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THE ADORED PET EFFECT: HOW MEN PERCEIVE WOMEN PERFORMING IN
STEREOTYPICALLY MASCULINE DOMAINS

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ABSTRACT

In Western cultures, masculinity has three core components (Vescio et al., 2010). To be a good man means to have power (the ability to influence others) and/or status (respect of others), to be physically, emotionally, and mentally tough, and to repudiate and distance from all that is feminine or gay (i.e. avoid everything “sissy”). We can assume, then, that men will feel “non-manly” when they are unable to demonstrate these components. Two studies examined how men responded to other men and women who performed better or worse than they did on an important task. In particular, the present theory and research examined the possibility that, in stereotypically masculine domains, men feel threatened by women who outperform them and disrespect women who perform far less well than them, but adore women who perform objectively well but not as well as they do (making them an “adored pet”). To test predictions, we manipulated partner gender (male or female) and partner performance (outperform, pet, or underperform). Results show effects of gender or performance condition on several variables such as perceived warmth and competence. Contrary to predictions, however, partner gender and performance condition did not consistently interact. Instead, regardless of partner gender, people preferred well performing but non-threatening partners who did not surpass their performance. Further research is necessary to determine whether an “adored pet” (a woman who is both liked and respected because she is competent but poses no threat to a man’s masculinity) exists in such domains or if pets are preferred regardless of their gender.

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INTRODUCTION

The goal of the present work is to (1) extend work showing that competent women in masculine domains threaten men's masculinity and (2) examine the possibility that women can do well and/or be competent in masculine domains without penalties, but only if well-performing women do not threaten men's masculinity.

In order to accomplish this, we must first reexamine the nature of masculinity, as well as what constitutes a masculinity threat and the consequences when masculinity is threatened. We can then assess typical stereotypes of women and how these views may affect male perceptions of women – specifically women performing in stereotypically masculine domains.

What is masculinity and what is masculinity threat?

Masculinity

Previous research shows that masculinity is a cherished social identity because men have had continual experience of gender being a self-defining characteristic (Herek, 1986). Boys learn how to be men simply from learning how not to be women (Herek, 1986). In addition, Vescio et al. (2010) describes the many behaviors and actions that accompany the maturation of males in a variety of cultures – from the participation in dangerous rituals and beatings to un-anesthetized circumcisions and proving of certain, perhaps stereotypically, masculine skills like hunting or fishing.

Specifically, in Western societies, masculinity is intensely socialized from childhood through adulthood and is rigorously policed, with gender atypical boys being subject to particularly harsh punishment. To be a “good man” means that one must consistently exhibit certain behaviors. “Heterosexual masculinity,” as defined by Herek

(1986), outlines significant male characteristics as success and status, toughness and independence, and aggressiveness and dominance; particularly, it is not feminine in any way, from demeanor (i.e. compliant, dependent, or submissive) to physical appearance. Likewise, Vescio et al. (2010) lists the key components of masculinity as power or status (men's desires for respect and admiration, concerns about successes, having influence over others as opposed to being influenced, etc.), toughness (lack of weakness – physically, mentally, and emotionally), and anti-femininity (avoiding all traits and behaviors interpreted as “sissy”).

When is Masculinity Threatened?

Given the foregoing points, it has been suggested that men experience threats to masculinity when faced with failings along any of the core components of masculinity. In other words, a man will feel “non-manly” when he (a) lacks power or status, as when he fails to influence others or secure the respect of others, (b) fails to be physically, mentally, and/or emotionally tough, and/or (c) acts, feels, or thinks at all in such a way that could be interpreted as similar to women or gay men. Therefore, when a man is unable to consistently and unambiguously demonstrate any of these core components of masculinity, he experiences a threat to his masculinity. This concept is evident in a variety of previous research.

As noted, masculinity is a cherished social identity. Importantly, social identity theorists have identified different kinds of social identity threats (Branscombe, Ellemers, Spears, & Doosje, 1999; Maass, Cadinu, Guatneri, & Grasselli, 2003). First, a *category threat* describes when people feel threatened because they are categorized against their will as belonging to a certain group. This can occur when men are mistaken as gay

(Bosson, Prewitt-Freilino, & Taylor, 2005). Second, a *prototypicality threat* refers to when a group or team member feels that he or she is no longer a good/prototypic member. To be a bad man is to lack power and status, or to otherwise fail to be sufficiently tough – mentally, physically, or emotionally. Such insults occur, for instance, when men are presented with feedback suggesting that they scored more like a woman than a man on a gender knowledge test (Rudman and Fairchild, 2004). Third, a *distinctiveness threat* is when the cherished in-group is no longer perceived as different from the out-group, as when people learn that women have gained status and become more similar to men over the years (Maass et al., 2003). Fourth, a *threat to group value* occurs in response to the suggestion that one's in-group is less valued or inferior to the out-group, as when one's group is outperformed by members of another group (Maass et al., 2003). Fifth, and finally, a *legitimacy threat* is presumed to be a special kind of threat to group value, which occurs when the legitimacy of a status difference is questioned, as feminists may do (Maass et al., 2003).

Several recent studies document findings evidencing the fact that threats to masculinity occur in a variety of ways and with important outcomes.

First, threats to masculinity inspire sexual harassment. In a study performed by Maass et al. (2003), male participants completing a virtual study were more likely to send pornographic images as a form of sexual harassment to, or have the intent to harass, their ostensible female partner who they were told they were interacting with on the computer when the female partner was a feminist woman who challenged the idea that status differences existed between genders, resulting in *legitimacy threat* to the masculinity of participants (Maass et al., 2003). Male participants were also more likely to harass (and

send even more offensive images along with the harassment) to their female partners when their masculinity was questioned and they were told they were an “atypical male” (*prototypical threat*), as well as when they were told the males in general were “losing masculinity and becoming increasingly similar to females (*distinctiveness threat*)” (Maass et al., 2003).

Second, questioning the sexual orientation of a man results in threats to masculinity. Research done by Bosson et al. (2005) examined identity misclassification and *category threat*. When participants were asked to imagine themselves performing either stereotypically masculine or feminine behaviors and then report their level of self-conscious discomfort, men reported more discomfort when visualizing feminine behaviors such as dancing in a ballet class, styling hair, interior designing, reading fashion magazines, etc. (Bosson et al., 2005). Male participants also estimated a greater likelihood that they would be perceived as gay if others witnessed them performing these behaviors and, in follow-up studies, felt less discomfort performing a feminine hair-styling task when having publically disclaimed their status as a gay man than those participants not assigned to the public disclaimer condition (Bosson et al., 2005).

Although this research by Bosson et al. (2005) generally shows male participants internalizing threats to masculinity as self-conscious discomfort, more research, similar to that of Maass et al. (2003), show support for the theory that men will act upon this discomfort. Rudman (1998) describes the *backlash effect* – a phenomenon where violating stereotypes may result in social reprisals. Rudman and Fairfield (2004) examined this effect further and showed that women were sabotaged by participants competing in a virtual competition context when they succeeded in a masculine domain,

as opposed to the feminine domain, classifying them as “gender deviants.” Even though Rudman and Fairfield describe this effect as a cultural phenomenon that impacts both genders equally and not a result of masculinity threat, further research indicates otherwise.

Third, men experience threats to masculinity when outperformed by a woman in a masculine domain, or a domain in which the attributes associated with success are stereotypically linked to men but not women. In a study performed by Vescio and Dahl (2013), male participants who were told they performed similar to the “average undergraduate woman” in a virtual masculine domain reported feeling more public discomfort and concern about how they would be viewed. This discomfort then led to feelings of anger. After testing whether this feeling of threat, and therefore discomfort and anger, would lead male participants to sexualize the female participants who outperformed them in a effort to keep control of their masculine power and appease the threat, it was found that participants selected avatars for the female participant with more sexually-revealing outfits (Vescio & Dahl, 2013). Specifically, this research by Vescio and Dahl shows that men respond with anger when their power or status is questioned and may go as far as to sexualize women to an extensive degree when there is ambivalence as to how different they are from the typical woman.

Based on the variety of research provided about masculinity threats and their consequences, specifically as both relate to treatment of women, we wonder if it is possible for a woman to perform objectively well in a stereotypically masculine domain in comparison to the men surrounding her without threatening their masculinity. This also begs the question whether, having threatened masculinity, women can perform well

without being targets of sexual aggression or sexualization. In order to analyze this we must also understand the stereotypes typically associated with certain subgroups of women and how they may be perceived by men.

Stereotypes of Women

Core Dimensions of Person Perception: Warmth and Competence

People hold ambivalent stereotypes of out-groups, including women. Ambivalent stereotypes can be understood given a consideration of the two dimensions of competence and warmth. According to the Stereotype Content Model, “people want to know other’s intent (i.e. warmth) and capability to pursue it (i.e. competence) (Fiske, Cuddy, Glick, & Xu, 2002). Fiske et al. (2002) argues that, traditionally, these two dimensions exist together in an interesting way regarding perceptions of different groups of people. Specifically, these dimensions are universal and fundamental in person perception, as well as being linked to understandings of how different subgroups of women are perceived (Fiske, Cuddy, & Glick, 2007).

The first ambivalent subgroup of women is perceived as warm but incompetent. “Traditional women,” such as housewives or “chicks,” are perceived as very warm but also dependent and incompetent; this, then, makes them well-liked but not well-respected. Liked but disrespected out-groups tend to be thought of as nonthreatening, low power, and recipients of pity. This is defined by Fiske et al. (2002) as a sort of *paternalistic stereotype* relating to gender, where benevolent sexism is directed toward traditional women “who are viewed as warm but not competent outside the home.”

By contrast, an alternate subgroup of women is stereotyped as cold but competent. “Nontraditional women” are those with professional careers, feminists, lesbians, and

women with athletic talent and ability; this makes them well-respected but not well-liked (Fiske et al., 2002). This out-group tends to be regarded as high status and thought of with resentment. This is defined by Fiske et al. (2002) as an *envious stereotype* relating to gender, where hostile sexism is directed toward nontraditional women.

Because it is clear given these stereotypes that women are perceived, based on their particular subgroup, as either very warm or very competent (and never both simultaneously), the present research explores whether it is possible for women in either subgroup (traditional or nontraditional) to maximize how warm they are perceived and how competent they are perceived. In other words, can a woman perform objectively well in comparison to a man and be both highly liked and highly respected by that man? Further, is this scenario possible only in the absence of a threat to a man's masculinity?

The Adored Pet Effect

Kanter (1977) defines "tokens" as women in organizational settings who are members of skewed groups that contain a larger proportion of one type of member (in this case, "dominants"). "The dominant group can incorporate tokens and still preserve their generalizations about the tokens' kind by inducting them into stereotypical roles; these roles preserve the familiar form of interaction between the kinds of people represented by the token and the dominants" (Kanter, 1977).

Kanter suggests that women are confined to four roles. First, the "Mother" is a woman to a group of men who is just that – a mother. She comforts the males, listens to their problems, and may even engage in activities like cooking or doing their laundry in certain cases. She is rewarded by male colleagues for helping them and not for anything she may do on her own, is expected to be nurturing and non-critical, and she is

emotionally involved in the males' lives (Kanter, 1977). Second, the "Seductress" is a sexual object that introduces jealousy and competition among males in the organization. She walks a fine line between being called a whore for making herself available to many men and causing resentment among other males if she chooses just one. High-status males often consider themselves her "protectors" (Kanter, 1977). Third, the "Iron maiden" is the contemporary strong woman who resists flirtation and may be perceived as "tough or dangerous." She considers herself an equal in the group and is kept at a distance for believing so (Kanter, 1977). Fourth, and finally, the "Pet" is a woman who is a "cute, amusing little thing" that is included in the masculine group as a sort of cheerleader. She often has a sense of humor and is expected to admire behaviors of men without getting involved. When she exhibits competence in a particular area, it is treated as amazing and surprising by male counterparts simply because of how unexpected it is (Kanter, 1977). "Such attitudes on the part of men in a group encourage...girlish responses on the part of solitary women and prevent them from realizing or demonstrating their own power and competence" (Kanter, 1977).

The role of the pet is of particular importance to the present research. Building from Kanter, and following the logic of the Stereotype Content Model and masculinity threat, we argue that the "adored pet" is a woman who is perceived as both warm and competent in a masculine domain but only when her performance is objectively and consistently good, yet just below that of a man's. Her competent, yet slightly inferior performance does not threaten his masculinity; thus, the Adored Pet Effect leads to a situation in which gender bias is (or appears to be) minimized (or as small as it can get) in masculine domains.

The degree to which a woman is perceived as warm drives liking and follows from perceptions of the degree that a woman is seen as having benevolent or malevolent motives. Perceptions of competence drive feelings of respect and stem from perceptions of ability to act on one's motives (Fiske et al., 2007). This ability to act on one's motives and perform objectively well does not necessarily mean she must outperform others, therefore posing no threat to a man's masculinity. A woman who performs well, but less well than men, may be able to walk the fine line, preserving perceptions of warmth and competence and, thus, inspiring feelings of both liking and respect. A woman who is perceived as an "adored pet," because she does not outperform a man but still performs well by any given standard, will be most liked and respected in comparison to a woman who outperforms or underperforms a man and a man who outperforms, underperforms, or performs well but not as well as another man.

Overview of the Present Research and Hypotheses

These studies utilized a 2 (partner gender: male, female) X 3 (partner performance: outperform, pet, underperform) between-subjects design. The main dependent variables were task allocation, praise, professional and social inclusion, and impressions of competence and warmth.

Participants completed a virtual study in which they were paired with an ostensible female or male partner. After completing questionnaires about themselves and receiving prefabricated questionnaires from their partners, participants completed three skills tests and received feedback on theirs and their partners' performance. Participants then rated their partners based on the main dependent variables mentioned above. The following hypotheses were tested over the studies included in this paper.

Hypothesis 1: When compared to a woman who outperforms or underperforms a man, the woman who is the adored pet should be perceived as high in both warmth and competence. The woman who outperforms male participants will be considered equally competent but less warm than the adored pet woman. The underperforming woman will be similarly as warm but less competent than the adored pet woman.

As opposed to a man who may still perform well but not as well as another man, only women are considered adored pets. Based on the core components of masculinity, only women in certain positions of power or with a particular “toughness” can threaten masculinity, and only men seek to avoid being like women or similar to anything female.

Hypothesis 2: The female adored pet should be warmer and thought of as more competent than the male who performs well but not as well as the male participant.

Hypothesis 3: Interpersonal behaviors will follow from perceptions of warmth (i.e. praise), and assignments of valued tasks (or the giving or opportunities which render one capable of earning valued resources) will follow from perceptions of competence (Vescio et al., 2005). Valued tasks tend to have a zero sum nature, such that giving resources to one limits the ability to give resources to another. By contrast, interpersonal pleasantries have a more non-zero sum nature and can be bestowed upon multiple individuals. Both types of behaviors convey a worker’s worth, but not to equal degrees.

Table 1 presents the conceptual values associated with the perceived competence and warmth of female and male partners by male participants based on whether female and male partners outperform the participant, perform less well than the participant (the adored pet condition), or significantly underperform the participants.

Two studies were used to test these hypotheses. In Study 1, participants were told they'd be working alongside a male or female "office-mate" to eventually complete a "marketing project." They would perform tasks on their own but their final project would be submitted as a unit. In Study 2, participants were told they would be working to eventually complete a "strategic plan of attack game" but would not be working as a team or unit with their office-mate. They would, however, be able to share information with their office-mate while they competed against others, individually, in the strategic plan of attack game. This change in language was thought to increase the masculine nature of the task.

Study 1

METHOD

Participants

Participants were 147 Pennsylvania State University undergraduate men. Participants identified themselves as White (82.3%), Asian (6.8%), Latino (4.1%), Black (3.5%), mixed ethnicities (2%), Native American, and Indian (both < 1%). Participants ranged from ages 18 to 32 ($Md = 19$ years). Ten participants (6.8% of the sample, equally distributed across performance and partner gender conditions) indicated suspicion in the debriefing and were removed from the data, leaving 137 participants in the final sample.

Measures

Praise. Participants were told that they had the chance to send their office-mate a message. The message was as follows: “Hi (Mike/Jessica), given your responses to the background and getting acquainted questionnaires, you seem to be ____.” Participants then choose which number on the Likert scale best represented their opinion of their office-mate. There were four praise items with 9-point bipolar adjective scales: *not very nice – very nice*, *not very interesting – very interesting*, *not very similar to me – very similar to me*, *vague – detailed* (filler item), *not very genuine – genuine*. The alpha level for the four items was low ($\alpha = .69$); but after deleting the “*similar to me*” item, the alpha level was sufficient ($\alpha = .72$). Therefore the “*similar to me*” item was dropped and the final praise measure consisted of the average of three items: “*nice*,” “*interesting*,” and “*genuine*.”

Valued and Devalued Tasks. In addition to being analyzed alone (total number of valued tasks assigned), a difference score of valued – devalued tasks was also

calculated to measure task assignment. Valued tasks included any of the five tasks listed under “financial forecasting” and devalued tasks included any five tasks listed under “consumer relations” (see Appendix). Participants could choose any combination of valued and devalued tasks, and could assign up to five valued and five devalued tasks to their office-mate. “Financial forecasting” tasks was defined as the primary determinant of the project’s success and those that did well with these tasks had the same skills defined at the outset (rational problem solving, straightforward communicating and dominant promoting of ideas). “Consumer relations” tasks were defined as necessary for project completion but as not directly influencing the value of the marketing project.

Trait Ratings

Warmth. Participants rated their partner on the following adjectives on a 1 (*Not at all*) to 7 (*Extremely*) Likert scale: Unfriendly(R), cold (R), unlikeable (R), manipulative (R), warm, good natured, sincere, and kind. The warmth measure was created by averaging these items; the scale was deemed reliable ($\alpha = .89$).

Competence. The following items were averaged to create a competence measure, also measured on a 1 (*Not at all*) to 7 (*Extremely*) Likert scale: incapable (R), insecure (R), Ineffective (R), flighty (R), influential, intelligent, confident, and competent ($\alpha = .86$).

Professional Inclusion. The measure of professional inclusion initially included the average of seven items measured on a Likert scale from 1 (*Strongly Disagree*) to 7 (*Strongly Agree*). Items tapped how much participants wanted to work with their office-mate in a professional/academic setting. Two factors emerged from a principal components exploratory factor analysis with a Varimax rotation, based on eigenvalues

greater than one. The first factor included four items measuring how closely participants wanted to work with their office-mate professionally. Sample items include: “I trust that my office-mate will be a good worker during this project” and “I would feel comfortable working closely with my office-mate on an important task in the project.” These items were reliable ($\alpha = .83$).

The second factor included three items measuring what we termed “low power discomfort.” Items from the latter factor conveyed nervousness with the office-mate taking the lead on the project, such as “I would feel uneasy if my office-mate decided the tasks for which I would be responsible” and “I would prefer to avoid working with my office-mate if he/she wanted to take the lead on the marketing project.” These items had an acceptable measure of reliability ($\alpha = .73$). One item that cross-loaded on both factors and was analyzed separately in further analyses measured the extent to which participants would recommend their office-mate to a friend majoring in marketing, economics, or finance.

Social Inclusion. Participants rated their partners on how likely they would include their office-mate in social situation. This measure was reliable ($\alpha = .83$) and was created by averaging six items measured on a Likert scale from 1 (*Strongly Disagree*) to 7 (*Strongly Agree*). Sample items include “I think my office-mate and I have a lot in common,” “I could see my office-mate and I having lunch together a lot if we worked at the same job,” and “My office-mate seems like someone I’d really like to get to know.” All items loaded onto one factor when submitted to an exploratory factor analysis.

Procedure

Upon arriving in the lab, participants read and signed consent forms. Participants were informed of their right to ask questions, their voluntary participation, and the confidentiality of their responses. For an hour of their time, participants were given course credit for their introductory psychology course; in addition, they would be entered into a drawing to win \$50. A typical study session included at least four male participants and one female participant, all of whom were seated in front of a computer. We were only interested in the responses of male participants.

After signing the consent forms, participants read a brief, one page written introduction that summarized the study and highlighted what they were to expect. The introduction led participants to believe that the experimenters were interested in how working alone or working with a partner affects performance on a marketing project. Importantly, the written introduction also included the manipulation of marketing as a masculine domain. Participants read that those who do well in marketing tend to be “rational problem solvers, straightforward communicators, and those who dominantly promote ideas and beliefs in which they have confidence,” and that these people “excel academically and professionally.” A pilot study revealed that participants believed the following adjectives were significantly more stereotypically masculine than feminine: “competitive,” “rational,” “straightforward,” “confidence,” and “dominant.” This manipulation of the masculine domain was presented to participants later in the study as well.

Assignment of office-mate. After reading the written introduction, participants were told that they would be randomly assigned to either work alone or with an “office-mate” on the marketing project. To increase believability, the research assistant told

participants that their condition assignments were written on the back of index cards that she held out for participants to choose from. In reality, all index cards had the same condition written on the back, and all participants discovered that they would be working with an office mate on the marketing task. The research assistant then instructed participants to, without talking to one another, begin following directions on the computer.

Participants entered their condition information in the computer and were reminded that they would be working with another student in the room who also selected the “office-mate” condition. Through instructions on their computers, they were told to think of their office-mate as a colleague or a fellow student in class; they would do tasks alone, but their work on the marketing project would be submitted as a unit. The best unit that was submitted would win \$50. Participants in the female office-mate condition were informed that they would be working with “Jessica,” while participants in the male office-mate condition saw that they would be working with “Mike.” To reinforce their beliefs that they were interacting with an office-mate, participants believed they would exchange information with their office-mate to get to know each other better. They answered a series of personal questions (e.g. favorite movie, hobbies, etc.) and then saw their office-mate’s (prefabricated) responses to the same questions. This “getting acquainted” procedure has been effective in increasing believability in past studies (Vescio & Dahl, 2013).

Manipulation of office-mate performance. In the skills test portion of the study, participants answered three sets of five quantitative skills questions from the GRE and were given 5 minutes for each test. Participants believed that the tests determined

marketing abilities, and they were reminded that people who do well in marketing are rational problem solvers, straightforward, dominant, and confident (to reinforce the masculine domain). After each test, participants were given their and their office-mate's scores. All participants saw that they scored in the 92nd, the 91st, and the 93rd percentile of all students who take this test nationally (on the first, second, and third test, respectively). Participants in the "outperform" performance condition saw that their office-mate scored in the 99th, 98th, and 99th percentiles; participants in the "pet" performance condition saw that their office-mate scored in the 88th, 87th, and 89th percentiles; those in the "underperform" performance condition saw that their office-mate scored in the 78th, 79th, and 77th percentiles.

Allocation of praise. Participants then were given an opportunity to send a message to their office-mate. They answered five items about their opinion of their office-mate, based on their "getting acquainted" responses. They were informed that their opinions would be sent to their office-mate.

Assignment of marketing tasks. Next, participants were told that they would assign tasks to each other for the marketing project that they would submit as a unit. They saw that there were two types of tasks: "financial forecasting" and "consumer relations." Financial forecasting tasks were defined as the primary determinant of the marketing project's success, and that these tasks are best completed by those who are rational problem solvers and straight-forward communicators. Consumer relations tasks were necessary for the project's completion but did not influence low quality projects or directly influence the value of the project. Thus, the financial forecasting and consumer

relations tasks were conceptualized as the valued and devalued tasks, respectively. See Appendix for specific valued and devalued tasks.

Valued minus devalued task assignments. To control for any perceived power differentials¹ between the partners, we led participants to believe that they were randomly selected to choose tasks for their office-mate, based on their office-mate's abilities. They were informed that each task would be completed by one person and that they would complete tasks that they did not assign to their office-mate. They were given no guidelines as to how many tasks they should select for themselves and their office-mate. There were 5 tasks in each task category (financial forecasting and consumer relations).

Before participants began the ostensible marketing project, they responded to items measuring how well they think they would work with their office-mate. They completed the following dependent measures: professional inclusion, social inclusion, warmth, and competence. They were told to wait for further instruction; the research assistant instructed participants to complete a questionnaire, which probed for suspicion. Once all participants were finished, the research assistant debriefed and thanked participants, who also received a written debriefing form.

¹ To create a peer, co-worker-like relationship, we avoided the creation of power differentials. Thus, participants were like co-workers at the same occupational level, who could help each other succeed but ultimately work alone, in competition for resources.

Study 1

RESULTS

Each dependent variable (praise, valued tasks minus devalued tasks assigned, warmth, competence, professional inclusion, discomfort being low in power, and social inclusion) was submitted to a separate 2 (partner gender: male, female) X 3 (performance condition: outperform, pet, underperform) between-participants Analysis of Variance (ANOVA). Several significant effects emerged from these analyses. No significant effects emerged on social inclusion or discomfort being low in power. Therefore, these variables will not be mentioned further.

A significant main effect of gender emerged on warmth, $F(1,131) = 7.13, p = .01, \eta_p^2 = .05$; female partners ($M = 5.47, SD = .90$) were perceived as warmer than male partners ($M = 5.08, SD = .79$). As shown in Table 2 and discussed below, significant main effects of performance condition also emerged on competence, warmth, valued minus devalued task assignments, praise, and recommendations. The means from this table are presented in Figure 1.

Warmth and Competence. As shown in row 1 of Table 2, the pet office-mate was rated as warmer than the outperforming office-mate ($p < .01$) and as marginally warmer than the underperforming office-mate ($p = .10$). This suggests that the pet condition was perceived as warmer than the other conditions, in line with the general idea of the adored pet, someone who is both liked and respected. Unsurprisingly, and as shown in the second row of Table 2, the underperforming office-mate was rated as less competent than the pet ($p < .01$) and outperforming office-mates ($p < .01$).

Valued minus Devalued Task Assignments. As shown in the third row of Table 2, office-mates who outperformed participants were given more valued tasks than devalued tasks, when compared to office-mates in the pet ($p = .01$) or underperform ($p = .001$) conditions. The same pattern emerged when valued tasks assignments were analyzed separately, rather than as a part of a difference score. As shown in the fourth row of Table 2, the office-mates in the outperform conditions were assigned more valued tasks than office-mates in the pet condition ($p = .001$) and than office-mates in the underperform conditions ($p = .000$). The outperforming office-mate was awarded the most valued tasks overall and when compared to devalued tasks (see Figure 2).

Praise. Pets were given more praise compared to people who underperformed ($p < .01$). In addition, although pets were given more praise than people who outperformed the participants, this difference did not approach significance. This partially supports our hypothesis that the adored pet would receive the most praise when compared to the other performance conditions for female partners but not for male partners.

Recommend. A significant main effect of performance condition also emerged on recommendations, as shown in the bottom row of Table 2. This effect was, however, qualified by a significant interaction between partner gender and performance, $F(2,130) = 3.74, p = .026, \eta_p^2 = .05$. As shown in Figure 3, the simple effects tests showed that there was a significant effect of performance condition on the recommendation of the male partner, $F(2,64) = 13.30, p < .001$, but not the female partner, $F(2,64) = .45, p = .64$. The male office-mate who underperformed in comparison to the participant was less likely to be recommended to a friend majoring in business or economics than were office-mates in the outperform and pet conditions.

Professional Inclusion. The only significant effect to emerge from analyses of professional inclusion was an interaction between partner gender and performance condition, $F(2,130) = 4.49, p = .013, \eta_p^2 = .07$. This effect is presented in Figures 4 and 5. To interpret the interaction on professional inclusion, we performed simple effects tests. The one way, performance condition ANOVA revealed a significant effect of performance condition on professional inclusion of men, $F(2,66) = 13.09, p < .001$. Paralleling findings for the recommendation, the male office-mate in the underperform condition was less professionally included than were the male office-mates in the pet and outperform conditions. This effect also approached significance on inclusion of women but did not reach acceptable levels of statistical significance, $F(2,64) = 2.05, p = .14$. The pattern of means in the female partner conditions, however, showed the predicted pet effect pattern; the female office-mates in the pet condition were more professionally included than were female office-mates in the outperform condition or underperform condition.

Study 1

DISCUSSION

Study 1 was designed to test three hypotheses: (1) when compared to a woman who outperforms or underperforms a man, the woman who is the adored pet should be perceived as high in both warmth and competence. The woman who outperforms male participants will be considered equally competent but less warm than the adored pet woman. The underperforming woman will be similarly as warm but less competent than the adored pet woman. (2) The female adored pet should be warmer and thought of as more competent than the male who performs well but not as well as the male participant. (3) Interpersonal behaviors will follow from perceptions of warmth (i.e. praise) and assignments of valued tasks (or the giving or opportunities which render one capable of earning valued resources) will follow from perceptions of competence (Vescio et al., 2005). Both types of behaviors convey a worker's worth, but not to equal degrees. To test predictions, we manipulated partner gender and partner performance relative to the participant in a 2 (partner gender: male, female) X 3 (performance condition: outperform, pet, underperform) between participants design.

The predicted interactions between partner gender and performance condition interactions emerged on two dependent variables – professional inclusion and recommendations. On professional inclusion, the predicted pattern of means emerged in the female partner conditions; women in the pet condition were professionally included to a greater degree than were women in the outperform condition and women in the underperform condition. By contrast, a different sort of pet effect emerged in the male partner conditions. Whereas we predicted a linear effect of performance, such that men

were more included the better their performance, we found that men in the pet condition were included as much as men in the outperform condition. In addition, men in both the outperform and pet conditions were professionally included to a greater degree than were men in the underperform condition. On recommendations, a parallel pet effect pattern emerged in the male partner conditions. By contrast, in the female partner conditions, there were no significant differences as a function of performance.

Together, findings on professional inclusion and recommendations suggest that a pet effect may take one of two forms. We had predicted that women in the pet condition would be respected (as well as liked) more than women in the outperform and underperform condition. We found a pattern consistent with this prediction on professional inclusion, but the performance condition main effect within those conditions was only marginally significant. Interestingly, consistently across variables and contrary to predictions, we found a different sort of pet effect in the male partner conditions. Men in the pet condition were as strongly recommended as were men in the outperform condition and men in both of those conditions were recommended more strongly than were men in the underperform condition. This suggests that pets (male or female) fare as well (or possibly better) than superior performing peers.

The findings of Study 1 also revealed consistent main effects of performance condition on warmth, competence, praise and valued task assignments. These findings paralleled those described above. On warmth, we found a pet effect similar to what we predicted, with pets being perceived as warmer than partners who outperform or underperform relative to the participant. This effect was not, however, moderated by partner gender. The pet effect holds for both male and female partners. On competence

and praise, a pet effect paralleling the effect described above in the male partner conditions emerged; partners in the pet condition were perceived as competent as and praised as much as were partners in the outperform condition and partners in both of these conditions were perceived as more competent and more praiseworthy than were partners in the underperform condition.

Together, the findings provide strong and consistent evidence of pet effects, with pets being judged as favorably as outperforming partners on competence, professional inclusion, and recommendations and with pets being judged as warmer and more praiseworthy than outperforming or underperforming partners. In fact, one or the other form of pet effect emerges on each variable with one exception – valued task assignments. On valued task assignments, outperforming partners receive more valued tasks than do pets or underperforming partners. This might be because, predictably, individuals perceive those who perform better than they do as more competent and, therefore, more likely to succeed when allocated tasks that are most important for an assignment or project. As noted in the introduction, valued tasks tend to have a zero sum nature, such that only one person can receive certain resources (as opposed to perceptions of warmth that can be felt for multiple people). In situations where individuals have the ability to use others' knowledge and intelligence, they may choose to give those high-performing people the most resources for the betterment of the team or group, or, conversely, they may choose to exploit these outperforming people for personal gain.

Although support for the pet effect (or *effects*) is evident in these findings, it was decided, after further review, that the experimental domain used for Study 1 was perhaps not masculine enough to achieve the gender differences in pet effects originally

predicted. Additionally, we suspected that the prefabricated responses from the ostensible female office-mate were not feminine enough to contrast the masculine domain we sought. These issues could have resulted in the lack of both significant main effects of gender and significant interaction of partner gender and performance condition on certain variables, where these effects might otherwise exist in masculine domains. In a more masculine domain, when outperformed by a female, the core components of masculinity may be more acutely disrupted; a man would feel as though he has lost power or status and may feel as though he is similar or inferior to a woman who is “sissy,” especially when her femininity is intensified. This result in a masculinity threat would induce a stronger tendency toward The Adored Pet Effect and increase the probability of our original hypotheses. A follow-up study (Study 2) was conducted to examine this possibility.

Study 2

METHOD

Study 2 used the same general procedures and design as that used in Study 1. Here, however, the experimental context was slightly altered to assure a more masculine work environment.

Participants

Participants were 187 Pennsylvania State University undergraduate men. Participants identified themselves as White (77.5%), Asian (7.5%), Latino (2.1%), Black (8.6%), mixed ethnicities (2.7%), and Indian (0.5%). Participants ranged from ages 18 to 30 ($Md = 19$ years). Eleven participants indicated suspicion in the debriefing and were removed from the data, leaving 176 participants in the final sample.

Measures

Praise. Participants were told that they had the chance to send their office-mate a message. The message was as follows: “Hi (Mike/Jessica), given what I know about you so far, you seem to be ____.” Participants then chose which number on the Likert scale best represented their opinion of their teammate. There were 12 praise items with a multiple choice response format ranging from 1-5: *not very* (1), *sort of* (2), *pretty* (3), *really* (4), and *incredibly* (5). The 12 items were “nice,” “polite,” “friendly,” “easy to get along with,” “respectful,” “a pleasant person,” “helpful,” “amusing,” “happy,” “hard working,” “comfortable with who you are,” and “easy to please.” These items were determined to be better measures of meaningless praise or patronizing behavior than those in Study 1. In addition to including more items, this scale had a higher alpha level ($\alpha = .96$).

Values and Devalued Tasks Scores. Unlike Study 1, no difference score was found between the number of valued and devalued tasks assigned by participants to their office-mates. Instead, the percentages of “strategic cost-benefit analysis tasks” (primary tasks) and “public relations tasks” (secondary tasks) that participants stated they thought their office-mate would successfully complete were used for individual analyses.

Warmth and Competence. As in Study 1, participants rated their office-mate on the following adjectives on a 1 (*Not at all*) to 7 (*Extremely*) Likert scale: Unfriendly(R), cold (R), unlikeable (R), manipulative (R), warm, good natured, sincere, and kind. The warmth measure was created by averaging these items; the scale was deemed reliable ($\alpha = .88$). Competence was measured as it was in Study 1. On a 1 (*Not at all*) to 7 (*Extremely*) Likert scale, eight adjectives were averaged to create a competence score: incapable (R), insecure (R), Ineffective (R), flighty (R), influential, intelligent, confident, and competent ($\alpha = .80$).

Professional Inclusion. A different list of nine items measured on a Likert scale from 1 (*Strongly Disagree*) to 7 (*Strongly Agree*) was used for Study 2. The items from Study 1 were adjusted so as to avoid the two-factor emergence found originally in Study 1. The adjusted items were meant to measure more potential collaboration between the office-mates as opposed to suggesting power differences. For example, the item “I would feel nervous giving my office-mate important independent responsibilities” was changed to “I would feel nervous if my office-mate had independent responsibilities on a joint project.” After averaging the nine items, the original alpha level was .61 ($\alpha = .61$). However, one item was found to be problematic (“I would be uncomfortable collaborating with my office-mate on all parts of the strategic plan of attack game”).

After removing this item, the scale score was a more acceptable measure of reliability ($\alpha = .75$).

Recommend. Although not originally included as a dependent variable, recommendations emerged as a variable to be analyzed in Study 1 as an aspect of professional inclusion. This variable was, however, eliminated from Study 2 analyses due to the change in the professional inclusion scale.

Social Inclusion. As with the professional inclusion items, the social inclusion item scale was adjusted and expanded for Study 2. The new scale was determined to be more socially-oriented and added a more personal dimension. For example, the items “I would feel uncomfortable divulging something personal to my office-mate” and “I could see me and my office-mate going to each other for personal support” were added to the original social inclusion scale used in Study 1. These items were again measured on a Likert scale from 1 (*Strongly Disagree*) to 7 (*Strongly Agree*) produced an alpha level of .77 ($\alpha = .77$).

Procedure

Manipulation of the masculine domain. The initial procedure for Study 2 was similar to that of Study 1. Participants read and signed consent forms and were given course credit for their introductory psychology course. A typical study consisted of four male participants and one female participant, each seated at a computer. Again, we were only interested in responses of male participants.

Participants read a written introduction that outlined what they were to expect from the study. Like Study 1, the introduction led participants to believe the experimenters were interested in how working alone versus working in the presence of

another person affects performance. Additionally, and unlike Study 1, participants were told that the study was being conducted by the business school at Penn State and that they would be playing a “strategic plan of attack game” in which they were competing against other participants. This was intended to make the manipulation of the masculine domain more effective (i.e. more masculine) than the marketing domain used in Study 1. Strong emphasis was put on competition and success in competitive environments, and participants were told that the top two performing individuals would be awarded \$50. As in Study 1, participants read that those who do well in competitive business environments tend to be “rational problem solvers, straightforward communicators, and dominantly promote ideas and beliefs in which they have confidence,” and that these people “excel and emerge as leaders both academically and professionally.”

Assignment of office-mate. After reading the written introduction, participants were told that they would be randomly assigned to either work alone or in the presence of an “office-mate” throughout the strategic plan of attack game. To increase believability, as in Study 1, the research assistant told participants that their condition assignments were written on the back of index cards that she held out for participants to choose from. In reality, all index cards had the same condition written on the back, and all participants discovered that they would be working in the presence of another person during the strategic plan of attack game. The research assistant then instructed participants to, without talking to one another, begin following directions on the computer.

Participants entered their condition information in the computer and were reminded that they would be working in the presence of another student in the room who also selected the “office-mate” condition. Through instructions on their computers, they

were told to think of their office-mate as a colleague or a fellow student in class. Unlike Study 1 in which participants were told they would work alone but their work would be submitted as a unit, participants were told they would not work as a team nor submit a project as a unit, but would be able to interact with one another, compare scores/performances, and share information “as would be the case in most work or classroom environments.” Participants were also told that the top two performing individuals would win \$50.

After entering an experimental name that they were told would be used to identify them throughout the study, participants were told they would be working with “Mike” (the male cyber office-mate condition) or “Jessica” (the female cyber office-mate condition). They were then instructed to complete a series of questions that would help them get to know their office-mate and vice versa, in order to increase believability that they were interacting with another person in the room. These included personal questions about participants’ favorite hobby, musician, dream job, biggest accomplishment, etc. After completing their own responses, they received their office-mate’s (prefabricated) responses to the same questionnaire.

In comparison to Study 1, the prefabricated responses that participants received from their office-mates were either more masculine or feminine, in the male and female partner conditions, respectively. This slight change to office-mate responses on the “getting acquainted” questionnaire was determined by consulting with undergraduate research assistants, who identified stereotypically masculine and feminine preferences.

Office-mate performance. The manipulation of participants’ office-mates’ performance was identical to that of Study 1. Participants were given five minutes to

complete five GRE-type questions and repeated this procedure two more times. They were reminded of the qualities, characteristics, and personality types of those who do well in competitive environments before beginning the first skills test. As in Study 1, participants were told they scored in the 92nd, 91st, and the 93rd percentile on skills test 1, 2, and 3 respectively. The supposed performances of the outperforming, pet, and underperforming office-mates were the same as in Study 1.

Allocation of praise. Participants were given an opportunity to send a message to their office-mate following the completion of the skills tests. Based on the information they received from their office-mate's questionnaire as well as their office-mate's performance, they answered 12 items about their opinion of their office-mate that would ostensibly be sent to their office-mate.

Assignment of valued/devalued tasks score. Unlike Study 1, participants would not be able to assign tasks to each other for strategic plan of attack game due to the elimination of interdependence between participants for Study 2. Participants were again notified that the top two performing individuals would receive a \$50 cash prize. They were told that there were two types of tasks: "strategic cost-benefit analysis tasks" (the primary determinant of the strategic plan's success) and "public relations tasks" (secondary supporting tasks). The names of the tasks were changed from Study 1 to match the strategic plan of attack game domain used in Study 2. Strategic cost-benefit analysis tasks were defined as the primary determinant of the strategic plan's success, and that these tasks are best completed by those who are rational problem solvers and straightforward communicators. Public relations tasks were defined as secondary supporting tasks that made high-quality strategic plans sound appealing and easy to

understand but did not influence the quality of the strategic plan. Therefore, the strategic cost-benefit tasks and public relations tasks were conceptualized as the valued and devalued tasks, respectively. See Appendix for specific valued and devalued tasks.

Participants were told to enter the percentage (0% to 100%) of both the strategic cost-benefit analysis tasks and public relations tasks that they thought their office-mate would successfully complete. There were 5 tasks in each task category.

Before participants began the ostensible strategic plan of attack game, they responded to items measuring how well they thought they would work with their office-mate. They completed measures of professional inclusion, social inclusion, warmth, and competence. They were told to wait for further instruction; the research assistant instructed participants to complete a questionnaire to check for suspicion. Once all participants were finished, the research assistant debriefed and thanked participants.

Study 2

RESULTS

Each dependent variable (praise, valued tasks score, devalued tasks score, warmth, competence, professional inclusion, and social inclusion) was submitted to a separate 2 (partner gender: male, female) X 3 (performance condition: outperformed, pet, underperformed) between-participants ANOVA. Several significant effects emerged from these analyses. No significant effects emerged on praise or social inclusion. Therefore, these variables will not be mentioned further. Significant main effects of performance condition emerged on professional inclusion, warmth, and competence (see Figure 6), as well as percent valued and devalued tasks successfully completed (see Figure 7). The means from this table are presented in Table 3.

Professional Inclusion. Office-mates in the pet conditions were included as often as office mates in the outperform conditions ($p = .97$). In addition, office-mates in the outperform conditions and pet conditions were included more often than were office-mates in the underperform conditions (both p 's $< .01$).

Warmth. Office-mates in the pet conditions were also perceived as significantly warmer than office-mates in the outperform condition ($p = .05$), but only perceived as marginally warmer than the underperform condition ($p = .10$). These results were found in Study 1, and show that participants view office-mates in the pet condition as warmer and more likeable than those who outperform them or perform much worse than they do.

Competence. Similar to Study 1, the pet condition was perceived as more competent than the underperform condition ($p < .01$) and as similarly competent as office-mates in the outperform conditions ($p = .37$). Results here, along with the measure

of perceived warmth, are in line with the hypotheses for the adored-pet effect, where an individual performs well but not quite as well and is both liked and respected.

Percent Valued Tasks. As shown in the fourth row of Table 3, office-mates in the outperform condition were predicted to successfully complete more valued tasks than were office mates in the underperform condition ($p < .01$), with the success rates of office mates in the pet condition falling in between and not significantly differing from either mean (p 's $< .01$).

Percent Devalued Tasks. As shown in the fifth row of Table 3, and like the pattern on estimates of percent of valued tasks successfully completed, office-mates in the outperform condition were predicted to successfully complete more valued task than were office-mates in the underperform condition ($p = .02$), with the success rates of office-mates in the pet condition falling in between and not significantly differing from either mean. Interestingly, the underperforming office-mates were the only condition participants predicted would successfully complete more of the devalued tasks than the valued tasks (mean percentage for devalued tasks = 74.8%, mean percentage for valued tasks = 72.9%).

Unlike Study 1, no significant interactions between partner gender and performance condition emerged on any of the variables in Study 2 (all F 's < 0.98 , p 's > 0.38).

Study 2

DISCUSSION

Study 2 was designed to examine whether pet effects were moderated by gender in more masculine domains. Unlike Study 1 in which participants completed a marketing project alongside their ostensible office-mate, in Study 2, participants competed against each other in a “strategic plan of attack game.” In addition, the prefabricated responses that participants received from their office-mate were changed to appear either more masculine or feminine, in the male and female office-mate conditions, respectively. These changes were intended to make the manipulation of the masculine domain more effective (i.e. more masculine) than the domain created for Study 1.

As in Study 1, the findings of Study 2 revealed consistent main effects of performance condition on professional inclusion, warmth, competence, and predicted percentage of valued/devalued tasks successfully completed. On warmth, we found a pet effect similar to what we predicted, with pets being perceived as warmer than partners who outperform or underperform relative to the participant. On professional inclusion and competence, we found a pet effect similar to the unexpected “second” pet effect found in Study 1; partners in the pet condition were as professionally included and perceived as competent as the partners in the outperform condition and partners in both of these conditions were included and perceived as more competent than were partners in the underperform condition.

These findings, similar to Study 1, provide support for evidence of pet effects where, once again, pets are judged as favorably as outperforming partners on warmth, professional inclusion, and competence. Again, however (although assessed differently

for Study 2), percentage of valued and devalued tasks did not conform to one of the two forms of pet effects found in both studies. As in Study 1, participants predicted those partners who outperformed them would successfully complete more valued and devalued tasks than would the pets or the underperforming partners.

The results here are consistent with those from Study 1 and show support for the possibility that The Adored Pet Effect is not moderated by gender. Whereas in Study 1, a main effect of gender emerged on at least one variable (warmth), there are no main effects of gender for Study 2. A lack of interactions between partner gender and performance condition in Study 2 on any of the variables further bolster this notion, even with an intensified masculine domain. This suggests that pet effects are not gender-based, stereotyping effects, as we had predicted. Instead, pet effects may be a more general phenomenon, whereby people are generally more comfortable and better like well performing people that do not threaten the self with superior performances.

Although the above results are consistent with those of Study 2, one variable that differed (other than recommendations, which was eliminated from the analyses due to the change in the professional inclusion scale) was praise. While in Study 1 there was a main effect of performance condition on praise such that pets were praised as much as were partners in the outperform condition and praised more than partners in the underperform condition, no main effects were found on praise for Study 2. This lack of main effects may be due to the change in items from Study 1 to Study 2 for the praise scale. While these new items were thought to have been better measures of meaningless praise and patronizing behavior than those used in Study 1, perhaps specific items like “easy to get along with,” “comfortable with who you are,” “easy to please,” etc. were too vague for

participants to assess based on only the “getting acquainted” questionnaire and the performance feedback they received about their office-mates.

Importantly, no effects were found for social inclusion in neither Study 1 nor Study 2. While it is typical for people who work closely on projects or assignments to, at times, engage socially, it is possible that some situations (these studies included) are more about professional inclusion based on performance standards. Additionally, although two different scales were used for both Study 1 and Study 2, the items presented may have been too far-fetched for participants to answer given that all they knew about their ostensible partners was the information from the “getting acquainted” questionnaire and their performance on the three skills tests.

GENERAL DISCUSSION

The findings from both Study 1 and Study 2 partially support the three hypotheses of The Adored Pet Effect. First, there is strong support and consistent evidence of pet effects. In addition to our original notion of an adored pet as someone who is both liked and respected (perceived as both warm and competent), results suggest that a second sort of pet effect may exist. While the original pet effect emerged on warmth (in Study 1 and Study 2) and praise (in Study 1), such that pets were perceived as warmer and more praiseworthy than the outperforming and underperforming partners, a different pet effect emerged for competence (in Study 1 and Study 2), professional inclusion (in Study 1 and Study 2), and recommendations (in Study 1), such that pets were perceived as competent as, included as much as, and recommended as much as outperforming partners and much more than underperforming partners. Across studies, outperforming partners were either given the most valued tasks or predicted to successfully complete the most valued tasks successfully, followed by the pet and then the underperforming partners. Despite our predictions of gender as a moderator, such that female pets would be most liked and respected, this was not the case; pets were liked and respected most regardless of gender.

The results of these two studies are important for workplace implications. As Kanter (1977) states in her analysis of role entrapment, pets identify with organizational images and may self-distort to submissiveness or frivolity if rewarded in such states and considered non-threatening by dominant peers or colleagues. Likewise, should outperforming individuals recognize that pets are liked more and respected and included just as much as they are, a decrease in performance, motivation, and overall job satisfaction may result, either as a natural reaction to seeing those who perform less well

reaping more benefits, or as a conscious intention to become more like a pet themselves. In fact, the careful self-presentation and monitoring of performance to assure a slight underperformance could help people get along better, be more eagerly included in professional contexts, and enhance the likelihood of advancement.

While these two studies certainly suggest that pet effects exist and may encourage us to understand the various implications, they are not without limitations. Even though the change in experimental content was meant to increase the masculinity of the domain, perhaps the domain was still not masculine enough. It's possible that in the context of the more traditional STEM (Science, Technology, Engineering, Mathematics) fields, the ostensible feminine partners would be less expected and those in the pet conditions would be more surprising while still not threatening masculinity, and therefore gain more liking and respect. However, should the domain be considered masculine enough, the study was still conducted in a laboratory setting, and therefore the results may not necessarily be generalizable to real-world situations. Moreover, the sample was entirely college-aged males who, quite often, must work with others (male and female) on projects where they may not be the most knowledgeable and are often outperformed (to the point where this is considered normal). Future research would benefit from field research, in which individuals may experience a much larger threat when their superiors are evaluating them or their job is on the line. Such a study may even make gender a moderator, if men feel they truly have something to lose to a "sissy" woman.

TABLES AND FIGURES

Table 1. Conceptual Values

Hypothesized/conceptual values associated with perceived competence and warmth of male and female partners by male participants based on performance condition

Partner Gender	Partner Performance		
	Outperform	Pet	Underperform
Female	Competence/Tasks: 6 Warmth/Praise: 2	Competence/Tasks: 7 Warmth/Praise: 7	Competence/Tasks: 2 Warmth/Praise: 7
Male	Competence/Tasks: 7 Warmth/Praise: 5	Competence/Tasks: 5 Warmth/Praise: 5	Competence/Tasks: 2 Warmth/Praise: 4

Table 2. Study 1 Variables***Results from Partner Gender X Performance Condition - Main Effect of Performance Condition***

Variable	Performance Condition Means & SD			<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	η_p^2
	Outperform	Pet	Underperform			
Warmth DF = 2,130	5.04 ^a (.81)	5.58 ^b (.88)	5.17 ^{ab} (.86)	3.81	.026	.05
Competence DF = 2,130	5.40 ^a (.67)	5.43 ^a (.84)	4.89 ^b (.86)	6.99	.001	.10
Valued - Devalued Tasks DF = 2,129	.53 ^a (3.71)	-1.77 ^b (3.12)	-2.09 ^c (3.02)	8.58	<.001	.12
Valued Tasks DF = 2,129	2.93 ^a (1.91)	1.54 ^b (1.50)	1.25 ^c (1.65)	12.47	<.001	.16
Praise DF = 2,130	6.98 ^a (.97)	7.24 ^a (.83)	6.60 ^b (.98)	5.01	.01	.07
Recommend DF = 2,130	5.28 ^a (1.28)	5.26 ^a (1.27)	4.29 ^b (1.44)	8.58	<.001	.12

Note: For each dependent variable, means with different superscript significantly differ at $p < .05$. Means with the same italicized superscript are marginally significant ($p < .10$).

Table 3. Study 2 Variables***Results from Partner Gender X Performance Condition - Main Effect of Performance Condition***

Variable	Performance Condition Means & SD			<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	η_p^2
	Outperform	Pet	Underperform			
Professional Inclusion DF = 2,170	5.44 ^a (0.12)	5.45 ^a (0.15)	4.98 ^b (0.12)	5.02	.01	0.06
Warmth DF = 2,170	4.96 ^a (0.12)	5.31 ^b (0.12)	5.03 ^b (0.13)	2.35	.10	0.03
Competence DF = 2,170	5.23 ^a (0.10)	5.34 ^a (0.10)	4.78 ^b (0.11)	8.24	<.001	0.09
% Valued Tasks DF = 2,170	83.44 ^a (2.11)	79.42 ^{ab} (2.07)	72.91 ^b (2.22)	6.00	.003	.07
% Devalued Tasks DF = 2,170	82.96 ^a (2.23)	79.30 ^{ab} (2.19)	74.75 ^b (2.35)	3.23	.04	.04

Note: For each dependent variable, means with different superscript significantly differ at $p < 0.05$. Means with the same italicized superscript are marginally significant ($p < .10$).

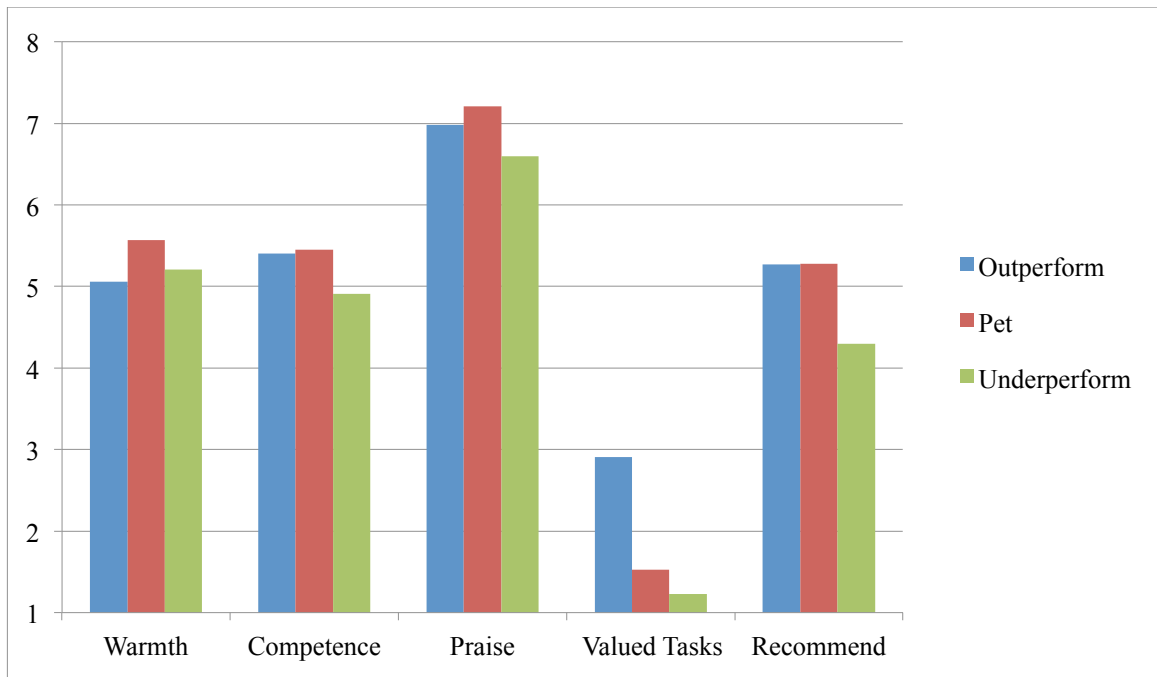


Figure 1. Results from Partner Gender X Performance Condition - Main Effect of Performance Condition

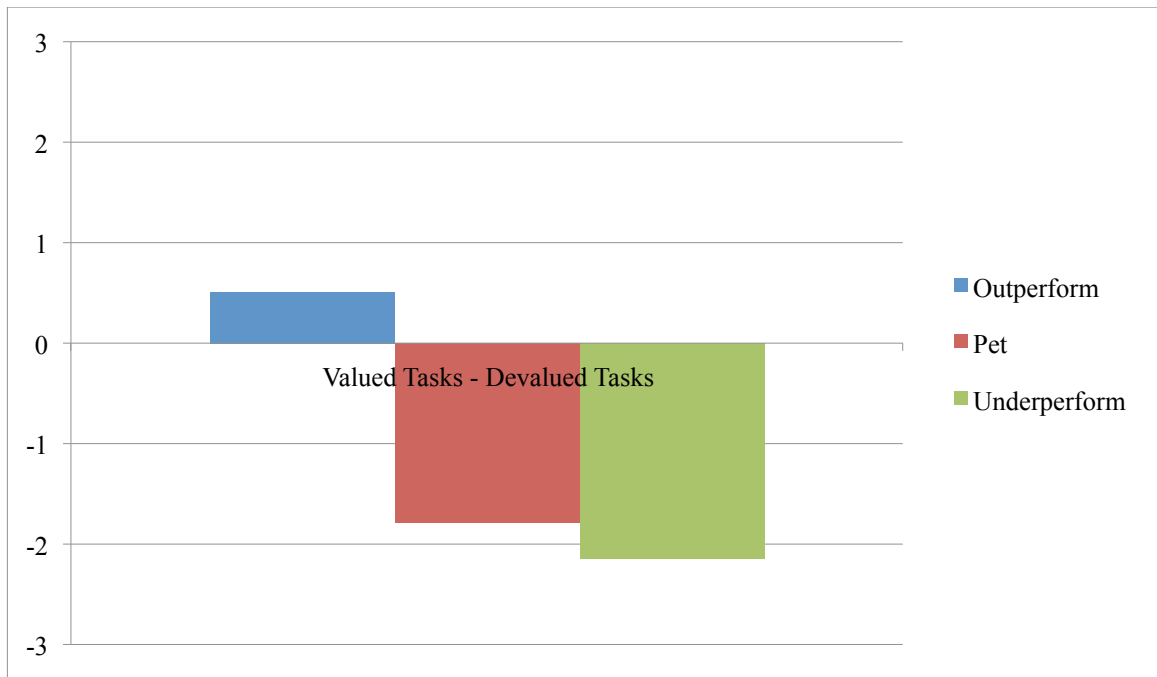


Figure 2. Valued-Devalued Tasks - Results from Partner Gender X Performance Condition ANOVA

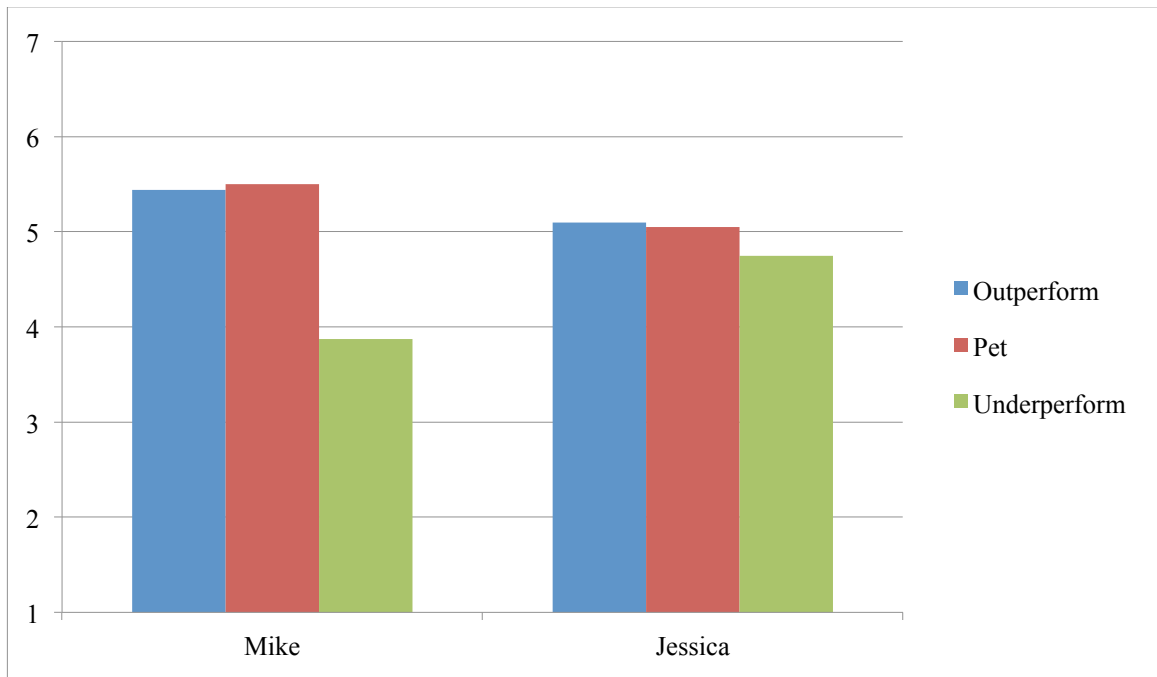


Figure 3. Recommend - Interaction between Partner Gender and Performance Condition

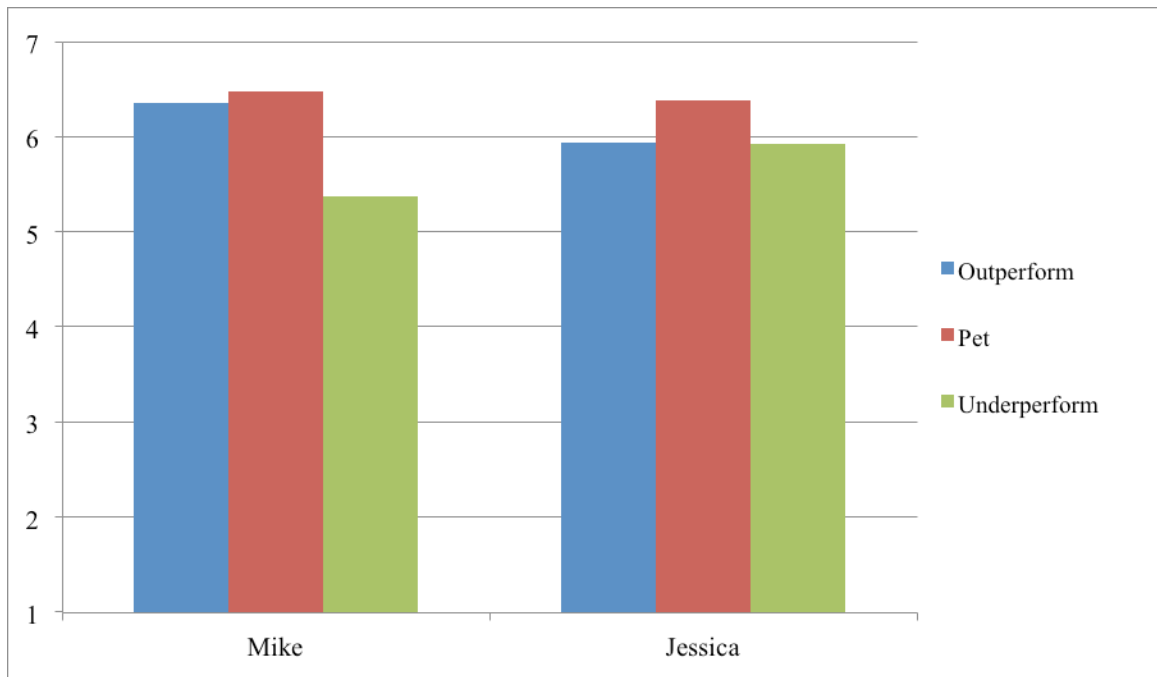


Figure 4. Professional Inclusion - Interaction between Partner Gender and Performance Condition

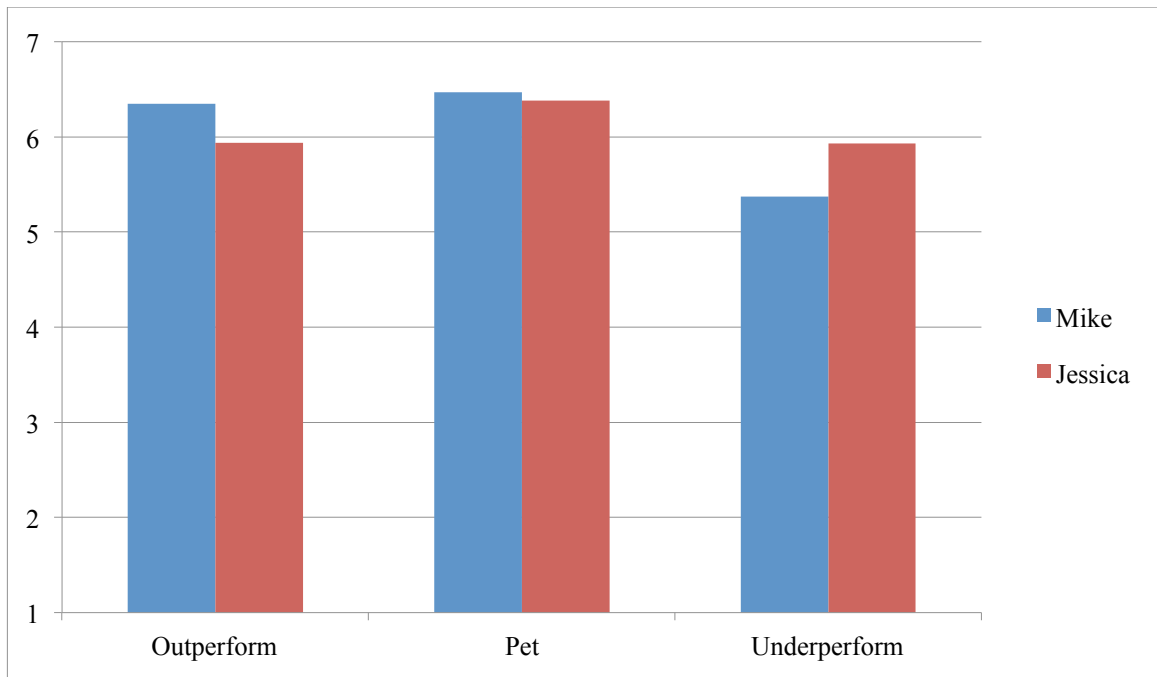


Figure 5. Professional Inclusion - Interaction between Partner Gender and Performance Condition

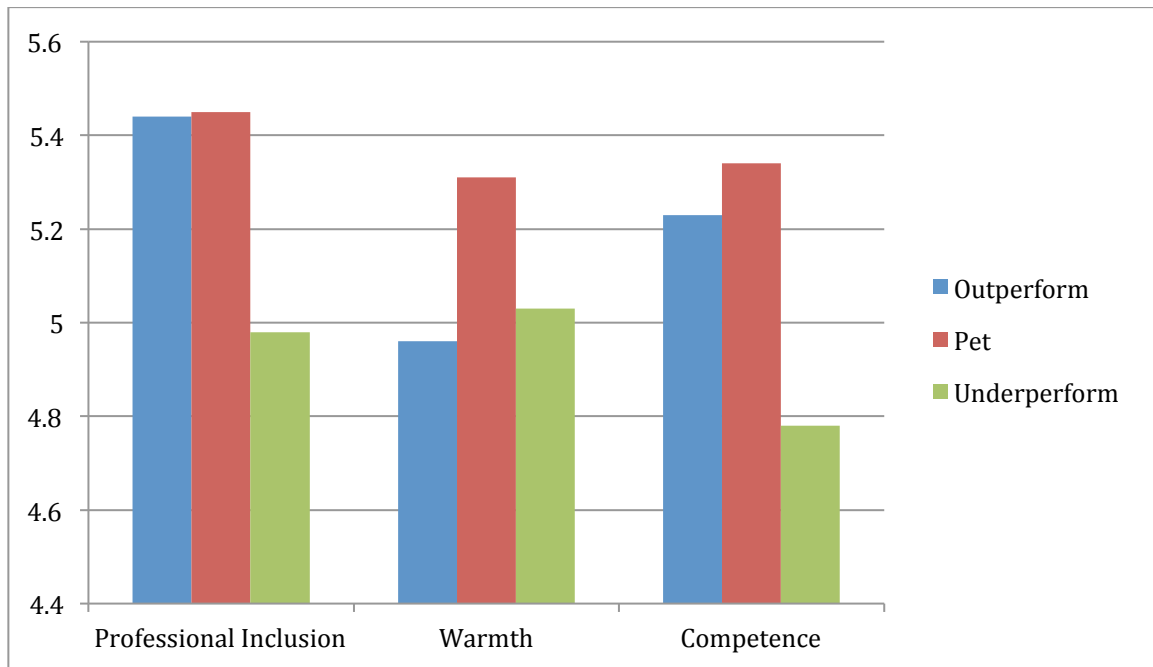


Figure 6. Results from Partner Gender X Performance Condition ANOVA - Main Effect of Performance Condition

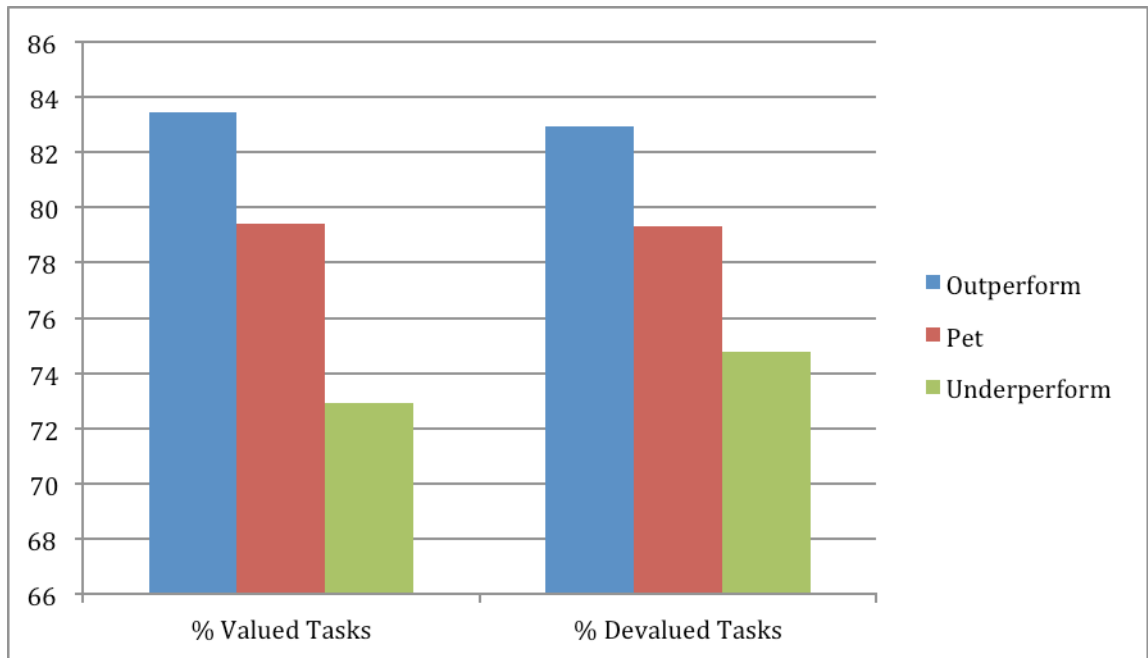


Figure 7. Results from Partner Gender X Performance ANOVA - Main Effect of Performance Condition

Appendix

*List of valued (financial forecasting) and devalued (consumer relations) tasks as shown to participants.**

Financial Forecasting Tasks:

1. Calculate market trends and yearly profit
2. Determine capital gains and losses
3. Determine the cost of labor as it relates to producing a product
4. Predict financial markets and take appropriate risks in buying and selling of stocks
5. Negotiating with and persuading others to follow your financial advice

Consumer Relations Tasks:

6. Understand consumer behavior and brand behavior
7. Create ad slogans and campaigns
8. Communicate with consumers and clients
9. Report demographic differences in consumer behavior
10. Summarize and report consumer opinions

* “Financial forecasting” and “consumer relations” wording was changed to “Strategic cost-benefit analysis” and “public relations” wording for Study 2.

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ACADEMIC VITA

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EDUCATION

The Pennsylvania State University, University Park, PA
B.S., Psychology (Business option) (expected graduation: May 2014)

- Minor: Labor Studies and Employment Relations
- Schreyer Honors College

ACADEMIC AND RESEARCH INTERESTS

- Organizational culture and change
- Group and team dynamics, specifically involving the relationship of power and stereotyping
- Diversity issues in personnel selection and assessment
- Employee benefits and the effect on employee motivation and job performance

RESEARCH EXPERIENCE

Research Assistant in Social Psychology Lab

(August 2011 – May 2014)

Supervised by Dr. Theresa Vescio, The Pennsylvania State University

- Completed independent honors thesis on gender stereotyping.
 - Created experimental stimuli and developed the computer program in DirectRT Research Software that was used to complete the study by student participants.
 - Managed and trained 5 undergraduate research assistants who helped to run the studies with student participants.
- Attended weekly lab meetings.
- Ran studies, entered data, and helped to create experimental stimuli and materials for graduate student research.

Research Assistant in Information Sciences and Technology Lab

(June 2013 – May 2014)

Supervised by Dr. Katherine Hamilton, The Pennsylvania State University

- Worked on the coding for a team-level meta-analysis.

- Qualitatively and quantitatively coded journal articles for various team-based properties and outcomes.
- Attended regular coding meeting to discuss and finalize codes.
- Assisted in the setup of team-based experimental studies on information sharing and decision-making.
 - Qualitatively coded Internet chat logs relating to task conflict in decision-making.

Research Assistant in Industrial/Organizational Psychology Lab

(June 2013 – May 2014)

Supervised by Dr. Susan Mohammed, The Pennsylvania State University

- Qualitatively coded the creativity of survey-based responses for research conducted on decision styles.
- Conducted literature reviews on shared and collective leadership.

PAPERS & PRESENTATIONS IN PREPARATION

Dlugos, K. E. (in preparation). “Adored pet” effect: How men perceive women performing in stereotypically masculine domains. To be presented at the annual research conference in Psychology hosted by Psi Chi, The Pennsylvania State University, PA.

Hamilton, K., Mesmer-Magnus, J., & **Dlugos, K. E.** (in preparation for submission). A meta-analytic examination of the relationship between conflict and team outcomes in virtual contexts.

AWARDS AND ACCOMPLISHMENTS

Phi Beta Kappa, Lambda of Pennsylvania Chapter – The Pennsylvania State University

- Spring 2014

Dean’s List – The Pennsylvania State University

- Fall 2010, Spring 2011, Fall 2011, Spring 2012, Fall 2012, Spring 2013

Psi Chi: The International Honors Society in Psychology – The Pennsylvania State University

- Spring 2012 – Present

National Society of Leadership – The Pennsylvania State University

- Spring 2012 – Present

The Honor Society of Phi Kappa Phi – The Pennsylvania State University

- Spring 2012 – Present

Liberal Arts Enrichment Fund Award for Summer Research Experience – The Pennsylvania State University

- Summer 2013

WORK EXPERIENCE

Intern at MetaFit Solutions

Pittsburgh, PA

(May, June, July 2012)

- Worked closely with CEO and Founder Paula Franetti.
- Assisted in creating motivation initiatives for employees and clients to be dedicated to healthy lifestyles and, consequently, the alleviation of work stress and promotion of productivity and job satisfaction for individuals in the workforce.
- Developed the company's presence on prominent social media websites such as Facebook and Twitter.

Sales Associate at Columbia Sportswear Company

Tanger Outlets, Pittsburgh, PA

(May, June, July 2011 – Present)

- Part-time Seasonal Worker
- Assisting customers to understand the different *Omni* technologies or deciding on purchases that will benefit their outdoor adventures and recreational experiences.

ACTIVITIES AND INTERESTS

Atlas THON – The Pennsylvania State University

(Fall 2010 – Present)

- Merchandise committee member
 - Help to design the Atlas Merchandise for THON each year

Psi Chi THON – The Pennsylvania State University

(Fall 2012 – Present)