that the parents do not tend to follow through with outlined procedures for picking up and dropping off their children, discipline at home is inconsistent, and homework problems have been surfacing. In order to control for these unacceptable behaviors, the new assessment program gages the acceptability and appropriateness of the parent as well as the child.

The interviews are pretty lengthy. In order to save time, I have provided a relatively short clip from one of the interviews for you to watch and produce your ratings. There are different segments to these interviews and I will not be made aware which segment you are watching.

Your task is to merely watch the clip and make your ratings based on the criteria handed down from one of the institutions which I will provide for you. You are going to rate the interviewer, parent, and/or the child. For some clips, the children may or may not be present. All that matters is that you rate the people who were in the video clip. Please take your time, watch the video, and make your ratings at your own pace. If this pilot study is proven effective, it may just open up new work study jobs for college students like you.

Let’s begin.
Appendix D

Criteria for Acceptable Interviewer, Parents, and Children

Interviewer must be:
1) Objective when asking questions
2) Straightforward about the guidelines of the after school programs
3) Unbiased in the questioning process (i.e. does not ask inappropriate or irrelevant questions)
4) A good speaker (i.e. when speaking, he or she is understandable and clear)
5) A good listener (i.e. when listening to the applicants answers, he or she does not interrupt)

Parent must be:
1) Good communication (verbal) skills
2) Actively employed (i.e. has a job or some form of income to rely on)
3) Knowledgeable (i.e. consistent in the use of discipline techniques)
4) Competent (i.e. aware of child’s mental and physical needs, supportive of child)
5) Honest and punctual

Child must be:
1) Relatively knowledgeable in their grade level
2) Up to date on their immunizations and allergies
3) Relatively sociable (unless a disability hinders development of social skills)
4) Compliant with the rules, regulations, and staff of the institution
5) Well-behaved (i.e. does not cause trouble on a daily basis)
Table 1

*Total Number of Male and Female Participants in the Four Video Conditions*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Video Conditions:</th>
<th>Males</th>
<th>Females</th>
<th>Total Participants</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. Sad Dad</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Angry Dad</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>15</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Sad Mom</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>14</td>
<td>24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Angry Mom</td>
<td>9</td>
<td>16</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>38</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>98</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 2

*Means and Standard Deviations for Participant’s Ratings in the Four Conditions*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Video Conditions</th>
<th>Competency</th>
<th>Knowledge</th>
<th>Approval</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sad Dad</td>
<td>4.37 (1.34)</td>
<td>4.08 (1.69)</td>
<td>4.96 (1.52)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Angry Dad</td>
<td>4.36 (1.19)</td>
<td>4.36 (1.32)</td>
<td>4.00 (1.47)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sad Mom</td>
<td>4.83 (1.31)</td>
<td>4.75 (1.54)</td>
<td>4.58 (1.64)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Angry Mom</td>
<td>4.96 (1.06)</td>
<td>4.28 (1.02)</td>
<td>4.68 (1.28)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note: Standard deviations are in parentheses.
Table 3

Analysis of Variance Statistics for Competency Ratings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>$\eta^2$</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Emotion (E)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.05</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.822</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender (G)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>4.55</td>
<td>.046</td>
<td>.036</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E X G</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.776</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>(1.51)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note. Values analyzed using $\alpha = .05$*
Table 4

*Analysis of Variance Statistics for Knowledge Ratings*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>$\eta^2$</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Emotion (E)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.11</td>
<td>.001</td>
<td>.735</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender (G)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.06</td>
<td>.011</td>
<td>.306</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E X G</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>1.71</td>
<td>.018</td>
<td>.194</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>(1.99)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* Values analyzed using $\alpha = .05$
Table 5

Analysis of Variance Statistics for Approval Ratings

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>η²</th>
<th>p</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Emotion (E)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>2.07</td>
<td>.022</td>
<td>.153</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Gender (G)</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>.26</td>
<td>.003</td>
<td>.612</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>E X G</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>3.11</td>
<td>.032</td>
<td>.081</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Error</td>
<td>94</td>
<td>(2.19)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*Note.* Values analyzed using α = .05
Table 6

*Intercorrelations Between Participant’s SRQ Scores and Ratings in the Sad and Angry Conditions*

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Source</th>
<th>1.</th>
<th>2.</th>
<th>3.</th>
<th>4.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. SRQ Scores</td>
<td>---</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Competency</td>
<td>-.09</td>
<td>---</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Knowledge</td>
<td>-.04</td>
<td>.57**</td>
<td>---</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. Approval</td>
<td>.08</td>
<td>.44**</td>
<td>.48**</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).
* Correlation is significant at .05 level (2-tailed).
Figure Captions

*Figure 1.* The effect of gender and emotion on participant’s ratings of competency in the sad/angry dad and sad/angry mom conditions.

*Figure 2.* The effect of gender and emotion on participant’s ratings of knowledge in the sad/angry dad and sad/angry mom conditions.

*Figure 3.* The effect of gender and emotion on participant’s ratings of approval in the sad/angry dad and sad/angry mom conditions.
Gender Stereotypes

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Emotion Condition</th>
<th>Participant's Competency Ratings</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sad</td>
<td>dad</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>angry</td>
<td>mom</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

![Graph showing participant's competency ratings for sad and angry emotions for dad and mom.](image-url)
Participant's Approval Ratings vs. Emotion Condition

- Dad
- Mom

Scales:
- Participant's Approval Ratings: 1 to 7
- Emotion Conditions: Sad, Angry