“Damned if you do, doomed if you don’t”: The influence of sexism, gender, and rejection behaviors on the potential for stereotyping and workplace prejudice and discrimination

by

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B.S., University of Science & Arts of Oklahoma, 2002
M.A., University of Central Oklahoma, 2015

AN ABSTRACT OF A DISSERTATION

submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree

DOCTOR OF PHILOSOPHY

Department of Psychological Sciences
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Abstract

Across three studies, the relationships between gender, rejection behavior, and ambivalent sexist attitudes on perceptions of a coworker (i.e., *target*) who rejects another coworker's (i.e., *suitor*) romantic interest were examined. Perceptions regarding the target's adherence to feminine gender norms, stereotyping (via the Stereotype Content Model (SCM); Fiske et al., 2002), and engagement of active harm via workplace prejudice and discrimination were examined. Factors that might influence these perceptions were manipulated, including the context of the rejection (i.e., target versus suitor), the target's use of mitigated speech, the gender of the target, and the target's rejection behavior. Study 1 examined the context of the rejection (i.e., being a target vs being a suitor) and gender differences in the endorsement of direct and indirect rejection strategies. Study 2 examined the effect of the target's gender (i.e., male vs female) and their rejection behavior (i.e., direct vs indirect) on bystanders' perceptions of the target's adherence to feminine gender norms, stereotyping, and engaging in active harm (i.e., likelihood to engage in workplace prejudice and discrimination against the target). Study 3 examined the effect of a female target's rejection behavior and her use of a low-powered form of communication (i.e., using mitigated speech vs not using mitigated speech) on male suitors' perceptions of her adhering to feminine gender norms, stereotyping, and their engagement of active harm. Overall, the results showed that while men prefer direct rejection strategies (i.e., being told explicitly their romantic interest is not reciprocated), women who use these rejection strategies may be perceived as not adhering to feminine gender norms and, thereby, may experience backlash in the workplace. Furthermore, men's hostile sexist attitudes may lead to a greater deterrent of workplace advancements and promotions for female coworkers who engage in rejection, while men's benevolent sexist attitudes indicate expectations for women to engage

in rejection behaviors that mitigate the harshness of the rejection. Therefore, women who reject a male coworker's romantic interest may be stuck in a double bind conundrum of "damned if you do, doomed if you don't," where men prefer to be rejected in a straightforward manner, but there may be social consequences for doing so.

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Dedication

In Loving Memory of my Lil Rascal

(2019 – 2021)

Only a moment you stayed, but what an imprint your footprints left on our hearts.

–Dorothy Ferguson

Chapter 1 - Introduction

"A clear rejection is always better than a fake promise."
– popularly attributed to Zig Ziglar, author & motivational speaker (1926 – 2012)

"We invent boyfriends, wear fake engagement rings, or give out fake phone numbers. We smile and act flattered, are polite when we don't want to be … Because we know that rejected men are dangerous men. Maybe he'll release revenge porn after a break-up or engage in workplace retaliation after denying unwanted advances."
– Jessica Valenti, columnist & author (2021)

"We negotiate, smile, and stay polite. We make sure to never damage egos or pride. We lie about our reasons for saying no … a man does not understand how dangerous the word 'no' can be, either to our safety, welfare, job prospects, or life ambitions."
– Salma El-Wardany, writer (2021)

Imagine someone approaches you, telling you they find you attractive and ask if you would like to go on a date to get to know each other. You are flattered; however, you are not romantically interested in this person. You decline their invitation, telling them you are not interested in dating them. The person smiles, says "No problem," and walks away.

This ideal scenario (albeit having one's romantic interest not reciprocated) is probably not difficult to imagine. However, there are various factors that may influence the outcome of this interaction. For example, men may imagine this scenario as ideal and feasible, where if they are approached by a woman who expresses romantic interest, they may believe they will provide a clear rejection and tell her directly he is not interested in her. They may also believe she would do the same if the roles were reversed.

However, women may imagine this same scenario as both ideal and improbable, where if they are approached by a man who expresses an unrequited romantic interest, a clear rejection may be their preferred method. However, they may also perceive the likelihood of the man smiling, expressing acquiescence to her rejection, and moving on as slight to none. While men

are stereotypically expected to be assertive in their social interactions, women who also engage in assertiveness – such as providing a clear rejection to a man who is romantically interested in her – are not generally perceived as positively. Therefore, women may engage in other rejection behaviors (e.g., fake promises, avoidance) to mitigate the rejection and circumvent any potential consequences from rejecting his romantic interest.

Another factor that may influence the outcome of this interaction is relational – the number of prior interactions and the level of a previously established relationship between the interested party (i.e., suitor) and the person being approached (i.e., target). For example, the interaction may differ depending on if the suitor and targets are strangers or if they are already acquainted with each other. Furthermore, the environment in which this interaction takes place can also influence the outcome, such as a social environment versus a working environment. Rejecting a suitor's unrequited romantic advance in a workplace context may have different consequences compared to other contexts, particularly when there are gender disparities regarding wages, promotions, opportunities for professional development and career advancement, and experiences of harassment (Herrera et al., 2018; O'Leary-Kelly et al., 2000; Rotundo et al., 2001). Women are more likely than men to experience harassment in the workplace, including sexual harassment, generalized work harassment, and gender-based harassment (Ilies et al., 2003), where 52% of women and 43% of men reported experiencing workplace sexual harassment (EEOC, 2020; Rospenda et al., 2009). However, sexual harassment is a specific legal term that contains behaviors related to sexual coercion[1], gender harassment[2],

[1] Sexual coercion is defined as pressure or force to engage in sexual behaviors (i.e., *quid pro quo*; EEOC, 2020*)*

[2] Gender harassment is defined as unwelcome behaviors that disparage or objectify others based on their sex or gender (EEOC, 2020)

and unwanted sexual attention[3], and to be unlawful under Title VII[4], the harassment must be based on a legally protected individual characteristic (e.g., gender, race; EEOC, 2020). Additionally, those who report sexual harassment may face retaliation, including adverse working conditions, demotion, firing, and further harassment (EEOC, 2020; Rospenda et al., 2009; Willness et al., 2007).

Based on these legal definitions and parameters, unrequited and unwanted romantic advances (i.e., pursuing a romantic relationship rather than a purely sexual encounter) may not be considered sexual harassment; however, there are similar behaviors (e.g., unwanted attention) and consequences (e.g., retaliation for rejecting the suitor's romantic advance) in both contexts (e.g., Mainiero & Jones, 2013; Pierce & Aguinis, 1997; Pierce et al., 2004). Therefore, women who reject a fellow coworker's romantic interest may by negatively affected similarly to those who experience sexual harassment, including retaliation for the rejection.

Furthermore, other factors may also influence perceptions of women who reject unrequited romantic attention in the workplace, including their rejection behavior (i.e., being direct versus indirect) and others' sexist attitudes. Women who engage in direct rejection behaviors by providing clear (e.g., direct, explicit) rejections may be viewed more negatively by those who hold sexist beliefs regarding feminine gender norms and prescriptive behaviors for women. Therefore, sexist attitudes in conjunction with gender norms and gender role expectations may influence how women engage in rejection, fellow coworkers' perceptions of her rejection and rejection behavior, and the potential for retaliation via workplace prejudice and

[3] Unwanted sexual attention is defined as unwelcome behaviors of a sexual nature (EEOC, 2020)
[4] Title VII of the Civil Rights Act of 1964 prohibits employers from discriminating with respect to compensation, terms, conditions, or privileges of employment due to race, color, sex, national origin, sexual orientation, and gender identity (EEOC, 2020)

discrimination. Examining these influences will further inform psychological literature regarding women's rejection behaviors and provide insights into the factors that may influence workplace relations, prejudice, and discrimination.

Interpersonal Rejection

Individuals experience rejections in various areas of their lives – editors declining a request to publish one's research in their journal, not being selected for a job or promotion, a work colleague giving another the cold shoulder, a friend fading out (i.e., decreasing interactions and responses to communication efforts) or ghosting (i.e., unilaterally ceasing all communication suddenly and without explanation; see LeFebvre et al., 2019), and not having one's romantic interest reciprocated. Research indicates that humans value social connections in various forms, and the formation (or refusal of) of these connections can influence one's mood, self-esteem, and subsequent behavior (e.g., Blackhart et al., 2009; Gerber & Wheeler, 2009; Smart Richman & Leary, 2009).

Rejections are generally interpersonal in nature and often involve one party refusing a social connection with another (Blackhart et al., 2009); this provides social cues regarding how the rejector views the rejected individual (e.g., Blackhart et al., 2009; Gerber & Wheeler, 2009; Smart Richman & Leary, 2009). This often results in the rejected individual experiencing negative emotions (e.g., hurt, anger) which may result in them perceiving the rejector negatively and engaging in retaliatory behaviors (e.g., Blackhart et al., 2009; Bourgeois & Leary, 2001; Gerber & Wheeler, 2009; Leary et al., 2003; 2006; Smart Richman & Leary, 2009; Stratmoen et al., 2018; 2019). Research also shows experiencing rejection may impede one's attempts at satisfying basic human needs, including the need for belonging and acceptance as well as the need for control, which may lead to feelings of low self-worth and frustration (Baumeister &

Leary, 1995; Gerber & Wheeler, 2009; Leary et al., 2013; Sunami et al., 2019; Williams, 2007; Zadro et al., 2004). Therefore, a rejected individual may engage in antisocial behaviors to restore their need for control over their environment and/or social situation after being rejected (e.g., Gerber & Wheeler, 2009; Tedeschi, 2001; Williams, 2007).

Rejectors often consider the ramifications their rejection will have on the rejected individual, which then affects how they reject the person (Banks et al., 1987; Baumeister & Dhavale, 2001). They consider various factors, including social distance (i.e., stranger versus acquaintance), where if the rejector anticipates future contact with the rejected individual, they are more likely to reject them politely to soften the blow (e.g., Johnson et al., 2004; Kunkel et al., 2003; Tom Tong & Walther, 2010). Research also shows rejectors are more likely to be ambiguous and use positive vocal tones if they expect future interactions but are more likely to be direct if they do not expect future interactions (Banks et al., 1987; Goodboy & Brann, 2010).

Romantic Rejection

The possibility of experiencing romantic rejection can occur at multiple points in a romantic relationship, ranging from someone unilaterally ending an existing relationship to the explicit non-reciprocation of a suitor's romantic interest (Baumeister et al., 1993). Research indicates romantic rejection can be particularly distressing for the rejected suitor, who may experience various negative emotions (e.g., frustration, hate, resentment, anger; Baumeister & Dhavale, 2001; Downey et al., 1999; Downey & Feldman, 1996; Walker & MacDonald, 2010), which may lead to retaliation (e.g., Blake et al., 2018; Downey et al., 2000; Romero-Canyas et al., 2010). For instance, an analysis of school shootings between 1995 and 2001 showed 87% were due to peer rejection, with 54% of these including incidences of romantic rejection (Leary et al., 2003). Research further indicates that heterosexual men who experienced romantic

rejection tend to react with hostility toward the rejecting women (Andrighetto et al., 2019; Blake et al., 2018). Additionally, in some cases of intimate partner violence, perpetrators expressed perceptions of not being valued by their partners that may have led to their violence toward their partners (see rejection-abuse cycle, Brown et al., 2010).

Given the potential ramifications of rejection, women may expect men's feelings to be hurt if she were to reject him explicitly, while others may expect him to become angry and possibly react aggressively to her explicit rejection. There have been numerous documented incidences where women were physically and/or sexually assaulted (e.g., Demarest, 2014; Kutner, 2016; Morley, 2017; Price, 2018; WTVF/CNN, 2018) or even murdered (e.g., Bult, 2016; D'Antonio, 2016; Dastagir, 2019) when rejecting a man's romantic interest. Therefore, women may use less direct rejection techniques to avoid retaliatory aggression and violence.

Furthermore, women are more likely to be targets of unrequited or unwanted romantic advances, including in the workplace (Bohns & DeVincent, 2019; Fitzgerald et al., 1988; 1995; Jagsi et al., 2016). As a result, they may use various techniques to reject advances from men, such as being explicit (e.g., saying "I am not interested"), engaging in avoidance/withdrawal behaviors (e.g., avoiding the person altogether; ghosting), and being rude or impolite (e.g., mocking the interested person's attention) (e.g., Banks et al., 1987; Baumeister et al., 1993; Freedman et al., 2022; Goodboy & Brann, 2010; Halversen et al., 2021; LeFebvre et al., 2019; Owen et al., 2013). They may also use evasive rejection strategies (e.g., providing false contact information; Dockterman, 2014; Freedman et al., 2022; Stratmoen et al., 2019) to avert unwanted romantic attention, or even accept the unrequited romantic advance (e.g., accept an invitation to a date; exchange contact information) to avoid the discomfort of rejecting the suitor directly (Joel et al., 2014). These evasive rejection strategies may be problematic due to honesty and

trustworthiness being highly valued personal characteristics (e.g., Cottrell et al., 2007), even though the degree of discomfort experienced by targets tends to be undervalued by suitors, thereby impacting workplace behavior and productivity (Bohns & DeVincent, 2019).

Gender Norms & Stereotypes in the Workplace

Gender stereotypes describe both how men and women "are" (i.e., descriptive norms) as well as dictate what men and women are expected to "be" and "do" (i.e., prescriptive norms; Bakan, 1966; Diekman & Goodfriend, 2006; Eagly, 1987; Haines et al., 2016). According to these prescriptive gender norms, men are expected to be agentic (e.g., assertive, competent, confident, dominant) while women are expected to be communal (e.g., empathetic, helpful, polite, sensitive). As such, anyone who violates these norms tends to face sanctions from others (Basow & Silberg, 1987; Rudman, 1998; Rudman & Glick, 1999; 2001; Rudman et al., 2012; Rudman & Phelan, 2008).

For women to be perceived as qualified for leadership roles, they are expected to engage in agentic behaviors; however, if they do, they may experience a backlash effect (i.e., negative evaluations for violating prescriptive feminine gender norms; Rudman, 1998), particularly if they do not counterbalance their agentic behaviors with communal behaviors (e.g., niceness; Rudman & Glick, 2001). As a result, women who are perceived to be more agentic – or engage in more agentic behaviors – tend to be perceived as socially lacking compared to identical agentic men.

Furthermore, these women may also experience a double bind, where they can either engage in communal behaviors congruous with prescriptive feminine gender norms and be viewed as likable but also less competent, or they can engage in agentic behaviors that are incongruous with prescriptive feminine gender norms and be viewed as competent but unlikable (Catalyst, 2005; 2007; Eagly & Karau, 2002; Martens et al., 2018; O'Neill & O'Reilly III, 2011;

Rosette & Tost, 2010; Rudman & Glick, 1999; 2001; Rudman & Phelan, 2008). Therefore, women who are perceived to be more agentic tend to be viewed as less likeable and hirable as their male counterparts, which has grave implications for women's own career advancement, promotions, and wage equity in the workforce (Burgess & Borgida, 1999; Eagly & Karau, 2002; Eaves-Boykin, 2020; Foschi, 1996; Heilman, 2001; Hoover et al., 2019; Martens et al., 2018; Parks-Stamm et al., 2008; Phelan et al., 2008; Rudman, 1998; Rudman & Glick, 1999; Rudman et al., 2012).

Prior literature has also examined how social power – having control over resources and the ability to influence others' behaviors – is associated with various agentic behaviors, including showing confidence in one's ideas (Galinksy et al, 2008), increased action toward goal attainment (Galinsky et al., 2003), engaging in approach-type behaviors (Keltner et al., 2003), and increased perceptions of control (Fast et al., 2009). Research also shows a relationship between gender and social power, where women in high-powered positions (e.g., having greater influence over decisions being made within a team environment) were less likely to engage in high-powered displays of communication (e.g., initiate conversations, speak for a longer duration of time) compared to their male counterparts due to fear of experiencing backlash (Brescoll, 2011). Women's fear of backlash can also influence their likelihood to self-promote (Moss-Racusin & Rudman, 2010) as well as be less assertive during negotiations (Amanatullah & Morris, 2010).

Furthermore, women in high-powered positions were more likely to receive negative evaluations from their coworkers when they *did* engage in high-powered displays of communication (compared to their male counterparts) (e.g., Brescoll, 2011; Foschi, 1996; West et al., 2012). Additionally, women were more likely to engage in low-powered forms of

communication (e.g., smiling, eye contact, positive tone of voice, upspeak; Dovidio et al., 1988; LaFrance et al., 2003; Swim, 1994; Taylor, 1978). One form of low-powered communication is mitigated speech – a pattern of speech where the speaker attempts to soften or buffer a hard message to minimize its harshness, oftentimes to mollify a negative reaction by the receiver of the message (De Rycker, 2014; Gladwell, 2008). Individuals may engage in mitigated speech when they feel shame or embarrassment, or to be deferential and polite. Low-powered forms of communication are more congruent with prescriptive feminine gender norms due to the communal nature of these behaviors while high-powered forms of communication are more associated with prescriptive masculine gender norms due to the agentic nature of these behaviors (Arbuckle & Williams, 2003; Eagly & Karau, 2002; Eagly & Steffen, 1986).

Additionally, women are expected to engage in tasks that are emotionally labor intensive (Bem, 1983; Guy & Newman, 2004; Martin, 1999; Mastracci et al., 2006; West & Zimmerman, 1987). Emotional labor is defined as the management of feelings and relationships to fulfill the emotional requirements of one's job, particularly if one's job is to produce a specific state of mind in others (Hochschild, 1979; 1983). This includes regulating one's own emotions, particularly when interacting with others (e.g., customers, coworkers). While there may be certain jobs and careers that require more emotional labor than others (e.g., customer service, human relations), when it comes to the day-to-day interactions between co-workers, this emotional labor is expected to be fulfilled by women more so than men (Bellas, 1999; Caleo, 2016; Catalyst, 2005; Cortina et al., 2001; Hayes-Smith et al., 2010; Heilman & Chen, 2005; Hochschild, 1983; Morris & Feldman, 1996), suggesting that women in the workforce are expected to be support providers due to prescriptive gender norms (e.g., Women 'take care' while men 'take charge'; Catalyst, 2005). This gendered expectation has been shown to have

negative effects for women, including increased stress and burnout (Pugliesi, 1999; Sharrad, 1992; Tolich, 1993; Wharton, 1993), decreased job satisfaction and personal well-being (Pugliesi, 1999), and other negative health effects (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Fineman, 1993).

Research indicates women are more likely to be targets of unreciprocated romantic advances (Bohns & DeVincent, 2019; Fitzgerald et al., 1988; 1995; Jagsi et al., 2016) and are less likely to employ more direct rejection strategies (Banks et al., 1987; Baumeister et al., 1993; Dockterman, 2014; Freedman et al., 2022; Goodboy & Brann, 2010; Halversen et al., 2021; Joel et al., 2014; LeFebvre et al., 2019; Owen et al., 2013). While this may be due to women's attempts to both avoid the discomfort of explicitly rejecting a man's romantic interest as well as mitigate a negative reaction from the rejected suitor, it may also be due to the prescriptive norms for women to be less agentic.

Stereotype Content Model and BIAS Map

Stereotypes are defined as generalized beliefs and expectations regarding a specific group of people (Hilton & Von Hippel, 1996). These beliefs and expectations range from physical appearances and abilities to personality characteristics. While some may argue that stereotypes contain a kernel of truth (see Funder, 2012; Jussim et al., 2015), stereotypes can be resistant to incongruous information and lead to overgeneralizations (Devine, 1989; Hilton & Von Hippel, 1996). Additionally, stereotyping individuals based on their group membership (e.g., race, age, gender) can result in inaccurate perceptions and expectations of the individual, regardless of the stereotype being regarded as "good" (e.g., that those from Asian descent excel in mathematics) or "bad" (e.g., that older adults are cognitively deficient). Furthermore, stereotypes are a key

foundation for prejudicial attitudes (Devin, 1989), which can lead to discriminatory practices (e.g., hiring bias; Agerström and Rooth, 2011; Tilcsik, 2011).

From an evolutionary perspective, stereotypes may act as a cognitive heuristic when making social judgments about a group or person – particularly when one does not know if the other group/person has access to needed resources and will either be cooperative or competitive when it comes to the allocation (i.e., sharing versus stealing) of said resources (Fiske et al., 2002). One's survival may have depended on their accurate perception of another social group/person, and whether they will be a friend or foe. Hence, social cognition research indicates the content of stereotypes can be represented by two dimensions: *competency* and *warmth* (i.e., Stereotype Content Model (SCM); Fiske et al., 2002). The warmth dimension represents one's assessment of the intentions of a member of another social group and is related to perceptions of competition; therefore "warmth" comprises of characteristics like friendliness, kindness, trustworthiness, and sincerity. The competence dimension represents one's assessment of the abilities of the member of another social group to successfully pursue these intentions and is related to perceptions of social power and status; therefore "competency" comprises of characteristics like intelligence, skill, confidence, and efficacy. Stereotypes that include higher warmth perceptions (e.g., likability, friendliness, good-naturedness) are referred to as warmth stereotypes while those with higher competence perceptions (e.g., intelligence, success, being capable of achieving goals) are referred to as competence stereotypes (Cuddy et al., 2007; 2008; Fiske, 2018; Fiske et al., 2002). Research indicates that the SCM is predictive of emotional prejudices (e.g., admiration, contempt, envy, pity) and subsequent behaviors (e.g., helping, harming) (Caprariello et al., 2009).

The two orthogonal dimensions of competency and warmth intersect to form four distinct quadrants of stereotypes. Two of these quadrants represent stereotypes of out-groups that are termed mixed stereotypes – higher in one dimension and lower in the other dimension – while the other two quadrants represent stereotypes that are not mixed – either higher or lower in both dimensions (Fiske et al., 2002). As such, perceptions of competency and warmth influence the emotional prejudices and behaviors one may have towards members of out-groups (see Behaviors from Intergroup Affect and Stereotypes (BIAS) Map; Cuddy et al., 2007; 2008; Fiske, 2018). The BIAS Map describes behavioral tendencies along two aspects: active/passive and harm/facilitation. The active/passive feature refers to behaviors that either are intentionally directed towards the out-group (active) or behaviors that impact the out-group but require minimal effort (passive). The harm/facilitation feature refers to behaviors that either help (i.e., facilitate) or harm the out-group. Therefore, *active facilitation* indicates intentional helping behaviors (e.g., donations to non-profit organizations, community service), *passive facilitation* indicates unobtrusive helping behaviors (e.g., associating with the out-group), *active harm* indicates intentional damaging behaviors (e.g., attacks, hostility, harassment), and *passive harm* indicates unobtrusive damaging behaviors (e.g., avoidance, isolation, neglect, exclusion).

Based on the SCM and BIAS Map (see Cuddy et al., 2007; 2008; Fiske, 2018; Fiske et al., 2002), competence stereotypes comprised of higher competency perceptions and lower warmth perceptions (e.g., Asians, Jews, rich/wealthy individuals, nontraditional women), referred to as *envious stereotypes*, can elicit prejudicial feelings of envy and jealousy, and are associated with behaviors involving both active and passive harm as well as passive facilitation. Warmth stereotypes comprised of lower competency perceptions and higher warmth perceptions (e.g., older adults, people with disabilities, traditional women), referred to as *paternalistic*

stereotypes, can elicit prejudicial feelings of pity and sympathy, and are associated with behaviors involving active facilitation and passive harm. Stereotypes comprised of both lower competency and warmth perceptions (e.g., poor individuals, homeless individuals, welfare recipients), referred to as *contemptuous stereotypes*, can elicit prejudicial feelings of contempt, disgust, anger, and resentment, and are associated with behaviors involving both active and passive harm. The fourth quadrant is not a stereotype per se as it represents *in-group/ally favoritism* and is comprised of both higher competency and warmth perceptions regarding their own in-group, close allies, or societal reference groups (e.g., White individuals; men; Christians; the middle class; heterosexuals). These perceptions can elicit feelings of admiration and pride and are associated with behaviors involving both active and passive facilitation while mitigating both active and passive harm.

The SCM has been used as a framework to examine stereotypical thinking, prejudicial emotions, and discriminatory behaviors in a variety of contexts. For instance, researchers examining Asian-American stereotypes determined Asian-Americans are typically viewed as having higher competency but lower sociability (i.e., lower in warmth), which may have influenced others to reject them as acquaintances and colleagues (Lin et al., 2005). The SCM has also been used as a framework to examine rejection experiences, where those who were rejected in a social setting due to perceptions of incompetence reported feeling angry, while those who were rejected in a social setting due to perceptions of being cold (i.e., lower in warmth) reported feeling sad (Celik et al., 2013). The SCM has also been used to examine implicit bias by assessing perceptions of competency and warmth dimensions of implicit stereotypes (measured using Implicit Association Tests; see Greenwald et al., 1998; Nosek et al., 2005), where individuals were more likely to associate pre-school teachers with a paternalistic stereotype (i.e.,

higher in warmth but lower in competence) and lawyers with an envious stereotype (i.e., lower in warmth but higher in competence) (Carlsson & Björklund, 2010).

The SCM has also been used as a framework to examine stereotypical thinking, prejudicial emotions, and discriminatory behaviors in occupational settings. For instance, workers who were associated with mental health disorders (e.g., depression, anxiety, bipolar disorder) were more likely to be perceived with a contemptuous stereotype (i.e., lower in both competency and warmth) and viewed as not being capable of productivity in their work position due to the severe and externalizing symptoms associated with the disorders (e.g., sadness, irritability, mania) (Follmer & Jones, 2017). Additional research further suggests that Asian individuals were more likely to work in occupations that are associated with higher competence, while Black and Hispanic individuals were more likely to work in occupations associated with lower competence (He et al., 2019).

Research indicates women are more likely to work in occupations that are associated with paternalistic stereotypes (i.e., higher in warmth but lower in competence; He et al., 2019). Additionally, businesswomen are perceived with an envious stereotype (i.e., higher in competence but lower in warmth) while housewives are perceived with a paternalistic stereotype (Eckes, 2002). Indeed, individuals were more likely to express positive feelings, product evaluations, and greater intentions of purchasing an advertised product when the ad contained a representation of a paternalistic stereotype (e.g., housewife in the kitchen) compared to an ad that contained a representation of an envious stereotype (e.g., businesswoman in the office) (Zawisza & Cinnirella, 2010). Furthermore, women who were pregnant were perceived with in-group/ally favoritism (i.e., higher in both warmth and competence), but were significantly less likely to be hired or were offered a lower starting salary compared to women who were not pregnant (Masser

et al., 2007), suggesting that even though individuals may perceive a traditional woman (e.g., housewife, working mother) positively in certain settings, they may still engage in discriminatory behaviors due to traditional gender role expectations.

As research suggests, women risk facing backlash when she engages in agentic behaviors (Rudman, 1998) unless she counterbalances her agentic behavior with communal communication behaviors (e.g., mitigated speech; Rudman & Glick, 2001). However, this suggests a double bind dilemma, where they may either be viewed as more competent but less warm when she explicitly rejects another's romantic interest, or they may be viewed as more warm but less competent when she employs an indirect rejection strategy and/or uses communal communication behaviors while rejecting the suitor (Catalyst, 2005; 2007; Eagly & Karau, 2002; Martens et al., 2018; O'Neill & O'Reilly III, 2011; Rosette & Tost, 2010; Rudman & Glick, 1999; 2001; Rudman & Phelan, 2008). Hence, it may be women's choices in their rejection behaviors and communication behaviors are impacted when they navigate this dilemma while attempting to adhere to the prescriptive norms for women.

Ambivalent Sexism

Sexism is generally conceptualized as the representation of antipathy towards women; however, research indicates that sexism is a multidimensional construct that comprises of two different (but related) sexist attitudes (i.e., ambivalent sexism; Glick & Fiske, 1996). Ambivalent sexism is a pervasive belief system (Glick et al., 2000) where prejudice towards women encompasses both animosity (i.e., hostile sexism) as well as patronizing attitudes (i.e., benevolent sexism). Women's career opportunities can be negatively affected by sexist attitudes (Koch et al., 2014; Valentine, 2001), including evaluations of competence (Reilly et al., 2017), job satisfaction (Manuel et al., 2017; Ruben et al., 2017), the quality of their work (Koch et al.,

2014; Latu et al., 2015; Velez et al., 2018), and their physical and psychological health (Barreto & Ellemers, 2005; Becker & Wright, 2011; Manuel et al., 2017; Ruben et al., 2017; Sojo et al., 2016; Velez et al., 2018). While individuals may recognize and denounce hostile sexist attitudes, benevolent sexist attitudes can be insidious, particularly due to the association of subjectively prosocial behaviors. Even so, researchers suggest that this hostility and benevolence act jointly to reinforce gender inequality.

Hostile sexism refers to the antagonism towards women who do not adhere to traditional gender roles, where those who strongly adhere to hostile sexist attitudes view these women in a blatantly disparaging manner. Hence, they tend to endorse traditional gender roles, justify an androcentric gender hierarchy and the objectification of women, and negatively perceive women who challenge hegemonic masculinity (Christopher & Wojda, 2008; Glick & Fiske, 1996). Therefore, women who defy traditional gender roles may experience punitive sanctions and retributive reactions from those who strongly adhere to hostile sexist attitudes for not conforming to feminine gender norms (Glick & Fiske, 1996).

Hostile sexism is based on the belief that men are more competent than women, and as such, are more deserving of higher social status and power (Becker & Wright, 2011). Hence, women who experience hostile sexism may also experience negative outcomes, including physiological responses (e.g., increased stress, elevated heart rate; Salomon et al., 2015) and negative affect (e.g., anger, frustration, insecurity; Becker & Wright, 2011; Lemonaki et al., 2015; Schneider et al., 2010). Hostile sexist attitudes are also related to negative evaluations of female workers (Reilly et al., 2017; Warren et al., 2020), opposition to gender-based affirmative action policies (Feather & Boeckman, 2007; Sibyl & Perry, 2010) and gender bias in hiring (Latu et al., 2015; Masser & Abrams, 2004; Pardal et al., 2020).

Benevolent sexism is also based on the gender stereotyping of women, where those who strongly adhere to benevolent sexist attitudes may also support an androcentric gender hierarchy by expressing positive perceptions of women who conform to traditional gender roles (Becker & Wright, 2011; Glick & Fiske, 1996; Sacco et al., 2003). They also view women as less competent than men (Taylor et al., 2018) and tend to engage in prosocial behaviors (e.g., helping) based on gender stereotyping and gender role expectations (e.g., men are providers, women are dependent upon men for resources and protection; Glick & Fiske, 1996). Therefore, women who conform to traditional gender roles may be rewarded through superficially positive protective behaviors by those with strong adherence to benevolent sexist attitudes for conforming to feminine gender norms.

Benevolent sexism is also based on the belief that men are more competent than women; however, it is expressed through protective paternalism (Becker & Wright, 2011). Hence, women who experience benevolent sexism can experience either positive or negative outcomes, depending on their own adherence to benevolent sexist attitudes and feminine gender norms. Research shows that women who conform to traditional gender roles benefit from benevolent sexist attitudes by earning (i.e., being deserving of) men's care, adoration, and protection. Indeed, women were more likely to perceive men more positively when they expressed benevolent sexist attitudes (Chisango et al., 2014; Overall et al., 2011) while women who are higher in psychological entitlement (i.e., believing one is superior, intelligent, attractive, and deserving of higher social status) were more likely to endorse benevolent sexist attitudes (Hammond et al., 2014). Benevolent sexism also influences women's mate preferences, where women tend to prefer men who express benevolent sexist attitudes, where men's benevolent sexist attitudes act as an indicator of their willingness to invest in her and a romantic relationship

(i.e., protection, provision, commitment; Cross & Overall, 2017; Gul & Kupfer, 2019; Hammond et al., 2016; Lee et al., 2010). Benevolent sexism is also negatively related to gender bias in hiring decisions (Warren et al., 2020) and opposing gender-based affirmative action policies (Fraser et al., 2015, Hideg & Ferris, 2016).

However, there are caveats to this superficially positive support. For instance, while those who strongly adhere to benevolent sexist attitudes may not engage in gender bias during hiring decisions, they do so only if the female worker was perceived as likable (Warren et al., 2020); and while they may support gender-based affirmative action policies, this support is only for the promotion of women in feminine (but not masculine) work positions (Hideg & Ferris, 2016). Furthermore, women who have experienced benevolent sexism at the workplace may experience adverse emotional reactions (e.g., anxiety; Pacilli et al., 2019) and may internalize these beliefs and doubt their own competence (Dardenne et al., 2007). Therefore, even with its seemingly prosocial facets, benevolent sexism is not based on the promotion of gender equality but rather on the underlying beliefs that women are not as competent as men, they are incapable of advancing successfully in the workplace without the aid and protection of men, and these positive facets are only for the women who adhere to feminine gender norms and traditional gender roles (Dardenne et al., 2007; Fraser et al., 2015).

As research indicates, women who engage in agentic behaviors may be perceived more negatively (i.e., backlash effect; Rudman, 1998) due to the prescriptive norms for women (Bakan, 1966; Diekman & Goodfriend, 2006; Eagly, 1987; Haines et al., 2016), unless she also uses communal communication behaviors (e.g., mitigated speech; Rudman & Glick, 2001). As such, this may produce a double bind dilemma, where she may be viewed as more competent and less warm when she uses direct rejection strategies or she may be viewed as more warm but less

competent when she uses indirect rejection strategies and/or communal communication behaviors (Catalyst, 2005; 2007; Eagly & Karau, 2002; Martens et al., 2018; O'Neill & O'Reilly III, 2011; Rosette & Tost, 2010; Rudman & Glick, 1999; 2001; Rudman & Phelan, 2008). Therefore, others' sexist attitudes may also influence their perceptions of her rejection behavior, where those with stronger benevolent sexist attitudes may perceive her in a positive manner (i.e., paternalistic stereotyping: higher in warmth but lower in competence) when she engages in communal behaviors (i.e., uses an indirect rejection strategy and/or uses communal communication behaviors) while those with stronger hostile sexist attitudes may perceive her in a negative manner (i.e., contemptuous stereotyping: lower in warmth and lower in competence) when she engages in agentic behaviors (i.e., uses a direct rejection strategy and/or does not use communal communication behaviors).

Current Research

The following set of studies is an integrated approach to theory-driven gender research (see Burghardt & Bodansky, 2021) by examining how women's rejection behaviors (e.g., direct vs indirect strategies; the use of mitigated speech; Banks et al., 1987; Baumeister et al., 1993; Dockterman, 2014; Dovidio et al., 1988; Freedman et al., 2022; Goodboy & Brann, 2010; Halversen et al., 2021; Joel et al., 2014; LaFrance et al., 2003; LeFebvre et al., 2019; Owen et al., 2013; Stratmoen et al., 2019; Swim, 1994; Taylor, 1978) and others' sexist attitudes (i.e., ambivalent sexism; Becker & Wright, 2011; Christopher & Wojda, 2008; Glick et al., 2000; Glick & Fiske, 1996; Sacco et al., 2003) affect perceptions of women's adherence to feminine gender norms (i.e., her exhibiting agentic traits and communal traits; Bakan, 1966; Diekman & Goodfriend, 2006; Eagly, 1987; Haines et al., 2016) as well as stereotypical perceptions and discriminatory behaviors (as defined by the Stereotype Content Model (SCM) and the Behaviors

from Intergroup Affect and Stereotypes (BIAS) Map; Cuddy et al., 2007; 2008; Fiske, 2018; Fiske et al., 2002) within an applied context (i.e., a workplace environment). Below are the general hypotheses that encapsulate the following set of studies, which are then readdressed in each study to be more specific based on the variables that were measured and/or manipulated.

Women who are targets of unrequited romantic advances in the workplace may also experience a double bind dilemma due to the suitors' anticipations that she should be direct and explicit regarding her rejection (Catalyst, 2005; 2007; Eagly & Karau, 2002; Martens et al., 2018; O'Neill & O'Reilly III, 2011; Rosette & Tost, 2010; Rudman & Glick, 1999; 2001; Rudman & Phelan, 2008); however, being direct and explicit may be perceived as incongruous with feminine gender norms (i.e., her exhibiting agentic traits but not communal traits; Bakan, 1966; Diekman & Goodfriend, 2006; Eagly, 1987; Haines et al., 2016). If direct and explicit rejection strategies are perceived as agentic rather than communal, she may then experience backlash for not adhering to feminine gender norms (Rudman, 1988). Because agentic traits intersect with perceptions of competency, and communal traits intersect with perceptions of warmth (see SCM & BIAS Map; Cuddy et al., 2007; 2008; Fiske, 2018; Fiske et al., 2002), women who use direct and explicit rejection strategies may also be perceived as competent but not warm, while women who use indirect rejection strategies (e.g., avoidance, evasion) may be perceived as less competent but warm. Therefore, it was hypothesized that:

- *Female targets will be perceived as not adhering to feminine gender norms (e.g., more agentic, less communal) when she uses direct rejection strategies.*
- *Female targets will be perceived as adhering to feminine gender norms (i.e., less agentic, more communal) when she uses indirect rejection strategies.*

- *Women will be more likely to endorse indirect rejection strategies when they are the target and endorse direct rejection strategies when they are the suitor.*
- *Men will be more likely to endorse direct rejection strategies when they are both the target and the suitor.*

Additionally, likeability – a characteristic related to communal traits and perceptions of warmth – is an influential moderator on women's hireability (Warren et al., 2020). While women are generally perceived positively due to warmth being associated communal characteristics (Cuddy et al., 2007; 2008; Fiske, 2018; Fiske et al., 2002; Masser et al., 2007; Zawisza & Cinnirella, 2010), this positivity wanes when they engage in agentic behaviors (Eagly & Mladinic, 1989; Eagly et al., 1991; Rudman, 1988). Indeed, women who do not adhere to traditional gender role expectations tend to have their career success marginalized, their emotional responses at the workplace (e.g., anger, frustration) attributed to personality issues rather than external circumstances (Brescoll & Uhlman, 2005), and are perceived as less likeable and interpersonally inimical (Heilman et al., 2004). Additionally, those who are targets of envious stereotyping (i.e., higher in competence but lower in warmth) may be respected but not well liked, resulting in envy, passive facilitation, and active harm, while those who are targets of paternalistic stereotyping (i.e., lower in competence but higher in warmth) may be well liked but not respected, resulting in pity and active facilitation (Cuddy et al., 2007; Eckes, 2002; Fiske et al., 1999; 2002; Judd et al., 2006; Zawisza & Cinnirella, 2010). Therefore, it was hypothesized that:

- *Female targets will be targets of competence stereotyping (i.e., perceived higher in competence) when she uses direct rejection strategies.*

- *Female targets will be targets of warmth stereotyping (i.e., perceived higher in warmth) when she uses indirect rejection strategies.*
- *These relationships will be moderated by the female target's use of a low-powered communication style (i.e., mitigated speech):*
    - *When the female target does not use mitigated speech, she will be perceived as not adhering to feminine gender norms, and will be a target of envious stereotyping (i.e., high in competence, lower in warmth) and active harm (e.g., engage in workplace discrimination) when she uses a direct rejection strategy.*
    - *When the female target uses mitigated speech, she will be perceived as adhering to feminine gender norms, and will be a target of paternalistic stereotyping (i.e., low in competence, higher in warmth) and active facilitation (e.g., does not engage in workplace discrimination) when she uses an indirect rejection strategy.*

Furthermore, adherence to sexist attitudes may moderate these perceptions and subsequent prejudicial emotions and behaviors, where those who adhere more strongly to sexist attitudes may be more likely to express negative perceptions of a woman who engages in direct and explicit rejection strategies (Becker & Wright, 2011; Christopher & Wojda, 2008; Glick et al., 2000; Glick & Fiske, 1996; Sacco et al., 2003). Those who strongly adhere to hostile sexist attitudes are more likely to perceive women as less hireable unless she is perceived as likeable (i.e., higher in warmth; Glick & Fiske, 1996; Reilly et al., 2017; Warren et al., 2020). Furthermore, women who accept benevolently sexist help from men (e.g., "That task is too difficult for a woman – let me help you") are perceived as higher in warmth but incompetent (Dardenne et al., 2007; Glick & Fiske, 1996; Fraser et al., 2015; Taylor et al., 2018), and less suited for an agentic-related work position (e.g., manager; Glick & Fiske, 1996; Taylor et al.,

2018), but women who decline the same benevolently sexist help are perceived as cold but competent, and less suited for a communal-related work position (e.g., childcare provider; Becker et al., 2011; Hideg & Ferris, 2016; Warren et al., 2020). Therefore, it was hypothesized that:

- *Female targets who do not use mitigated speech will be perceived as not adhering to feminine gender norms, and will be targets of contemptuous stereotyping (i.e., perceived lower in both competence and warmth) and active harm (i.e., engage in workplace discrimination) by those with stronger adherence to hostile sexist attitudes when she uses a direct rejection strategy.*
- *Female targets who use mitigated speech will be perceived as adhering to feminine gender norms, and will be targets of paternalistic stereotyping (i.e., perceived lower in competence and higher in warmth) and active facilitation (i.e., does not engage in workplace discrimination) by those with stronger adherence to benevolent sexist attitudes when she uses an indirect rejection strategy.*

Chapter 2 - Study 1

Overview

In Study 1, the relationship between men's and women's sexist attitudes and their endorsement of various rejection-related behaviors in certain contexts (i.e., being the target of unreciprocated romantic interest versus being the suitor whose romantic interest is rejected) was examined. The study design was a two-level (*target, suitor*) within-subjects design where participants were presented two hypothetical scenarios: one where they are approached by an opposite sex coworker who is romantically interested in them for a date, but the participant is not interested (*target*); the other where they are romantically interested in an opposite sex coworker and approach them for a date, but the coworker is not interested (*suitor*).

Based on previous literature (e.g., Eagly, 1987; Glick & Fiske, 1996; Goodboy & Brann, 2010; Johnson et al., 2004; Rudman & Glick, 2001; Stratmoen et al., 2019), it was predicted that there would be gender differences on participants' endorsement of rejection-related behaviors. Specifically:

H1.1a: Men (versus women) would be more likely to endorse direct rejection-related behaviors.

H1.1b: Women (versus men) would be more likely to endorse indirect rejection-related behaviors.

H1.1c: The effect of participants' gender on the endorsement of rejection-related behaviors would be moderated by the context of the rejection, such that men would be more likely to endorse direct rejection-related behaviors when they are the suitor compared to women when they are the target, and women would be

more likely to endorse indirect rejection-related behaviors when they were the target rather than the suitor.

It was also predicted these effects would be moderated by individual adherence to sexist attitudes. Specifically:

H1.2a: Men stronger in adherence to hostile sexist attitudes would be more likely to endorse direct rejection-related behaviors when they are the target versus when they are the suitor.

H1.2b: Men stronger in adherence to hostile sexist attitudes would be less likely to endorse indirect rejection-related behaviors when they are the suitor versus when they are the target.

H1.2c: Men stronger in adherence to benevolent sexist attitudes would be more likely to endorse indirect rejection-related behaviors when they were the suitor versus when they are the target.

H1.2d: Women stronger in adherence to benevolent sexist attitudes would be more likely to endorse indirect rejection-related behaviors when they were the target versus when they are the suitor.

H1.2e: Women stronger in adherence to benevolent sexist attitudes would be more likely to endorse direct rejection-related behaviors when they were the suitor versus when they are the target.

Method

Participants. Participants were 157 undergraduate students enrolled in introductory psychology courses at a large Midwestern public university (ages 18 – 48, M = 20.43, SD = 4.56). Most participants self-identified as female (66%), White/Caucasian (76%), and as first- or

second-year students (75%). All participants self-identified their gender identity as being cisgender, their sexual orientation as either heterosexual or bisexual, and their current relationship status as being single, casually dating, or divorced. This sample size was based on a power analysis using G*Power (Faul et al., 2007) with a suggested sample size of 147 using a repeated measures MANOVA effect size level of 0.30, power level of .95, the number of groups being 2, and the number of measurements being 2.

Materials

Hostile and Benevolent Sexism. Endorsement of benevolent and hostile sexist attitudes were measured using the short version of the Ambivalent Sexism Scale (ASI; Glick & Fiske, 1996), a 22-item scale that measures an individual's endorsement of sexist attitudes, with 11 items regarding hostile sexism (HS; e.g., *Women seek to gain power by getting control over men*; see Appendix A) and 11 items regarding benevolent sexism (BS; e.g., *Women should be cherished and protected by men*; see Appendix A). Participants rated their level of agreement for each item using a 9-point likert-type agreement scale (1= *strongly disagree*, 9= *strongly agree*). Participants' HS and BS scores were obtained by summing the appropriate items in each scale and dividing by the number of items (HS: α: .84, M = 3.95, SD = 1.67; BS: α: .67, M = 4.70, SD = 1.38).

Perception of Mate Value. Perceptions of personal mate value was assessed as a potential covariate, and was measured using the Mate Value Scale (MVS; Edlund & Sagarin, 2014), a 4-item scale that assesses an individual's perception of their own mate value or worth. Participants rated two items (i.e., *Overall, how would you rate your level of desirability as a partner*; *Overall, how would members of the opposite sex rate your level of desirability as a partner*) on a 7-point likert-typed desirability scale (*1 = Extremely undesirable*, *7 = Extremely*

desirable) and two items (i.e., *Overall, how do you believe you compare to other people in desirability as a partner*; *Overall, how good of a catch are you*) on 7-point likert-typed average scales (*1 = Very much below average, 7 = Very much higher than average; 1 = Very much below average, 7 = Very much higher than average*) (see Appendix B). Participants' MVS scores were obtained by find the mean of the 4 items (α: .83, *M* = 5.14, *SD* = 0.94).

Reading Comprehension Check. Participants were asked to read the following and asked to select from the following five choices as to what the main idea of the passage was. The correct answer is C:

"The best recipes for clam chowder all include onions and a bay leaf. The onions add a sharpness and zest to the blandness of the clams, and help remove their slimy texture. The bay leaf complements the onion's strong flavor."

This paragraph best supports the statement that:

A. Onions were once thought to be poisonous

B. Bay leaves are essential in many soups

C. Onions and bay leaves go well with clams

D. Clam chowder is very nutritious

E. Clams should not be overcooked

Vignettes. Two different vignettes describing an interaction with an opposite-sex coworker were created, where participants read and responded to both – one describing a hypothetical social interaction where an opposite-sex coworker was romantically interested in them (*target vignette*) and the other describing a hypothetical social interaction where they were romantically interested in an opposite-sex coworker (*suitor vignette*). The presentation order of

the two vignettes was randomized; the vignettes below are an example with the Target vignette presented first and the Suitor vignette presented second:

Target Vignette: *Imagine you are a supervisor at a mid-size company. You have been employed there for 3 years and get along well with your coworkers and supervisors. One afternoon while eating lunch in the company's cafeteria you strike up a friendly conversation with an attractive male/female manager from a different department named Thomas/Teresa.*

During the conversation he/she asks if you would like to go out for coffee after work tomorrow, mentioning that he/she is very interested in getting to know you better. (This would not be a problem since the company you both work for does not have a policy prohibiting coworkers from dating.)

Even though you find Thomas/Teresa attractive, you are not romantically interested in him/her.

Suitor Vignette: *Now imagine you are a manager at a different mid-size company. You have been employed there for the past 2 years and get along well with your coworkers and supervisors. One Wednesday morning while getting a cup of coffee in the breakroom you strike up a friendly conversation with an attractive male/female manager from a different department named Aaron/Amanda.*

During the conversation you ask Aaron/Amanda if he/she would like to go out for coffee this coming Saturday, mentioning that you are very interested in getting to know him/her better. (This would not be a problem since the company you both work for does not have a policy prohibiting coworkers from dating.)

Vignette Attention Checks. Participants were asked to respond to two attention checks after each vignette. The first attention check asked if the coworker in the vignette was a supervisor/manager at the company. The second attention check asked if the participant and the coworker worked in the same department. Participants responded to both attention checks with either "yes" or "no."

Response Items. A series of response items were created to measure participants' endorsement of rejection-related behaviors – both regarding their own rejection-related behaviors when they were rejecting the opposite-sex coworker (i.e., *Target Vignette*) as well as when the opposite-sex coworker was rejecting the participants' romantic interest (i.e., *Suitor Vignette*). The response items were modified from prior literature (Goodboy & Brann, 2010; Stratmoen et al., 2019) that examined women's rejection-related behaviors to deter unwanted romantic attention and advances from men. The response items included rejection-related behaviors that were verbally direct (e.g., *you would tell him/her "no"*; *he/she tells you "I'm not interested in going out for coffee with you"*), verbally indirect (e.g., *you say you already have plans for Saturday*; *he/she tells you he/she already has a girl/boyfriend*), behaviorally avoidant (e.g., *you would change the topic*; *he/she says "yes" but texts you later to cancel with no explanation*), and impolite and/or offensive (e.g., *you would ignore him/her*; *he/she makes fun of you for asking him/her out*; see Appendix C). Participants rated each item on 1 to 9 likert-type scales (e.g., *1=Not at all Likely* to *9=Extremely Likely*; *1=Not at all Prefer* to *9=Extremely Prefer*).

Procedure. Participants first provided informed consent, then responded to the reading comprehension check. Next, participants answered demographic information about their age, class year, ethnicity, and employment history. Participants then read each vignette (order randomized) and provided their answers to the accompanying response items. In between each

vignette, participants completed a cognitive filler task (i.e., modified random letter cancellation task; Beeson, 1990; see Appendix D) that took approximately 30 seconds to complete. Afterward participants completed the ASI and MVS (to measure sexist attitudes and perceived mate value respectively; order also randomized). After completing the study, participants were debriefed and granted research credit for their participation in the study.

Results

Reading Comprehension Check. Eleven participants were removed from data analyses for not selecting the appropriate response during the reading comprehension check, reducing the sample size from 157 to 146.

Vignette Attention Checks. An additional 26 participants were removed from data analyses for not selecting the appropriate responses during the vignette attention checks, furthering reducing the sample size from 146 to 120. The final sample used for data analyses included 43 male participants and 77 female participants.

Data Reduction and Creation of Composite Variables. Principal component analyses with varimax rotation were conducted on the endorsement of rejection behaviors for each context (i.e., target versus suitor). Both Cattell's (1966) scree plot and Kaiser's (1960) rule (eigenvalues greater than 1) were used to determine the number of factors to retain. Based on recommendations and rule-of-thumb ratios in multivariate statistics books and simulations (e.g., Comrey & Lee, 1992; Guadagnoli & Velicer, 1988; Hair et al., 1998; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007), factors retained contained at least three items, the items loaded at least .60 onto the factor, and did not cross-load above .30 on any other factor. If an item loaded onto the factor in one context, but did not for the other context, it was not used for either factor (see Appendix E). This

was to maintain consistency and simplicity for the factors across the contexts during data analyses and discussion of the results.

Endorsement of Another's Rejection Behavior (Suitor Vignette). Six factors emerged that accounted for 71% of the variance. The first factor – *Explicit Declaration Due to Personal Preferences* – consisted of 7 items (e.g., *they would tell you 'I'm not interested in having coffee with you'; they would say 'I'm not interested in dating you';* see Appendix E) that loaded well (>.66) and created a reliable composite variable, α = .91. The second factor – *Explicit Declaration Due to Interpersonal Relationships* – consisted of 3 items (e.g., *they would tell you they only think of you as a work colleague; they would tell you they only like you as a friend;* see Appendix E) that loaded well (>.64) and created a reliable composite variable, α = .89. The third factor – *Explicit Declaration Due to Current Relationship Status* – consisted of 3 items (e.g., *they would tell you they already have a boy/girlfriend; they would tell you they are already dating someone else;* see Appendix E) that loaded well (>.72) and created a reliable composite variable, α = .88. The fourth factor – *Rude/Impolite Behaviors* – consisted of 8 items (e.g., *s/he would give you a dirty look; s/he would say "I would never date someone like you";* see Appendix E) that loaded well (>.67) and created a reliable composite variable, α = .96. The fifth factor – *Avoidant Behaviors* – consisted of 8 items (e.g., *They say 'yes' but text you later to cancel with no explanation; They say 'yes' but suggest you both bring a friend;* see Appendix E) that loaded well (>.62) and created a reliable composite variable, α = .88. The sixth factor – *Evasive Behaviors* – consisted of 3 items (e.g., *they would change the topic; they would pretend they did not hear you;* see Appendix E) that loaded well (>.60) and created a reliable composite variable, α = .72.

Likelihood of One's Own Rejection Behavior (Target Vignette). Six factors emerged that accounted for 65% of the variance. The first factor – *Explicit Declaration Due to Personal Preferences* – consisted of 7 items (e.g., *you would tell him/her 'I'm not interested in having coffee with you'; you would say 'I'm not interested in dating you'*; see Appendix E) that loaded well (>.71) and created a reliable composite variable, α = .88. The second factor – *Explicit Declaration Due to Interpersonal Relationships* – consisted of 3 items (e.g., *you would tell him you only think of him/her as a work colleague; you would tell him/her you only like him/her as a friend;* see Appendix E) that loaded well (>.70) and created a reliable composite variable, α = .81. The third factor – *Explicit Declaration Due to Current Relationship Status* – consisted of 3 items (e.g., *you would tell him/her you already have a boy/girlfriend; you would tell him/her you are already dating someone else;* see Appendix E) that loaded well (>.84) and created a reliable composite variable, α = .89. The fourth factor – *Rude/Impolite Behaviors* – consisted of 8 items (e.g., *you would give him/her a dirty look; you would say "I would never date someone like you";* see Appendix E) that loaded well (>.64) and created a reliable composite variable, α = .93. The fifth factor – *Avoidant Behaviors* – consisted of 8 items (e.g., *You would say 'yes' but text him/her later to cancel with no explanation; You would say 'yes' but suggest you both bring a friend;* see Appendix E) that loaded well (>.67) and created a reliable composite variable, α = .86. The sixth factor – *Evasive Behaviors* – consisted of 3 items (e.g., *you would change the topic; you would pretend you did not hear him/her;* see Appendix E) that loaded well (>.60) and created a reliable composite variable, α = .68.

The first four factors – *Explicit Declaration Due to Personal Preferences, Explicit Declaration Due to Interpersonal Relationships, Explicit Declaration Due to Current Relationship Status, Rude/Impolite Behaviors* – were analyzed and discussed as direct rejection

strategies due to their explicit and declarative nature, leaving no room for ambiguity regarding the target's lack of reciprocated interest. The last two factors – *Avoidant Behaviors, Evasive Behaviors* – were analyzed and discussed as indirect rejection strategies due to their evasive and avoidant nature, which may leave room for ambiguity regarding the target's lack of reciprocated interest.

Zero-Order Correlations Between Participant Gender, Sexist Attitudes, Composite Variables, and Other Individual Difference Measures. Participant gender was negatively correlated with both HS (r = –.20) and BS (r = –.19), such that men were higher in their level of endorsement of hostile sexist attitudes and benevolent sexist attitudes compared to women. Participant gender was significantly negatively correlated the composite variable *Explicit Declaration Due to Interpersonal Relationships* (when they were the suitor; r = –.54), such that men (compared to women) were higher in their rate of endorsement for the use of these rejection strategies when they were the suitor. Participant gender was also significantly negatively correlated with the composite variables *Explicit Declaration Due to Personal Preferences, Explicit Declaration Due to Interpersonal Relationships,* and *Explicit Declaration Due to Current Relationship Status* (when they were the target; r = –.45, r = –.75, r = –.47 respectively), such that men (compared to women) rated the likelihood of their use of these rejection strategies when they were the target.

HS was significantly positively correlated with BS (r = .79), indicating a strong relationship between participants' endorsement of hostile sexist attitudes and benevolent sexist attitudes. HS was significantly negatively correlated with the composite variable *Rude/Impolite Behaviors* (when they were the target; r = –.56), suggesting that adherence to hostile sexist attitudes was related to participants' self-endorsement of these rejection strategies when they

were the target. HS was also significantly negatively correlated with the composite variables *Rude/Impolite Behaviors* and *Avoidant Behaviors* (when they were the suitor; $r = –.51$, $r = –.45$ respectively), suggesting that adherence to hostile sexist attitudes was related to participants' endorsement of these rejection strategies when they were the suitor.

BS was significantly positively moderately correlated with MVS ($r = .52$), suggesting that adherence to benevolent sexist attitudes was related to participants' perceptions of their own mate value or worth. BS was also significantly negatively correlated with the composite variable *Rude/Impolite Behaviors* (when they were the target; $r = –.63$), suggesting that adherence to benevolent sexist attitudes was related to participants' self-endorsement of these rejection strategies when they were the target. BS was also significantly negatively correlated with the composite variable *Rude/Impolite Behaviors* (when they were the suitor; $r = –.55$), suggesting that adherence to benevolent sexist attitudes was related to participants' endorsement for the use of these rejection strategies when they were the suitor.

Please refer to Tables 1 and 2 for means, standard deviations, reliability statistics, and other zero-order correlations between participant gender, sexist attitudes, MVS, and the composite variables.

Data Analyses. Due to multicollinearity issues between HS and BS ($r = .79$, see Tables 1 and 2), separate analyses were conducted to test the hypotheses regarding HS and BS. Additionally, MVS was not included as a covariate in the analyses due to its significant moderate correlation with BS ($r = .52$) as well as the lack of significant zero-order correlations with the composite variables (see Tables 1 and 2).

To test the hypotheses that gender of the participant and sexist attitudes would predict endorsement of rejection-related behaviors in certain contexts (i.e., being the suitor versus being

the target), sequential (i.e., hierarchical) regression using mixed-effects modeling[5] was conducted (allowing for participants' intercepts to randomly vary) along with planned contrasts to directly test hypotheses. The hypotheses regarding the main effects of both the gender of the participant and the context of the rejection were tested using a model (Model 1) that included only gender of the participant (dummy coded with *women* = 1, *men* = 0), sexist attitudes (i.e., HS or BS, standardized prior to analyses), and the context of the rejection (dummy coded with *suitor* = 1, *target* = 0). Next the hypotheses regarding the two-way interaction between gender of the participant and the context of the rejection were tested using a second model (Model 2) that included three (3) two-way interactions between gender of the participant and the context of the rejection, gender of the participant and sexist attitudes, and the context of the rejection and sexist attitudes. Then the hypotheses regarding the three-way interaction between gender of the participant, context of the rejection, and sexist attitudes were tested using a third model (Model 3) that included the three-way interaction between gender of the participant, sexist attitudes, and the context of the rejection. Standardized parameter estimates, and *t*-statistics are reported below.

Results for Endorsement of Direct Rejection-Related Behaviors.

Explicit Declaration Due to Personal Preferences. Results from the first model for the prediction of participants' endorsement for *Explicit Declaration Due to Personal Preferences* were inconsistent with hypotheses (*H1.1a*), where parameter estimates indicated that gender of the participant was not significant ($b = 0.42$, $t = 1.33$, $p = .19$), suggesting there were no significant differences between men's ($M = 3.93$, $SE = 0.26$) and women's ($M = 4.34$, $SE = 0.19$)

[5] Mixed-effects modeling was used due to *Context* being a within-subjects variable, with each predictor inputted into the model, analyzed, and discussed like steps used in sequential (e.g., hierarchical) regression. While there are multiple correct ways of analyzing data, this data analytic method was chosen to directly test hypotheses regarding main effects alone as well as two- and three-way interactions. Model fit statistics (e.g., AIC) are reported in Tables. See Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007.

in endorsement for explicit declarative rejection strategies for personal preferences. Results also indicated the effects of BS (b = 0.08, t = 0.52, p = .61) and of HS (b = 0.11, t = 0.72, p = .48) were not significant, suggesting that adherence to sexist attitudes did not predict participants' endorsement of explicit declarative rejection strategies for personal preferences. Results further indicated the effect of context of the rejection was significant (b = 0.58, t = 3.14, p = .002), suggesting participants were significantly more likely to endorse explicit declarative rejection strategies for personal preferences when they were the suitor (M = 4.43, SE = 0.18) compared to when they were the target (M = 3.84, SE = 0.18). See Tables 3 and 4.

Results from the second model were inconsistent with hypotheses (*H1.1c*), where parameter estimates indicated the two-way interactions between gender of the participant and context of the rejection was not a significant unique (b = –0.51, t = –1.32, p = .19), suggesting gender of the participant did not significantly moderate the effect of the context of the rejection on participants' endorsement of explicit declarative rejection strategies for personal preferences. Planned contrasts further indicate no significant differences between men's endorsement of explicit declarative rejection strategies for personal preferences when they were the suitor (M = 4.36, SE = 0.30) compared to women when they were the target (M = 4.14, SE = 0.22; t = 0.60, p = .93). Supporting the hypotheses (*H1.2e*), the two-way interaction between BS and the context of the rejection was a significant and unique predictor (b = 0.37, t = 2.01, p = .05), suggesting adherence to BS moderated the effect of the context of the rejection on endorsement of explicit declarative rejection strategies for personal preferences (see Table 4). Simple slope analyses indicated participants with stronger adherence to BS were significantly more likely to endorse explicit declarative rejection strategies for personal preferences when they were the suitor (b = 0.24) compared to when they were the target (b = –0.13) (see Figure 1). Results further indicated

the gender of the participant and sexist attitudes (HS: $b = 0.34$, $t = 1.06$, $p = .29$; BS: $b = 0.15$, $t = 0.46$, $p = .65$) as well as the context of the rejection and HS ($b = 0.08$, $t = 0.43$, $p = .67$) were not significant. See Tables 3 and 4.

Results from the third model indicated the three-way interactions between gender of the participant, context of the rejection, and sexist attitudes were not significant or unique predictors (HS: $b = 0.08$, $t = 0.19$, $p = .85$; BS: $b = –0.20$, $t = –0.53$, $p = .60$; See Tables 3 and 4), suggesting that sexist attitudes did not moderate the effect of the gender of the participant and the context of the rejection on the endorsement of explicit declarative rejection strategies for personal preferences. Inconsistent with hypotheses (*H1.2a*), planned contrasts indicated no significant differences between men's adherence to hostile sexist attitudes in endorsing explicit declarative rejection strategies for personal preferences when they were the target ($b = – 0.13$) compared to when they were the suitor ($b = – 0.10$; $t = 0.10$, $p = .99$). Also inconsistent with hypotheses (*H1.2e*), planned contrasts indicated no significant differences between women's adherence to benevolent sexist attitudes in endorsing explicit declarative rejection strategies for personal preferences when they were the suitor ($b = 0.30$) compared to when they were the target ($b = – 0.02$; $t = 1.29$, $p = .57$).

Explicit Declaration Due to Interpersonal Relationships. Results from the first model for the prediction of participants' endorsement for *Explicit Declaration Due to Interpersonal Relationships* were inconsistent with hypotheses (*H1.1a*), where parameter estimates indicated the gender of the participant was significant ($b = 1.31$, $t = 4.78$, $p < .0001$; see Tables 5 and 6), suggesting women ($M = 6.72$, $SE = 0.16$) were significantly more likely to endorse explicit declarative rejection strategies due to interpersonal relationship reasons compared to men ($M = 5.41$, $SE = 0.22$). Results also indicated the effects of BS ($b = 0.12$, $t = 0.87$, $p = .39$) and of HS

(b = 0.11, t = 0.84, p = .40) were not significant, suggesting that adherence to sexist attitudes did not predict participants' endorsement explicit declarative rejection strategies due to interpersonal relationship reasons. Results further indicated the effect of context of the rejection was not significant (b = 0.13, t = 0.63, p = .53), suggesting that whether the participant was the target or the suitor did not significantly affect their endorsement of explicit declarative rejection strategies due to interpersonal relationship reasons. See Tables 5 and 6.

Results from the second model indicated the two-way interactions between gender of the participant and context of the rejection was not a significant or unique predictor (b = –0.58, t = –1.33, p = .19), suggesting the gender of the participant did not moderate the effect of the context of the rejection on participants' endorsement of explicit declarative rejection strategies due to interpersonal relationship reasons. Inconsistent with hypotheses (*H1.1c*), planned contrasts indicated women were more likely to endorse explicit declarative rejection strategies due to interpersonal relationship reasons when they were the target (M = 6.76, SE = 0.21) compared to men when they were the suitor (M = 5.68, SE = 0.28; t = 3.08, p = .01). Supporting hypotheses (*H1.2e*), results indicated the two-way interaction between BS and the context of the rejection was a marginally significant and unique predictor (b = 0.37, t = 1.77, p = .08), suggesting adherence to BS may moderate the effect of the context of the rejection on endorsement of explicit declarative rejection strategies due to interpersonal relationship reasons (see Table 6). Simple slope analyses indicated participants with stronger adherence to BS were more likely to endorse explicit declarative rejection strategies due to interpersonal relationship reasons when they were the suitor (b = 0.34) compared to when they were the target (b = –0.03) (see Figure 2). Results further indicated the gender of the participant and sexist attitudes (HS: b = –0.26, t = –

0.94, p = .35; BS: b = –0.29, t = –1.07, p = .29) as well as the context of the rejection and HS (b = 0.28, t = 1.30, p = .20) were not significant and unique predictors. See Tables 5 and 6.

Results from the third model indicated the three-way interactions between gender of the participant, context of the rejection, and sexist attitudes were not significant or unique predictors (HS: b = 0.16, t = 0.35, p = .73; BS: b = –0.50, t = –1.14, p = .26; See Tables 5 and 6), suggesting that sexist attitudes did not moderate the effect of the gender of the participant and the context of the rejection on the endorsement of explicit declarative rejection strategies due to interpersonal relationship reasons. Inconsistent with hypotheses (*H1.2a*), planned contrasts indicated no significant differences between men's adherence to hostile sexist attitudes in endorsing explicit declarative rejection strategies for personal preferences when they were the target (b = 0.19) compared to when they were the suitor (b = 0.37; t = 0.49, p = .96). Also inconsistent with hypotheses (*H1.2e*), planned contrasts indicated no significant differences between women's adherence to benevolent sexist attitudes in endorsing explicit declarative rejection strategies for personal preferences when they were the suitor (b = 0.11) compared to when they were the target (b = – 0.09; t = 0.74, p = .88).

***Explicit Declaration Due to Current Relationship Status*.** Results from the first model for the prediction of participants' endorsement for *Explicit Declaration Due to Current Relationship Status* were inconsistent with hypotheses (*H1.1a*), where parameter estimates indicated the gender of the participant was significant (b = 0.86, t = 2.42, p = .02; see Table 7 and 8), suggesting women (M = 5.52, SE = 0.21) were significantly more likely to endorse explicit declarative rejection strategies due to current relationship status compared to men (M = 4.66, SE = 0.28). Results also indicated the effects of BS (b = 0.19, t = 1.10, p = .27) and of HS (b = 0.26, t = 1.46, p = .15) were not significant, suggesting adherence to sexist attitudes did not

predict participants' endorsement of explicit declarative rejection strategies due to current relationship status. Results further indicated the effect of context of the rejection was significant (b = 2.03, t = 6.80, p < .0001; see Table 7 and 8), suggesting participants were significantly more likely to endorse explicit declarative rejection strategies due to current relationship status when they were the suitor (M = 6.11, SE = 0.23) compared to when they were the target (M = 4.08, SE = 0.23).

Results from the second model indicated the two-way interactions between gender of the participant and context of the rejection was not a significant and unique predictor (b = –0.37, t = –0.58, p = .56), suggesting the gender of the participant did not moderate the effect of the context of the rejection on participants' explicit declarative rejection strategies due to current relationship status. Consistent with hypotheses (*H1.1c*), planned contrasts indicated men were more likely to endorse explicit declarative rejection strategies due to interpersonal relationship reasons when they were the suitor (M = 5.81, SE = 0.38) compared to women when they were the target (M = 4.58, SE = 0.28; t = 2.61, p = .05). Results also indicated the gender of the participant and sexist attitudes (HS: b = –0.27, t = –0.75, p = .45; BS: b = –0.57, t = –1.61, p = .11) as well as the context of the rejection and sexist attitudes (HS: b = 0.25, t = 0.84, p = .41; BS: b = 0.27, t = 0.91, p = .37) were not significant and unique predictors. See Tables 7 and 8.

Results from the third model indicated the three-way interaction between gender of the participant, context of the rejection, and BS was not a significant or unique predictor (b = –0.23, t = –0.36, p = .72; See Table 8), suggesting that benevolent sexist attitudes did not moderate the effect of the gender of the participant and the context of the rejection on the endorsement of explicit declarative rejection strategies due to current relationship status. Inconsistent with hypotheses (*H1.2e*), planned contrasts indicated no significant differences between women's

adherence to benevolent sexist attitudes in endorsing explicit declarative rejection strategies due to current relationship status when they were the suitor (b = 0.12) compared to when they were the target (b = – 0.15; t = 0.91, p = .80). Results from the third model also indicated the three-way interaction between gender of the participant, context of the rejection, and HS was a significant and unique predictor (b = 1.48, t = 2.38, p = .02; See Table 7), suggesting that hostile sexist attitudes moderated the effect of the gender of the participant and the context of the rejection on the endorsement of explicit declarative rejection strategies due to current relationship status. Inconsistent with hypotheses (*H1.2a*), planned contrasts indicated no significant differences between men's adherence to hostile sexist attitudes in endorsing explicit declarative rejection strategies due to current relationship status when they were the target (b = 0.78) compared to when they were the suitor (b = 0.07; t = 1.41, p = .49).

Rude/Impolite Behaviors. Results from the first model for the prediction of participants' endorsement for *Rude/Impolite Behaviors* were consistent with hypotheses (*H1.1a*), where parameter estimates indicated the gender of the participant was significant (b = –0.34, t = –2.40, p = .02; see Tables 9 and 10), suggesting men (M = 1.60, SE = 0.11) were significantly more likely to endorse rude and impolite rejection behaviors compared to women (M = 1.26, SE = 0.09). Results also indicated a significant effect of BS (b = –0.14, t = –2.08, p = .04; see Table 10), suggesting participants with stronger adherence to benevolent sexist attitudes were significantly less likely to endorse rude and impolite rejection behaviors. Additionally, results indicated no significant effect of HS (b = –0.10, t = –1.42, p = .16), suggesting adherence to hostile sexist attitudes did not predict participants' endorsement of rude and impolite rejection behaviors. Results further indicated the effect of the context of the rejection was marginally significant (b = 0.14, t = 1.89, p = .06; see Tables 9 and 10), suggesting participants were more

likely to endorse rude and impolite rejection behaviors when they were the suitor (M = 1.50, SE = 0.08) compared to when they were the target (M = 1.36, SE = 0.08).

Results from the second model indicated the two-way interaction between gender of the participant and context of the rejection was not a significant and unique predictor (b = –0.19, t = –1.23, p = .22), suggesting the gender of the participant did not moderate the effect of the context of the rejection on participants' endorsement of rude and impolite rejection behaviors. Consistent with hypotheses (*H1.1c*), planned contrasts indicated men were more likely to endorse rude and impolite rejection behaviors when they were the suitor (M = 1.73, SE = 0.13) compared to women when they were the target (M = 1.22, SE = 0.10; t = 3.12, p = .01). Results also indicated the two-way interaction between gender of the participant and BS was a significant and unique predictor (b = 0.28, t = 1.98, p = .05; see Table 10), suggesting adherence to BS moderated the effect of gender of the participant on endorsement of rude and impolite rejection behaviors. Simple slope analyses indicated men with stronger adherence to BS were significantly less likely to endorse rude and impolite rejection behaviors (b = –0.32) compared to women (b = –0.04) (see Figure 4). Results also indicated the context of the rejection and sexist attitudes (HS: b = –0.04, t = –0.53, p = .60; BS: b = 0.07, t = 0.90, p = .37) as well as the gender of the participant and HS (b = 0.03, t = 0.17, p = .86) were not significant and unique predictors. See Tables 9 and 10.

Results from the third model indicated the three-way interactions between gender of the participant, context of the rejection, and sexist attitudes were not significant or unique predictors (HS: b = 0.16, t = 1.01, p = .31; BS: b = –0.01, t = –0.04, p = .97; See Tables 9 and 10), suggesting that sexist attitudes did not moderate the effect of the gender of the participant and the context of the rejection on the endorsement of rude and impolite behaviors. Inconsistent with

hypotheses (*H1.2a*), planned contrasts indicated no significant differences between men's adherence to hostile sexist attitudes in endorsing rude and impolite behaviors when they were the target ($b = –0.08$) compared to when they were the suitor ($b = –0.15$; $t = 0.50$, $p = .96$). Also inconsistent with hypotheses (*H1.2e*), planned contrasts indicated no significant differences between women's adherence to benevolent sexist attitudes in endorsing rude and impolite behaviors when they were the suitor ($b = –0.01$) compared to when they were the target ($b = –0.08$; $t = 0.70$, $p = .90$).

Results Summary. Results partially supported hypotheses that men would be more likely to endorse direct rejection-related strategies, where men were more likely to endorse rude and impolite behaviors as rejection strategies (*H1.1a*). Surprisingly, inconsistent with *H1.1a*, results indicated that women (rather than men) were more likely to endorse explicit declarative rejection strategies when the reasoning provided was their current relationship status or a prior interpersonal relationship; there was no gender effect for explicit declarative rejection strategies when the reasoning provided was for personal preferences. Additionally, results provided mixed support for the hypotheses that the context of the rejection would moderate this gender effect (*H1.1c*), where male suitors were more likely to endorse rude and impolite behaviors as well as explicit declaration due to one's current relationship status compared to female targets. However, female targets were more likely to endorse explicit declarations due to interpersonal relationship concerns compared to male suitors.

Results did not support hypotheses that sexist attitudes would moderate these effects, where men stronger in adherence to hostile sexist attitudes were not more likely to endorse explicit declarative rejection strategies due to their current relationship status when they were the target (*H1.2a*). Furthermore, results did not fully support the hypothesis that women stronger in

adherence to benevolent sexist attitudes would be more likely to endorse direct rejection-related behaviors when they were the suitor (*H1.2e*). However, partial support for *H1.2e* was found in the two-way interaction between participants' adherence to benevolent sexist attitudes and the context of the rejection, where those stronger in adherence to benevolent sexist attitudes were more likely to endorse explicit declarative rejection strategies due to either personal preferences or for an interpersonal relationship when they were the suitor.

Results for Endorsement of Indirect Rejection-Related Behaviors.

Avoidant Behaviors. Results from the first model for the prediction of participants' endorsement for *Avoidant Behaviors* were inconsistent with hypotheses (*H1.1b*), where parameter estimates indicated the gender of the participant was not significant ($b = 0.25$, $t = 1.08$, $p = .28$), suggesting women ($M = 2.67$, $SE = 0.14$) did not significantly differ from men ($M = 2.41$, $SE = 0.19$) in their endorsement of avoidant rejection behaviors. Results also indicated the effects of BS ($b = 0.08$, $t = 0.66$, $p = .51$) and of HS ($b = –0.06$, $t = –0.55$, $p = .58$) were not significant, suggesting adherence to sexist attitudes did not significantly predict participants' endorsement of avoidant rejection behaviors. Results further indicated the effect of context of the rejection was significant ($b = 0.59$, $t = 4.52$, $p < .0001$; see Tables 11 and 12), suggesting participants were more likely to endorse avoidant rejection behaviors when they were the suitor ($M = 2.83$, $SE = 0.14$) compared to when they were the target ($M = 2.24$, $SE = 0.14$). See Tables 11 and 12.

Results from the second model indicated the two-way interaction of the context of the rejection and gender of the participant was not a significant and unique predictor ($b = –0.42$, $t = –1.55$, p = .12; see Tables 11 and 12). Inconsistent with hypotheses (*H1.1c*), planned contrasts indicated women were more likely to endorse avoidant rejection behaviors when they were the

suitor (*M* = 2.89, *SE* = 0.16) compared to when they were the target (*M* = 2.44, *SE* = 0.16; t = 2.72, *p* = .04). Providing support for hypotheses (*H1.2d*), results indicated the two-way interaction between the context of the rejection and BS was a marginally significant and unique predictor (*b* = –0.23, *t* = –1.81, *p* = .07; see Table 12), suggesting adherence to BS may moderate the effect of the context of the rejection on participants' endorsement of avoidant rejection behaviors. Simple slope analyses indicated participants with stronger adherence to BS were more likely to endorse avoidant rejection behaviors when they were the target (*b* = 0.16) compared when they were the suitor (*b* = –0.07) (see Figure 5). Results further indicated the gender of the participant and sexist attitudes (HS: *b* = –0.04, *t* = –0.18, *p* = .86; BS: *b* = 0.21, *t* = 0.89, *p* = .38), and the context of the rejection and HS (*b* = –0.15, *t* = –1.16, *p* = .25) were not significant and unique predictors. See Tables 11 and 12.

Results from the third model indicated the three-way interactions between gender of the participant, context of the rejection, and BS was not a significant and unique predictor (*b* = 0.27, *t* = 0.95, *p* = .35; see Table 12). Inconsistent with hypotheses (*H1.2c*), planned contrasts indicated men with stronger adherence to benevolent sexist attitudes did not significantly differ in their endorsement of avoidant rejection behaviors when they were the suitor (*b* = –0.26) compared to when they were the target (*b* = 0.14, *t* = 1.83, *p* = .26). Also inconsistent with hypotheses (*H1.2d*), planned contrasts indicated women with stronger adherence to benevolent sexist attitudes did not significantly differ in their endorsement of avoidant rejection behaviors when they were the target (*b* = 0.22) compared to when they were the suitor (*b* = 0.08, *t* = 0.89, *p* = .81). Results also indicated the three-way interaction between gender of the participant, context of the rejection, and HS was a significant and unique predictor (*b* = 0.64, *t* = 2.37, *p* = .02; see Table 11). Consistent with hypotheses (*H1.2b*), planned contrasts indicated men with stronger

adherence to HS were significantly less likely to endorse avoidant rejection behaviors when they were the suitor (b = –0.32) compared to when they the target (b = 0.25; t = 2.61, p = .05; see Figure 6). See Tables 11 and 12.

Evasive Behaviors. Results from the first model for the prediction of participants' endorsement for *Evasive Behaviors* were inconsistent with hypotheses (*H1.1b*), where parameter estimates indicated the gender of the participant was not significant (b = 0.35, t = 1.41, p = .16), suggesting women (M = 2.73, SE = 0.15) did not differ from men (M = 2.39, SE = 0.20) in their endorsement of evasive rejection behaviors. Results also indicated the effects of BS (b = –0.05, t = –0.38, p = .71) and of HS (b = 0.01, t = 0.08, p = .94) were not significant, suggesting adherence to sexist attitudes did not predict participants' endorsement of evasive rejection behaviors. Results further indicated the effect of the context of the rejection was significant (b = –0.31, t = –2.10, p = .04; see Tables 13 and 14), suggesting participants were more likely to endorse evasive rejection behaviors when they were the target (M = 2.72, SE = 0.14) compared to when they were the suitor (M = 2.41, SE = 0.14). See Tables 13 and 14.

Results from the second model indicated the two-way interactions between gender of the participant and context of the rejection was not a significant and unique predictor (b = –0.49, t = –1.60, p = .11; see Tables 13 and 14). Consistent with hypotheses (*H1.1c*), planned contrasts indicated women were more likely to endorse evasive rejection behaviors when they were the target (M = 2.98, SE = 0.17) compared to when they were the suitor (M = 2.49, SE = 0.17; t = 2.61, p = .05). Results also indicated the gender of the participant and sexist attitudes (HS: b = –0.10, t = –0.41, p = .68; BS: b = 0.30, t = 1.24, p = .22) as well as the context of the rejection and sexist attitudes (HS: b = 0.06, t = 0.41, p = .68; BS: b = 0.17, t = 1.15, p = .25) were not significant and unique predictors. See Tables 13 and 14.

Results from the third model indicated the three-way interactions between gender of the participant, context of the rejection, and BS was not a significant and unique predictor (b = 0.21, t = 0.69, p = .49; see Table 14). Inconsistent with hypotheses (*H1.2c*), planned contrasts indicated men with stronger adherence to benevolent sexist attitudes did not significantly differ in their endorsement of evasive rejection behaviors when they were the suitor (b = –0.23) compared to when they were the target (b = –0.26, t = 0.13, p = .99). Also inconsistent with hypotheses (*H1.2d*), planned contrasts indicated women with stronger adherence to benevolent sexist attitudes did not significantly differ in their endorsement of evasive rejection behaviors when they were the target (b = –0.06) compared to when they were the suitor (b = 0.19, t = 1.33, p = .54). Results also indicated the three-way interaction between gender of the participant, context of the rejection, and HS was not a significant and unique predictor (b = 0.45, t = 1.44, p = .15; see Table 13). Inconsistent with hypotheses (*H1.2b*), planned contrasts indicated men with stronger adherence to hostile sexist attitudes did not significantly differ in their endorsement of evasive rejection behaviors when they were the suitor (b = –0.04) compared to when they the target (b = 0.19; t = 0.92, p = .80). See Tables 13 and 14.

Results Summary. Results supported the hypotheses that women would be more likely to endorse indirect rejection-related behaviors (*H1.1b*), where female participants were more likely to endorse evasive behaviors compared to male participants. However, there was mixed support regarding the moderating effect of the context of the rejection (*H1.1c*), where female participants were more likely to endorse evasive rejection behaviors but less likely to endorse avoidant rejection behaviors when they were the target compared to when they were the suitor. Furthermore, results supported the hypotheses that men stronger in adherence to hostile sexist attitudes would be less likely to endorse indirect rejection-related behaviors when they were the

suitor (H1.2b), where male participants stronger in hostile sexist attitudes were less likely to endorse avoidant rejection behaviors when they were the suitor compared to when they were the target. However, results did not support the hypotheses that benevolent sexist attitudes would moderate the effect of participant gender and the context of the rejection on endorsement of indirect rejection-related behaviors (*H1.2c, H1.2d*), even though partial support was found for *H1.2d* where participants (regardless of gender) stronger in adherence to benevolent sexist attitudes were more likely to endorse avoidant rejection behaviors when they were the target.

Study 1 Discussion

Study 1's results provided mixed support for the hypotheses, where men were more likely to endorse direct rejection-related behaviors when they were rude in nature (*H1.1a*), suggesting that being rude or impolite is not perceived to be a feminine behavior. In contrast, women (rather than men) were more likely to endorse direct rejection-related behaviors when the reasoning provided was due to currently being in a relationship or referring to an interpersonal relationship already established with the other person (i.e., colleague, friend). Furthermore, results did not support the hypotheses that women would be more likely to endorse indirect rejection-related behaviors (*H1.1b*). There was support for the hypotheses regarding the effect of participant gender on endorsement of rejection strategies (direct or indirect) being moderated by whether the person is the target or the suitor (*H1.1c*). Men – when they were suitors – were more likely to endorse rude/impolite behaviors and explicit declarative rejections due to one's current relationship status, but were less likely to endorse explicit declarative rejections due to the interpersonal relationship, compared to women when they were targets. Additionally, women were more likely to endorse evasive rejection behaviors, but were less likely to endorse avoidant rejection behaviors, when they were targets compared to when they were suitors. These results

suggest that the act of explicitly verbalizing one's rejection of another may not in itself be considered a masculine behavior, but the reasoning provided (e.g., the justification for the rejection) may have gendered attributes. Additionally, the results suggest that the act of either avoiding (e.g., ghosting) may not considered a feminine behavior whereas evading a potential confrontation or awkward situation (i.e., explicitly declaring one is not interested) may be considered a feminine behavior.

Results did not support the hypothesis that men who more strongly adhered to hostile sexist attitudes were more likely to endorse direct rejection-related behaviors when they were the target (*H1.2a*); however, they were more likely to endorse indirect rejection-related behaviors when they were the suitor (i.e., avoidant rejection behaviors; *H1.2b*). These results suggest that men's hostile sexist attitudes are related to their perceptions of rejection behavior, in that indirect rejection strategies may be perceived as feminine behaviors by men with hostile sexist attitudes.

Furthermore, results did not support the hypotheses that participants' benevolent sexist attitudes would moderate the effect of their gender and the context of the rejection on their endorsement of both direct rejection-related behaviors (*H1.2e*) and indirect rejection-related behaviors (*H1.2c*, *H1.2d*). However, results did show partial support for these hypotheses, where participants (regardless of gender) who strongly adhered to benevolent sexist attitudes were more likely to endorse direct rejection-related behaviors when they were the suitor (*H1.2e*) and more likely to endorse indirect-rejection related behaviors when they were target (*H1.2d*). These results suggest that those who strongly endorse benevolent sexist attitudes may prefer more direct behaviors when they are doing the rejecting but prefer more indirect behaviors when they are getting rejected.

Chapter 3 - Study 2

Overview

In Study 2, the relationship between individuals' sexist attitudes and their perceptions of a hypothetical coworker who rejects another hypothetical coworker's romantic interest was examined. The study design was a 2 (*Rejection Behavior: Explicit Declaration vs Evasive*) x 2 (*Gender of the Target: Male vs Female*) between-subjects design where participants were presented with a hypothetical scenario where a coworker rejects an opposite-sex coworker's romantic interest.

Based on the previous literature (e.g., Eagly, 1987; Glick & Fiske, 1996; Goodboy & Brann, 2010; Rudman & Glick, 2001; Stratmoen et al., 2019), I predicted the coworker's rejection behavior would influence individual perceptions of the coworker (i.e., *target*) who rejects another coworker's (i.e., *suitor*) romantic interest. Specifically, it was hypothesized that:

H2.1a: Participants would be more likely to rate the target as not adhering to feminine gender norms (i.e., more agentic, less communal) when they use an explicit declarative (vs evasive) rejection strategy.

H2.1b: Participants would be more likely to perceive the target with a competence stereotype (i.e., more competent) when they use an explicit declarative (vs evasive) rejection strategy.

H2.1c: Participants would be more likely to perceive the target with a warmth Stereotype (i.e., higher in warmth) when they use an evasive (vs explicit declarative) rejection strategy.

H2.1d: Participants would be more likely to engage in active harm (i.e., workplace

prejudice and discrimination) against the target when they use an explicit declarative (vs evasive) rejection strategy.

It was also predicted that the gender of the rejecting coworker (i.e., *target*) would moderate the effect of rejection behavior on individual perceptions of the target. Specifically, it was hypothesized that:

H2.2a: Participants would be less likely to rate a female (vs male) target as adhering to feminine gender norms (i.e., more agentic, less communal) when she uses an explicit declarative rejection strategy.

H2.2b: Participants would be more likely to rate a female target as adhering to feminine gender norms (i.e., less agentic, more communal) when she uses an evasive (vs explicit declarative) rejection strategy.

H2.2c: Participants would be more likely to perceive a female target with a competence stereotype (i.e., more competent) when she uses an explicit declarative (vs evasive) rejection strategy.

H2.2d: Participants would be more likely to perceive a female target with a warmth stereotype (i.e., higher in warmth) when she uses an evasive (vs explicit declarative) rejection strategy.

H2.2e: Participants would be more likely to engage in active harm (i.e., engage in workplace prejudice and discrimination) against a female (vs male) target when she uses an explicit declarative rejection strategy.

H2.2f: Participants would be more likely to engage in active facilitation (i.e., not engage in workplace prejudice and discrimination) towards a female target when she uses an evasive (vs explicit declarative) rejection strategy.

It was also predicted individuals' adherence to sexist attitudes would moderate the effect of rejection behavior and gender of the target on their perceptions of a coworker (i.e., *target*) who rejects another coworker's (i.e., *suitor*) romantic interest. Specifically, it was hypothesized that:

H2.3a: Participants with stronger adherence to sexist attitudes (i.e., hostile and benevolent) would be less likely to rate a female target as adhering to feminine gender norms (i.e., more agentic, less communal) when she uses an explicit declarative (vs evasive) rejection strategy.

H2.3b: Participants with stronger adherence to sexist attitudes (i.e., hostile and benevolent) would be more likely to rate a female target as adhering to feminine gender norms (i.e., less agentic, more communal) when she uses an evasive (vs explicit declarative) rejection strategy.

H2.3c: Participants with stronger adherence to hostile sexist attitudes would be more likely to perceive a female target with a contemptuous stereotype (i.e., less competent and lower in warmth) when she uses an explicit declarative (vs evasive) rejection strategy.

H2.3d: Participants with stronger adherence to benevolent sexist attitudes would be more likely to perceive a female (vs male) target with a patronizing stereotype (i.e., less competent and higher in warmth) when she uses an evasive rejection strategy.

H2.3e: Participants with stronger adherence to hostile sexist attitudes would be more would be more likely to engage in active harm (i.e., engage in workplace prejudice and discrimination) against a female (vs male) target when she uses an explicit declarative rejection strategy.

H2.3f: Participants with stronger adherence to benevolent sexist attitudes would be more would be more likely to engage in active facilitation (i.e., not engage in workplace prejudice and discrimination) against a female (vs male) target when she uses an evasive rejection strategy.

Method

Participants. Participants were 242 male and female participants recruited through Amazon Mechanical Turk (Mturk) (ages 19 – 77, *M* = 41.85, *SD* = 12.69) and were monetarily compensated for their participation. Most participants self-identified as White/Caucasian (72%), female (62%), their gender identity as being cisgender (99%), their sexual orientation as heterosexual (85%), their current relationship status as being married or in a serious long-term relationship (60%) and being employed full-time within the past year (74%). This sample size was based on a power analysis using G*Power (Faul et al., 2007) with a suggested sample size of 199 using a multiple regression effect size level of 0.15, power level of .95, and 15 predictors.

Materials

Hostile and Benevolent Sexism. As in Study 1, participants' adherence to benevolent and hostile sexist attitudes was measured using the Ambivalent Sexism Scale (ASI; Glick & Fiske, 1996; see Appendix A; HS: α: 93., *M* = 3.29, *SD* = 2.02; BS: α: .89, *M* = 4.36, *SD* = 2.06).

Reading Comprehension Check. The same reading comprehension check from Study 1 was also used in Study 2.

Vignettes. The vignettes from Study 1 was modified to manipulate the rejection strategy (i.e., explicit declaration versus evasive) and the gender (i.e., male versus female) of the target:

Explicit Declaration Rejection Strategy: *Imagine you are a supervisor at a mid-size company. You have been employed there for the past 2 years and get along well with*

*your coworkers and managers. One Wednesday morning in the breakroom while getting a cup of coffee you overhear a conversation between two other supervisors who work in separate departments – named Teresa and Thomas – both of whom are attractive people. Thomas/Teresa asks Teresa/Thomas about her/his weekend plans, mentioning that he/she is interested in getting to know her/him better outside of work. He/She asks if she/he would like to go out for coffee on Saturday (This would not be a problem since the company you work for does not have a policy prohibiting coworkers from dating.) There is a **slight** pause while Teresa/Thomas stirs her/his coffee and looks out the window. She/He then responds to Thomas'/Teresa's asking her/him out for the coffee date by saying to him/her "**No, I am not romantically interested in you**."*

Evasive Rejection Strategy: *Imagine you are a supervisor at a mid-size company. You have been employed there for the past 2 years and get along well with your coworkers and managers. One Wednesday morning in the breakroom while getting a cup of coffee you overhear a conversation between two other supervisors who work in separate departments – named Teresa and Thomas – both of whom are attractive people. Thomas/Teresa asks Teresa/Thomas about her/his weekend plans, mentioning that he/she is interested in getting to know her/him better outside of work. He/She asks if she/he would like to go out for coffee on Saturday (This would not be a problem since the company you work for does not have a policy prohibiting coworkers from dating.) There is an **awkward** pause while Teresa/Thomas stirs her/his coffee and looks out the window. She/He then responds to Thomas'/Teresa's asking her/him out for the coffee date by saying to him/her "**I can't, I already have other plans**."*

Workplace Evaluation Scenario. A workplace evaluation scenario was adapted from materials used in studies conducted by Caleo (2016) and Heilman and Chen (2005). It included information about the target (i.e., sex, birth date, date of hire, current position) and their job responsibilities in the company. There was also evaluative feedback regarding the target's job performance from their supervisor (see Appendix F).

Vignette Attention Checks. Participants were asked to respond to two attention checks after the vignette. The first attention check asked if the target in the vignette was a supervisor at the company. The second attention check asked if the target and suitor worked in the same department. Participants responded to both attention checks with either "yes" or "no."

Response Items. A series of response items were created to measure participants' perceptions regarding the target.

Perceptions of Adherence to Gender Norms. Response items were modified from the Bem Sex-Role Inventory (BSRI; Bem, 1974; Choi et al., 2009) to assess participants' perceptions of the target's adherence societal gender roles and norms. The response items included statements regarding adherence to femininity (e.g., *Teresa is affectionate; Teresa is tender; Teresa is sensitive to the needs of others*) and masculinity (e.g., *Teresa is assertive; Teresa is independent; Teresa has a strong personality*) (see Appendix G). Participants rated each item on 1 to 9 Likert-type scales (*1=Disagree Very Strongly* to *9=Agree Very Strongly*). Participants' ratings of the target's adherence to femininity (e.g., communal traits) and masculinity (e.g., agentic traits) were obtained by finding the mean of the response items (Communal: α: .97, M = 5.37, SD = 1.74; Agentic: α: .90, M = 6.37, SD = 1.33).

Perceptions of Competency and Warmth. Response items were modified from Fiske et al. (2002) to assess participants' perceptions of the target's levels of competency (e.g., *Teresa is*

competent; Teresa is intelligent; Teresa is confident) and warmth (e.g., *Teresa is warm; Teresa is friendly; Teresa is tolerant*) (see Appendix H). Participants rated each item on 1 to 9 Likert-type scales (*1=Disagree Very Strongly* to *9=Agree Very Strongly*). Participants' ratings of the target's competency and warmth were obtained by finding the mean of the response items (Competency: α: .90, *M* = 6.97, *SD* = 1.27; Warmth: α: .92, *M* = 6.05, *SD* = 1.62).

Perceptions of Workplace Evaluation. Response items were created to assess participants' perceptions of the target within the workplace. Response items included perceptions of the target's job performance (e.g., *Teresa's job performance has been excellent over the past year; Teresa is a hard worker; Teresa is a valuable asset to the company*), their willingness to work with the target (e.g., *I would enjoy working with Teresa within a team environment; I would like to have Teresa as my manager*), and their likelihood to engage in workplace discrimination (e.g., *I would recommend Teresa for a high-profile project; I would recommend Teresa receive a salary increase this year; I would recommend Teresa for the management promotion*). Participants rated each item on 1 to 9 Likert-type scales (*1=Disagree Very Strongly* to *9=Agree Very Strongly*) (see Appendix I).

Procedure. Participants first provided informed consent, then responded to the reading comprehension check. If participants passed the reading comprehension check, they were allowed to move forward in the study. Next, participants answered demographic information (e.g., age, sex, sexual orientation, marital status, ethnicity). Participants were then randomly assigned to one of the four rejection vignettes and provided their answers to the accompanying response items. Next, participants read the workplace evaluation scenario and provided their answers to the accompanying response items. Afterwards, participants completed the ASI. After

completing the study, participants were debriefed, thanked for their time, and received monetary compensation.

Results

Vignette Attention Checks. Thirty-three (33) participants were removed from data analyses for not selecting the appropriate responses during the vignette attention checks, and one (1) participant was removed for indicating not having an employment history within the past 7 years, reducing the sample size from 242 to 208 for data analyses.

Data Reduction and Creation of Workplace Evaluation Composite Variables. A principal component analysis with varimax rotation was conducted on the perceptions of the female coworker regarding her job performance evaluation. Both Cattell's (1966) scree plot and Kaiser's (1960) rule (eigenvalues greater than 1) were used to determine the number of factors to retain. Based on recommendations and rule-of-thumb ratios in multivariate statistics books and simulations (e.g., Comrey & Lee, 1992; Guadagnoli & Velicer, 1988; Hair et al., 1998; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007), factors retained contained at least three items, the items loaded at least .60 onto the factor, and did not cross-load above .30 on any other factor.

Three factors emerged that accounted for 80% of the variance. The first factor – *Positive Ratings of Her Work Performance* – consisted of 3 items (i.e., *Teresa's job performance has been excellent over the past year; Teresa is a hard worker; I would recommend Teresa for a high-profile project*) that loaded well (>.60) and created a reliable composite variable, α: .81. The second factor – *Positive Perceptions of the Rejector as a Coworker* – consisted of 3 items (i.e., *Teresa is a valuable asset to the company; I would enjoy working with Teresa as her coworker; I would enjoy working with Teresa within a team environment*) that loaded well (>.60) and created a reliable composite variable, α: .90. The third factor – *Likelihood to Support the*

Target – consisted of 8 items (i.e., *Teresa is likely to advance in the company* (reverse coded)*; I think Teresa would make an excellent manager* (reverse coded)*; I would not mind having Teresa as my manager* (reverse coded)*; Teresa is similar to other managers* (reverse coded)*; I think Teresa would be successful in the new management position* (reverse coded)*; I would recommend Teresa for the management position* (reverse coded); *I would recommend Teresa receive a salary increase* (reverse coded); *I would recommend Teresa receive a bonus for her hard work* (reverse coded)) that loaded well (>.61) and created a reliable composite variable, α: .95.

Zero-Order Correlations Between Gender of the Participant, Sexist Attitudes, and Composite Variables. Participants' gender was positively correlated with HS (r = .10) and significantly positively correlated with BS (r = .19), indicating men were stronger in their adherence to sexist attitudes compared to women. HS was significantly positively correlated with BS (r = .39), indicating a moderate relationship between participants' endorsement of hostile sexist attitudes and benevolent sexist attitudes. BS was positively correlated with the composite variables *Communal Traits* and *Warmth* (r = .11 and r = .12; respectively), suggesting participants' adherence to benevolent sexist attitudes was related to their perceptions of the target's levels of communal traits and warmth. BS was also significantly negatively correlated with *Likelihood to Support the Target* (r = – .14), suggesting participants' adherence to benevolent sexist attitudes were related to the likelihood of their expression of prejudice and engagement of discriminatory behaviors against the target. Please refer to Table 15 for means, standard deviations, reliability statistics, and other zero-order correlations between participants' gender, sexist attitudes, and the composite variables.

Data Analyses. Separate sequential (i.e., hierarchical) linear regression analyses were conducted to test the hypotheses regarding HS and BS due to their moderate relationship with each other (see Table 15). The gender of the participant was also included in the analyses to control for potential confounds. To test the hypotheses that rejection behavior (i.e., explicit declaration versus evasive), and the gender of the target (i.e., male versus female), and sexist attitudes would predict perceptions of a coworker (i.e., *target*) who rejects an opposite-sex coworker's (i.e., *suitor*) romantic interest, sequential (i.e., hierarchical) regression analyses were conducted along with planned contrasts using BS and HS in separate regression models. The gender of the participant (dummy coded as 1 (*Man*) and 0 (*Woman*)) and individual differences in sexist attitudes using the composite scores for HS or BS (both standardized prior to analyses) was entered in Step 1. Then the hypotheses regarding the main effect of rejection behavior were tested in Step 2 by entering the manipulations of the rejection behavior of the target (dummy coded as 1 (*Evasive*) and 0 (*Explicit Declaration*)) and the target's gender (dummy coded as 1 (*Man*) and 0 (*Woman*)). Then the hypotheses regarding the moderating effect of the target's gender on the target's rejection behavior were tested in Step 3 by entering the two-way interactions between the rejection behavior of the target, the gender of the target, and the composite score for HS or BS. Then the hypotheses regarding the moderating effect of participants' sexist attitudes on the target's rejection behavior and gender were tested in Step 4 by entering the three-way interaction between the rejection behavior of the target, the gender of the target, and the composite score for HS or BS.

The structure of these hierarchical steps was used to predict each of the following composite variables. HS and BS were standardized prior to analyses. Standardized regression coefficients are reported and discussed below.

Perceptions of Adherence to Gender Norms.

Agentic Traits. Step 1 of the separate hierarchical linear regression analyses using HS ($F(2, 205) = 1.65$, $p = .20$) and BS ($F(2, 205) = 2.19$, $p = .12$) to predict perceptions of agentic traits of the target accounted for 1.58% and 2.09% of the variance respectively. Gender of the participant emerged as a marginally significant negative predictor of perceptions of agentic traits of the target (HS: $b = –0.34$, $t = –1.81$, $p = .07$; BS: $b = –0.38$, $t = –1.96$, $p = .05$; see Tables 16 and 17), indicating that male participants ($M = 6.16$, $SD = 1.51$) were less likely to rate the target as exhibiting agentic traits compared to female participants ($M = 6.50$, $SD = 1.19$).

The inclusion of the rejection behavior of the target and the target's gender in Step 2 accounted for an additional 22.62% of the variance in the model with HS ($\Delta F(2, 203) = 27.60$, $p < .0001$) and 21.14% of the variance in the model with BS ($\Delta F(2, 203) = 27.94$, $p < .0001$). Consistent with hypotheses (*H2.1a*), rejection behavior emerged as a significant unique and negative predictor (HS: $b = –1.20$, $t = –7.33$, $p < .0001$; BS: $b = –1.20$, $t = –7.36$, $p < .0001$; see Tables 16 and 17), indicating participants rated a target as more agentic when they used an explicit declarative rejection strategy ($M = 6.95$, $SE = 0.12$) than a target who used an evasive rejection strategy ($M = 5.74$, $SE = 0.12$).

The inclusion of the two-way interactions between the rejection behavior of the target, the target's gender, and the HS or BS composite score in Step 3 accounted for an additional 1.15% of the variance in the model with HS ($\Delta F(3,200) = 1.00$, $p = .39$) and 0.48% of the variance in the model with BS ($\Delta F(3, 200) = 0.42$, $p = .74$). Results indicated the gender of the target did not significantly moderate the effect of the target's rejection behavior on ratings of the target exhibiting agentic traits (HS: $b = –35$, $t = –1.05$, $p = .29$; BS: $b = –0.37$, $t = –1.11$, $p = .27$; see Tables 16 and 17). Consistent with hypotheses (*H2.2b*), planned contrasts indicated

participants were significantly more likely to rate female target higher in agentic traits when she used an explicit declarative (M = 6.92, SE = 0.16) compared to an evasive (M = 5.89, SE = 0.16) rejection strategy (t = 4.50, p = .0001). However, inconsistent with hypotheses (*H2.2a*), planned contrasts indicated no significant differences in the ratings a female (M = 6.92, SE = 0.16) target as exhibiting agentic traits compared to a male (M = 6.97, SE = 0.17) target when they used an explicit declarative rejection strategy (t = 0.20, p = .99).

The inclusion of the three-way interaction between the rejection behavior of the target, the target's gender, and the HS or BS composite score in Step 4 accounted for an additional 0.06% of the variance in the model with HS ($\Delta F(1, 199) = 0.15$, p = .70) and 0.53% of the variance in the model with BS ($\Delta F(1, 199) = 1.39$, p = .24). Results indicated that the three-way interaction between the rejection behavior of the target, the target's gender, and the HS or BS composite score did not emerge as a unique nor significant predictor of ratings of the target exhibiting agentic traits (HS: b = –0.13, t = –0.39, p = .70; BS: b = –0.40, t = –1.18, p = .24), suggesting that participants' adherence to sexist attitudes did not moderate the effect of the target's rejection behavior and gender on ratings of agentic traits (see Tables 16 and 17). Inconsistent with hypotheses (*H2.3a*), planned contrasts indicated participants with stronger adherence to sexist attitudes did not significantly differ in perceptions of a female target exhibiting agentic traits when they used an explicit declarative rejection strategy (*HS:* b = –0.15, *BS:* b = 0.04) compared to an evasive rejection strategy (*HS:* b = 0.13, t = 1.18, p = .64; *BS:* b = 0.23, t = 0.84, p = .84). Also inconsistent with hypotheses (*H2.3b*), planned contrasts indicated no significant differences in perceptions of a female (*HS:* b = 0.13, *BS:* b = 0.23) vs male (*HS:* b = 0.17, *BS:* b = 0.004) target exhibiting agentic traits when they used an evasive rejection strategy (*HS*: t = 0.18, p = .99; *BS*: t = 0.94, p = .78).

Communal Traits. Step 1 of the separate hierarchical linear regression analyses using HS ($F(2, 205) = 0.03$, $p = .98$) and BS ($F(2, 205) = 1.27$, $p = .28$) to predict perceptions of communal traits of the target accounted for 0.03% and 1.23% of the variance respectively. Neither gender of the participant (HS: $b = 0.06$, $t = 0.22$, $p = .83$; BS: $b = –0.02$, $t = –0.10$, $p = .92$) nor sexist attitudes (HS: $b = –0.01$, $t = –0.08$, $p = .94$; BS: $b = 0.19$, $t = 1.58$, $p = .12$) emerged as significant predictors of perceptions of communal traits regarding the target (see Tables 18 and 19).

The inclusion of the target's rejection behavior and the gender of the target in Step 2 accounted for an additional 15.79% of the variance in the model with HS ($\Delta F(2, 203) = 19.04$, $p < .0001$) and 16.55% of the variance in the model with BS ($\Delta F(2, 203) = 20.43$, $p < .0001$). Consistent with hypotheses (*H2.1a*), rejection behavior emerged as a significant unique and positive predictor (HS: $b = 0.93$, $t = 4.14$, $p < .0001$; BS: $b = 0.92$, $t = 4.18$, $p < .0001$; see Tables 18 and 19), indicating participants rated the target as less communal when they used an explicit declarative rejection strategy ($M = 4.88$, $SE = 0.16$) compared to when they used an evasive rejection strategy ($M = 5.80$, $SE = 0.16$). Additionally, the gender of the target emerged as a significant unique and negative predictor (HS: $b = –1.07$, $t = –4.78$, $p < .0001$; BS: $b = –1.12$, $t = –5.03$, $p < .0001$; see Tables 18 and 19), indicating participants rated the target as more communal when the target was female ($M = 5.87$, $SE = 0.16$) rather than male ($M = 4.81$, $SE = 0.16$).

The inclusion of the two-way interactions between rejection behavior of the target, the target's gender, and the HS or BS composite score in Step 3 accounted for an additional 4.38% of the variance in the model with HS ($\Delta F(6, 197) = 1.80$, $p = .10$) and 2.37% of the variance in the model with BS ($\Delta F(6, 197) = 0.97$, $p = .44$). Results indicated gender of the target did not

significantly moderate the effect of the target's rejection behavior on ratings of the target as exhibiting communal traits (HS: $b = 0.10$, $t = 0.23$, $p = .82$; BS: $b = 0.04$, $t = 0.08$, $p = .93$; see Tables 18 and 19). Consistent with hypotheses (*H2.2b*), planned contrasts indicated participants were significantly less likely to rate a female target as exhibiting communal traits when they used an explicit declarative rejection strategy ($M = 5.43$, SE = 0.22) compared to when they used an evasive rejection strategy ($M = 6.32$, SE = 0.22; $t = 2.87$, $p = .02$). Also consistent with hypotheses (*H2.2a*), planned contrasts indicated participants were significant more likely to rate a female ($M = 5.43$, SE = 0.22) vs male ($M = 4.30$, SE = 0.22) target exhibiting communal traits when they used an explicit declarative rejection strategy ($t = 3.55$, $p = .003$). Results also indicated the two-way interaction between HS and the gender of the target was a significant unique and positive predictor ($b = 0.43$, $t = 1.91$, $p = .05$; see Table 18), indicating adherence to HS moderates the effect of the gender of the target on participants' ratings of the target exhibiting communal traits. Simple slope analyses indicated participants with stronger adherence to HS were less likely to perceive the target as exhibiting communal traits when the target was female ($b = –0.23$) compared to when the target was male ($b = 0.20$) (see Figure 7).

The inclusion of the three-way interaction between rejection behavior of the target, the target's gender, and the HS or BS composite score in Step 4 accounted for an additional 0.46% of the variance in the model with HS ($\Delta F(1, 199) = 1.12$, $p = .29$) and 0.87% of the variance in the model with BS ($\Delta F(1, 199) = 2.13$, $p = .15$). Inconsistent with hypotheses (*H2.3a, H2.3b*), results indicated that the three-way interaction between rejection behavior of the target, the target's gender, and HS or BS composite score did not emerge as unique nor significant predictors of ratings of the target as exhibiting communal traits (HS: $b = –0.48$, $t = –1.06$, $p = .29$; BS: $b = –0.66$, $t = –1.46$, $p = .15$; see Tables 18 and 19). Inconsistent with hypotheses

(*H2.3a*), planned contrasts indicated participants with stronger adherence to sexist attitudes did not significantly differ in perceptions of a female target exhibiting communal traits when they used an explicit declarative rejection strategy (*HS: b* = –0.22, *BS: b* = 0.10) compared to an evasive rejection strategy (*HS: b* = –0.25, *t* = 0.08, *p* = .99; *BS: b* = 0.23, *t* = 0.46, *p* = .97). Also inconsistent with hypotheses (*H2.3b*), planned contrasts indicated no significant differences in perceptions of a female (*HS: b* = –0.25, *BS: b* = 0.23) vs male (*HS: b* = –0.07, *BS: b* = 0.12) target exhibiting communal traits when they used an evasive rejection strategy (*HS*: *t* = 0.54, *p* = .95; *BS*: *t* = 0.37, *p* = .98).

***Results Summary*.** Results supported the hypotheses that participants would rate a target as not adhering to feminine gender norms when they used an explicit declarative rejection strategy, where participants rated the target as significantly more agentic and less communal when they used an explicit declaration rather than be evasive when rejecting an unreciprocated romantic advance from an opposite sex coworker (*H2.1a*).

Results supported the hypotheses regarding the target's gender moderating the effect of the target's rejection behavior on participants' perceptions of the target adhering to feminine gender norms, where female targets were rated as more agentic and less communal when she used an explicit declarative rejection strategy compared to an evasive rejection strategy (*H2.2b*). However, female targets were rated as more (not less) communal compared to male targets when using an explicit declarative rejection strategy, disconfirming *H2.2a*. Also, sexist attitudes did not moderate the effects of the target's rejection behavior and the target's gender on perceptions of the target adhering to feminine gender norms, thereby not supporting hypotheses (*H2.3a, H2.3b*).

Additionally, results indicated participants were more likely to rate a female target as exhibiting communal traits. Results also indicated that hostile sexist attitudes moderated the effect of the target's gender on participants' perceptions of the target adhering to feminine gender norms, where those with stronger adherence to hostile sexist attitudes were more likely to rate a male target higher in communal traits, and a female target lower in communal traits.

Perceptions of Competency and Warmth.

Competency. Step 1 of the separate hierarchical linear regression analyses using HS ($F(2, 205) = 0.96$, $p = .39$) and BS ($F(2, 205) = 1.88$, $p = .16$) to predict perceptions of competency of the target accounted for 0.93% and 1.80% of the variance respectively. Both gender of the participant (HS: $b = –0.22$, $t = –1.23$, $p = .22$; BS: $b = –0.26$, $t = –1.44$, $p = .15$) and sexist attitudes (HS: $b = 0.07$, $t = 0.77$, $p = .45$; BS: $b = 0.14$, $t = 1.55$, $p = .12$) did not emerge as significant predictors of perceptions of the target's competency (see Tables 20 and 21).

The inclusion of the target's rejection behavior and gender in Step 2 accounted for an additional 8.35% of the variance in the model with HS ($\Delta F(2, 203) = 9.34$, $p = .0001$) and 8.85% of the variance in the model with BS ($\Delta F(2, 203) = 10.05$, $p < .0001$). Consistent with hypotheses (*H2.1b*), rejection behavior emerged as a significant unique and negative predictor (HS: $b = –0.32$, $t = –1.91$, $p = .05$; BS: $b = –0.32$, $t = –1.92$, $p = .05$; see Tables 20 and 21), indicating participants rated the target as significantly more competent when they used an explicit declarative rejection strategy ($M = 7.10$, $SE = 0.12$) compared to when they used an evasive rejection strategy ($M = 6.77$, $SE = 0.12$). Results also indicated the gender of the target emerged as a significant unique and negative predictor (HS: $b = –0.64$, $t = –3.78$, $p = .0002$; BS: $b = –0.67$, $t = –3.96$, $p = .0001$; see Tables 20 and 21), indicating participants rated the female

target (M = 7.26, SE = 0.12) as significantly more competent than the male target (M = 6.62, SE = 0.12).

The inclusion of the two-way interaction between the target's rejection behavior, the target's gender, and the HS or BS composite score in Step 3 accounted for an additional 1.01% of the variance in the model with HS ($\Delta F(3, 200) = 0.75$, $p = .53$) and 0.42% of the variance in the model with BS ($\Delta F(3, 200) = 0.32$, $p = .81$). Results indicated that the two-way interaction between the target's rejection behavior and the target's gender did not emerge as a unique nor significant predictor of rating the target's level of competency (HS: $b = –0.22$, $t = –0.64$, $p = .53$; BS: $b = –0.28$, $t = –0.81$, $p = .42$; see Tables 20 and 21). Inconsistent with hypotheses (*H2.2c*), planned contrasts indicated no significant differences in perceptions of a female target's level of competency when they used an explicit declarative rejection strategy (M = 7.36, SE = 0.17) compared to when they used an evasive rejection strategy (M = 7.15, SE = 0.17; $t = 0.88$, $p = .81$).

The inclusion of the three-way interaction between the target's rejection behavior, the target's gender, and the HS or BS composite score in Step 4 accounted for an additional 0.01% of the variance in the model with HS ($\Delta F(1, 199) = 0.15$, $p = .70$) and 0.56% of the variance in the model with BS ($\Delta F(1, 199) = 1.26$, $p = .26$). Results indicated that the three-way interaction between the target's rejection behavior, the target's gender, and HS or BS composite score did not emerge as a unique nor significant predictor of rating the target's levels of competency (HS: $b = –0.14$, $t = –0.39$, $p = .70$; BS: $b = –0.39$, $t = –1.12$, $p = .26$; see Tables 20 and 21). Inconsistent with hypotheses (*H2.3c*), planned contrasts indicated participants with stronger adherence to hostile sexist attitudes did not significantly differ in perceptions of a female target's level of competency when they used an explicit declarative rejection strategy ($b = –0.07$)

compared to an evasive rejection strategy (b = –0.02; t = 0.19, p = .99). Also inconsistent with hypotheses (*H2.3d*), planned contrasts indicated participants with stronger adherence to benevolent sexist attitudes did not significantly differ in perceptions of a female (b = 0.22) vs male (b = 0.12) target's level of competency when they used an evasive rejection strategy (t = 0.40, p = .98).

Warmth. Step 1 of the separate hierarchical linear regression analyses using HS (F(2, 205) = 0.09, p = .92) and BS (F(2, 205) = 1.63, p = .20) to predict perceptions of warmth for the target accounted for 0.08% and 1.56% of the variance respectively. Both gender of the participant (HS: b = –0.08, t = –0.36, p = .72; BS: b = –0.16, t = –0.67, p = .51) and hostile sexism (b = 0.03, t = 0.25, p = .80) did not emerge as significant predictors of perceptions of warmth for the target, indicating that participants' gender as well as their adherence to hostile sexist attitudes did not significantly affect ratings of warmth (see Tables 22 and 23). Results also indicated that BS was a marginally significant and positive predictor of ratings of competency (b = 0.20, t = 1.77, p = .07), suggesting that participants with stronger adherence to benevolent sexist attitudes may be more likely to rate the target as having higher levels of warmth.

The inclusion of the rejection behavior of the target's rejection behavior and the target's gender in Step 2 accounted for an additional 10.89% of the variance in the model with HS (ΔF(2, 203) = 12.42, p < .0001) and 11.66% of the variance in the model with BS (ΔF(2, 203) = 13.64, p < .0001). Results indicated rejection behavior emerged as a significant unique and positive predictor (HS: b = 0.53, t = 2.47, p = .01; BS: b = 0.53, t = 2.50, p = .01; see Tables 22 and 23). Consistent with hypotheses (*H2.1c*), planned contrasts indicated participants rated the target as significantly higher in warmth when they used an evasive rejection strategy (M = 6.28, SE = 0.15) compared to when they used an explicit declarative rejection strategy (M = 5.74, SE =

0.16). Additionally, the gender of the target emerged as a significant unique and negative predictor (HS: $b = –0.96$, $t = –4.45$, $p = .0001$; BS: $b = –1.00$, $t = –4.70$, $p < .0001$; see Tables 22 and 23), indicating participants rated the female target as exhibiting more warmth ($M = 6.49$, $SE = 0.15$) compared to the male target ($M = 5.53$, $SE = 0.16$).

The inclusion of the two-way interactions between the target's rejection behavior, the target's gender, and the HS or BS composite score in Step 3 accounted for an additional 2.46% of the variance in the model with HS ($\Delta F(3, 200) = 1.90$, $p = .13$) and 0.81% of the variance in the model with BS ($\Delta F(3, 200) = 0.63$, $p = .60$). Results indicated the two-way interaction between the target's rejection behavior and gender was not a significant and unique predictor (HS: $b = –0.07$, $t = –0.16$, $p = .87$; BS: $b = –0.13$, $t = –0.30$, $p = .76$; see Tables 22 and 23). Inconsistent with hypotheses (*H2.2d*), planned contrasts indicated no significant differences in perceptions of a female target's level of warmth when they used an explicit declarative rejection strategy ($M = 6.19$, $SE = 0.21$) compared to when they used an evasive rejection strategy ($M = 6.78$, $SE = 0.21$; $t = 1.95$, $p = .21$). Results also indicated the two-way interaction between HS and the gender of the target was a significant unique and positive predictor ($b = 0.46$, $t = 2.11$, $p = .03$; see Table 22), indicating participants' adherence to hostile sexist attitudes moderated the effect of the gender of the target on participants' ratings of warmth. Simple slopes analyses indicated participants stronger in adherence to hostile sexist attitudes were significantly more likely to perceive the male target as exhibiting more warmth ($b = 0.25$) compared to the female target ($b = –0.20$) (see Figure 8).

The inclusion of the three-way interaction between the target's rejection behavior, the target's gender, and the HS or BS composite score in Step 4 accounted for an additional 1.20% of the variance in the model with HS ($\Delta F(1, 199) = 2.79$, $p = .09$) and 1.58% of the variance in

the model with BS ($\Delta F(4, 193) = 0.93$, $p = .45$). Results indicated the three-way interaction between HS, the target's rejection behavior, and the target's gender was a marginally significant unique and negative predictor ($b = –0.72$, $t = –1.67$, $p = .09$; see Table 22). Inconsistent with hypotheses (*H2.3c*), planned contrasts indicated participants with stronger adherence to hostile sexist attitudes did not significantly differ in perceptions of a female target's level of warmth when they used an explicit declarative rejection strategy ($b = –0.30$) compared to an evasive rejection strategy ($b = –0.12$, $t = 0.60$, $p = .93$; see Figure 9). Results also indicated the three-way interaction between BS, the target's rejection behavior, and the target's gender was not a significantly unique predictor ($b = –0.69$, $t = –1.59$, $p = .11$; see Table 23). Inconsistent with hypotheses (*H2.3d*), planned contrasts indicated participants with stronger adherence to benevolent sexist attitudes did not significantly differ in perceptions of a female ($b = 0.23$) vs male ($b = 0.13$) target's level of competency when they used an evasive rejection strategy ($t = 0.32$, $p = .99$).

***Results Summary*.** Results supported the hypotheses that participants would be more likely to perceive a target with a competence stereotype when they used an explicit declarative rejection strategy, where participants rated the target as significantly more competent when the target used an explicit declaration rather than an evasive one during the rejection (*H2.1b*). Furthermore, results also supported the hypothesis that participants would be more likely to perceive a target with a warmth stereotype when they used an evasive rejection strategy, where participants rated the target as significantly higher in warmth when the target was evasive during the rejection rather than using an explicit declaration (*H2.1c*).

However, results did not support the hypotheses that participants would be less likely to perceive a female target with a competence stereotype when she used an explicit declarative

rejection strategy (*H2.2c*) and perceive a female target with a warmth stereotype when she used an evasive rejection strategy (*H2.2d*). Additionally, results did not support the hypothesis that participants with stronger adherence to benevolent sexist attitudes would be more likely to perceive a female target with a patronizing stereotype (i.e., less competent and higher in warmth) when she used an evasive rejection strategy (*H2.3d*). Results also partially supported the hypothesis that participants with stronger adherence to hostile sexist attitudes would be more likely to perceive a female target with a contemptuous stereotype (i.e., less competent and lower in warmth) when she used an explicit declarative rejection strategy, where participants rated the female target (compared to a male target) lower in warmth when she used an explicit declaration during the rejection; however there was no significant differences in perceptions of competence (*H2.3c*).

Additionally, results indicated participants were significantly more likely to rate a female target (compared to a male target) as more competent and higher in warmth, regardless of the target's rejection behavior. Furthermore, results indicated participants with stronger adherence to benevolent sexist attitudes were more likely to rate the target higher in warmth, regardless of the target's gender and rejection behavior.

Perceptions of Workplace Evaluation.

Positive Ratings of Target's Work Performance. Step 1 of the separate hierarchical linear regression analyses using HS ($F(2, 205) = 0.69$, $p = .50$) and BS ($F(2, 205) = 1.10$, $p = .34$) to predict positive ratings of the target's work performance accounted for 0.67% and 1.06% of the variance respectively. Both gender of the participant (HS: $b = 0.19$, $t = 1.03$, $p = .31$; BS: $b = 0.14$, $t = 0.73$, $p = .47$) and sexist attitudes (HS: $b = –0.06$, $t = –0.67$, $p = .50$; BS: $b = 0.10$, $t = 1.13$, $p = .26$) did not emerge as significant predictors of positive ratings of the target's work

performance, indicating that participants' gender and sexist attitudes did not significantly affect positive ratings of the target's work performance (see Tables 24 and 25).

The inclusion of the target's rejection behavior and the target's gender in Step 2 accounted for an additional 2.38% of the variance in the model with HS ($\Delta F(2, 203) = 2.49$, $p = .08$) and 2.73% of the variance in the model with BS ($\Delta F(2, 203) = 2.88$, $p = .05$). Results indicated the rejection behavior of the target did not emerge as a significant unique predictor (HS: $b = –0.08$, $t = –0.43$, $p = .67$; BS: $b = –0.08$, $t = –0.45$, $p = .66$; see Tables 24 and 25). Inconsistent with hypotheses (*H2.1d*), planned contrasts indicated no significant differences in participants' positive ratings the target's work performance when they used an evasive rejection strategy ($M = 6.09$, $SE = 0.13$) compared to when they used an explicit declarative rejection strategy ($M = 6.17$, $SE = 0.13$). Additionally, the gender of the target emerged as a significant unique and negative predictor (HS: $b = –0.38$, $t = –2.17$, $p = .03$; BS: $b = –0.41$, $t = –2.33$, $p = .02$; see Tables 24 and 25), indicating participants were significantly more likely to rate the target's work performance positively when the target was female ($M = 6.32$, $SE = 0.12$) rather than male ($M = 5.94$, $SE = 0.13$).

The inclusion of the two-way interactions between the target's rejection behavior, the target's gender, and the HS or BS composite score in Step 3 accounted for an additional 2.47% of the variance in the model with HS ($\Delta F(3, 200) = 1.74$, $p = .16$) and 1.43% of the variance in the model with BS ($\Delta F(3, 200) = 1.00$, $p = .39$). Results indicated the two-way interaction between the gender of the target and the target's rejection behavior did not emerge as a significant unique predictor of positive ratings of the target's work performance (HS: $b = 0.50$, $t = 1.41$, $p = .16$; BS: $b = 0.51$, $t = 1.43$, $p = .15$; see Tables 24 and 25). Inconsistent with hypotheses (*H2.2e*), planned contrasts indicated participants gave higher positive ratings of a

female (*M* = 6.46, *SE* = 0.17) target's work performance who used an explicit declarative rejection strategy compared to a male target (*M* = 5.83, *SE* = 0.19; *t* = 2.50, *p* = .06). Also inconsistent with hypotheses (*H2.2f*), planned contrasts indicated no significant differences in positive ratings of a female target's work performance who used an evasive (*M* = 6.15, *SE* = 0.18) vs an explicit declarative (*M* = 6.46, *SE* = 0.17) rejection strategy (*t* = 1.26, *p* = .59).

The inclusion of the three-way interactions between the target's rejection behavior, the target's gender, and the HS or BS composite score in Step 4 accounted for an additional 0.46% of the variance in the model with HS ($\Delta F(1, 199) = 0.97$, *p* = .33) and 0.000003% of the variance in the model with BS ($\Delta F(1, 199) = 0.001$, *p* = .98). Results indicated that the three-way interaction between the gender of the participant, the gender of the rejecting coworker, and HS or BS composite score did not emerge as a unique nor significant predictor of positive ratings of the target's work performance (HS: *b* = 0.35, *t* = 0.99, *p* = .33; BS: *b* = –0.01, *t* = –0.03, *p* = .98; see Tables 24 and 25). Inconsistent with hypotheses (*H2.3e*), planned contrasts indicated participants with stronger adherence to hostile sexist attitudes did not significantly differ in positive ratings of a female (*b* = –0.18) vs a male (*b* = –0.07) target's work performance when they used an explicit declarative rejection strategy (*t* = 0.45, *p* = .97). Results also indicated the three-way interaction between BS, the target's rejection behavior, and the target's gender was not a significantly unique predictor (*b* = –0.69, *t* = –1.59, *p* = .11; see Table 23). Also inconsistent with hypotheses (*H2.3f*), planned contrasts indicated participants with stronger adherence to benevolent sexist attitudes did not significantly differ in positive ratings of a female (*b* = –0.004) vs male (*b* = 0.13) target's work performance when they used an evasive rejection strategy (*t* = 0.51, *p* = .96).

Positive Perceptions of Target as a Coworker. Step 1 of the separate hierarchical linear regression analyses using HS ($F(2, 205) = 0.02$, $p = .99$) and BS ($F(2, 205) = 0.73$, $p = .48$) to predict positive perceptions of the target as a coworker accounted for 0.01% and 0.71% of the variance respectively. Both gender of the participant (HS: $b = –0.004$, $t = –0.02$, $p = .98$; BS: $b = –0.05$, $t = –0.27$, $p = .79$) and sexist attitudes (HS: $b = –0.02$, $t = –0.17$, $p = .87$; BS: $b = 0.12$, $t = 1.21$, $p = .23$) did not emerge as significant predictor of positive perceptions of the target as a coworker, indicating that participants' gender and sexist attitudes did not significantly affect perceptions of the target as a fellow coworker (see Tables 26 and 27).

The inclusion of the target's rejection behavior and the target's gender in Step 2 accounted for an additional 5.92% of the variance in the model with HS ($\Delta F(2, 203) = 6.39$, $p = .002$) and 6.35% of the variance in the model with BS ($\Delta F(2, 203) = 6.94$, $p = .001$). Results indicated rejection behavior emerged as a marginally significant unique and positive predictor (HS: $b = 0.33$, $t = 1.82$, $p = .07$; BS: $b = 0.33$, $t = 1.82$, $p = .07$; see Tables 26 and 27). Consistent with hypotheses (*H2.1d*), planned contrasts indicated participants expressed greater positive perceptions of the target as a fellow coworker when the target used an evasive rejection strategy ($M = 6.72$, $SE = 0.13$) compared to using an explicit declarative rejection strategy ($M = 6.38$, $SE = 0.13$). Results also indicated the gender of the target emerged as a significant unique and negative predictor (HS: $b = –0.58$, $t = –3.16$, $p = .002$; BS: $b = –0.61$, $t = –3.33$, $p = .001$; see Tables 26 and 27), indicating participants expressed greater positive perceptions of the target as a fellow coworker when the target was female ($M = 6.84$, $SE = 0.13$) rather than male ($M = 6.26$, $SE = 0.13$).

The inclusion of the two-way interactions between the target's rejection behavior, the target's gender, and the HS or BS composite score in Step 3 accounted for an additional 4.09%

of the variance in the model with HS ($\Delta F(3, 200) = 3.03$, $p = .03$) and 3.48% of the variance in the model with BS ($\Delta F(3, 200) = 2.60$, $p = .05$). Results indicated the gender of the target significantly moderated the effect of the target's rejection behavior on positive perceptions of the target as a coworker (HS: $b = 0.84$, $t = 2.31$, $p = .02$; BS: $b = 0.81$, $t = 2.25$, $p = .02$; see Tables 26 & 27). Inconsistent with hypotheses (*H2.2e*), planned contrasts indicated participants expressed greater positive perceptions of a female ($M = 6.87$, $SE = 0.18$) vs a male ($M = 5.86$) target as a coworker who used an explicit declarative rejection strategy ($t = 3.92$, $p = .001$). Also inconsistent with hypotheses (*H2.2f*), planned contrasts indicated no significant differences in positive perceptions of a female target as a coworker who used an evasive ($M = 6.80$, $SE = 0.18$) vs explicit declarative ($M = 6.87$, $SE = 0.18$) rejection strategy ($t = 0.26$, $p = .99$).

The inclusion of the three-way interaction between the target's rejection behavior, the target's gender, and the HS or BS composite score in Step 4 accounted for an additional 0.18% of the variance in the model with HS ($\Delta F(1, 199) = 0.39$, $p = .53$) and 0.89% of the variance in the model with BS ($\Delta F(1, 199) = 1.99$, $p = .16$). Results indicated that the three-way interaction between the target's rejection behavior, the target's gender, and HS or BS composite score did not emerge as a unique nor significant predictor of positive perceptions of the target as a coworker (HS: $b = –0.23$, $t = –0.62$, $p = .53$; BS: $b = –0.52$, $t = –1.41$, $p = .16$; see Tables 26 and 27). Inconsistent with hypotheses (*H2.3e*), planned contrasts indicated participants with stronger adherence to hostile sexist attitudes did not significantly differ in positive perceptions of a female ($b = –0.11$) vs a male ($b = 0.27$) target as a fellow coworker when they used an explicit declarative rejection strategy ($t = 1.50$, $p = .44$). Also inconsistent with hypotheses (*H2.3f*), planned contrasts indicated participants with stronger adherence to benevolent sexist attitudes

did not significantly differ in positive perceptions of a female (b = –0.19) vs male (b = –0.04) target as a fellow coworker when they used an evasive rejection strategy (t = 0.56, p = .94).

Likelihood to Support the Target. Step 1 of the separate hierarchical linear regression analyses using HS (F(2, 205) = 0.31, p = .73) and BS (F(2, 205) = 1.95, p = .15) to predict participants' likelihood to express prejudice and engage in workplace discrimination against the target accounted for 0.30% and 1.87% of the variance respectively. Gender of the participant (HS: b = –0.12, t = –0.57, p = .57; BS: b = –0.05, t = –0.26, p = .80) and hostile sexist attitudes (b = –0.05, t = –0.48, p = .63) did not emerge as significant predictors of the likelihood of expressing prejudice and discrimination, indicating that participants' gender and hostile sexist attitudes did not significantly affect their likelihood to express workplace prejudice and discrimination against the target (see Tables 28 and 29). Results also indicated BS emerged as a marginally significant unique and negative predictor of expressing prejudice and engage in discrimination (b = –0.19, t = –1.87, p = .06; see Table 29), suggesting participants with stronger adherence to benevolent sexist attitudes may be less likely to express prejudice and engage in workplace discrimination against the target.

The inclusion of the rejection behavior of the target's rejection behavior and the target's gender in Step 2 accounted for an additional 2.47% of the variance in the model with HS (ΔF(2, 203) = 2.58, p = .07) and 2.88% of the variance in the model with BS (ΔF(2, 203) = 3.07, p = .05). Results indicated rejection behavior did not emerge as a significant unique predictor for participants' likelihood to express prejudice and engage in workplace discrimination (HS: b = –0.004, t = –0.02, p =.98; BS: b = –0.004, t = –0.02, p = .98; see Tables 28 and 29). Inconsistent with hypotheses (*H2.1d*), planned contrasts indicated no significant differences in participants' expressions of workplace prejudice and discrimination when they used an evasive rejection

strategy (*M* = 3.74, *SE* = 0.14) compared to when they used an explicit declarative rejection strategy (*M* = 3.74, *SE* = 0.15). Results also indicated the gender of the target emerged as a significant unique and positive predictor (HS: *b* = 0.45, *t* = 2.27, *p* = .02; BS: *b* = 0.49, *t* = 2.48, *p* = .01; see Tables 28 and 29), indicating participants were more likely to express workplace prejudice and discrimination when the target was male (*M* = 3.97, *SE* = 0.15) rather than female (*M* = 5.51, *SE* = 0.14).

The inclusion of the two-way interactions between the target's rejection behavior, the target's gender, and the HS or BS composite score in Step 3 accounted for an additional 2.47% of the variance in the model with HS ($\Delta F(3, 200) = 1.16$, $p = .33$) and 1.60% of the variance in the model with BS ($\Delta F(3, 200) = 1.14$, $p = .33$). Results indicated the two-way interaction between the gender of the target and the target's rejection behavior was not significant (HS: *b* = –0.50, *t* = –1.25, *p* = .21; BS: *b* = –0.42, *t* = –1.05, *p* = .30; see Tables 28 and 29). Inconsistent with hypotheses (*H2.2e*), planned contrasts indicated participants were less likely to express workplace prejudice and discrimination of a female (*M* = 3.40, *SE* = 0.20) vs male (*M* = 4.11, *SE* = 0.20) target's work performance who used an explicit declarative rejection strategy (*t* = 2.50, *p* = .06). Also inconsistent with hypotheses (*H2.2f*), planned contrasts indicated no significant differences in positive ratings of a female target's work performance who used an evasive (*M* = 3.63, *SE* = 0.20) vs an explicit declarative (*M* = 3.40, *SE* = 0.20) rejection strategy (*t* = 0.83, *p* = .84).

The inclusion of the three-way interaction between the target's rejection behavior, the target's gender, and the HS or BS composite score in Step 4 accounted for an additional 0.002% of the variance in the model with HS ($\Delta F(1, 199) = 0.01$, $p = .95$) and 0.30% of the variance in the model with BS ($\Delta F(1, 199) = 0.64$, $p = .42$). Results indicated that the three-way interactions

between the target's rejection behavior, the target's gender, and HS or BS composite score did not emerge as unique nor significant predictors of participants' likelihood to express workplace prejudice and discrimination against the target (HS: $b = 0.03$, $t = 0.07$, $p = .95$; BS: $b = –0.32$, $t = –0.80$, $p = .42$; see Tables 28 and 29). Inconsistent with hypotheses (*H2.3e*), planned contrasts indicated participants with stronger adherence to hostile sexist attitudes did not significantly differ in their expressions of workplace prejudice and discrimination toward a female ($b = –0.04$) vs a male ($b = –0.25$) target when they used an explicit declarative rejection strategy ($t = 0.75$, $p = .88$). Also inconsistent with hypotheses (*H2.3f*), planned contrasts indicated participants with stronger adherence to benevolent sexist attitudes did not significantly differ in their expressions of workplace prejudice and discrimination toward a female ($b = 0.002$) vs male ($b = –0.46$) target when they used an evasive rejection strategy ($t = 1.63$, $p = .37$).

***Results Summary*.** Results generally did not support the hypotheses that participants would engage in active harm (i.e., more likely to engage in workplace prejudice and discrimination) against a target who used an explicit declarative rejection strategy. While participants expressed greater positive perceptions of the target as a fellow coworker when they used an evasive rejection strategy rather than an explicit declaration (supporting *H2.1d*), the target's rejection behavior did not significantly affect participants' positive ratings of the target's work performance, their expressions of prejudice, nor their likelihood to engage in workplace discrimination.

Furthermore, results did not support the hypotheses that participants would engage in active harm against a female target (compared to a male target) when the target used an explicit declarative rejection strategy. Rather, the results indicated participants expressed significantly greater positive perceptions, higher ratings of work performance, and less likelihood to engage in

workplace prejudice and discrimination toward the female target (compared to the male target) as a fellow coworker when they used an explicit declarative rejection strategy (*H2.2e*). Additionally, the results did not support the hypothesis that the target's gender would significantly moderate the effect of the target's rejection behavior on participants' engagement of active facilitation (i.e., less likely to engage in workplace prejudice and discrimination) towards a female target when she used an evasive (vs explicit declarative) rejection strategy (*H2.2f*).

Results also did not support the hypotheses that participants' sexist attitudes would moderate the effect of the target's rejection behavior and gender on their likelihood to engage in active harm or active facilitation. Results indicated that participants' hostile sexist attitudes did not moderate the effect of the target's rejection behavior and gender on participants' positive ratings of the target's work performance, their positive perceptions of the target as a fellow coworker, their expressions of prejudice, nor their likelihood to engage in workplace discrimination (*H2.3e*). Furthermore, participants' benevolent sexist attitudes did not moderate the effect of the target's rejection behavior and gender on participants' positive ratings of the target's work performance, their positive perceptions of the target as a fellow coworker, their expressions of prejudice, nor their likelihood to engage in workplace discrimination (*H2.3f*).

Additionally, results indicated participants were significantly more likely to perceive a female target (compared to a male target) more positively as a fellow coworker, rate her work performance more positively, and were less likely to engage in workplace prejudice and discrimination against her, regardless of the target's rejection behavior. Furthermore, results indicated participants with stronger adherence to benevolent sexist attitudes were less likely to express workplace prejudice and engage in workplace discrimination against the target, regardless of the target's gender and rejection behavior.

Study 2 Discussion

Study 2's results provided mixed support for the hypotheses that the target's rejection behavior, the target's gender, and participants' adherence to sexist attitudes affects perceptions of the target adhering to feminine gender norms, the use of stereotypical thinking patterns, and the engagement in either active harm or active facilitation via expressions of workplace prejudice and discrimination. Participants rated the target as not adhering to feminine gender norms (i.e., more agentic, less communal; confirming *H2.1a*), perceived the target with a competence stereotype (i.e., more competent; confirming *H2.1b*), and expressed fewer positive perceptions of the target as a fellow coworker (confirming *H2.1d*) when the target used an explicit declarative rejection strategy. Additionally, participants perceived the target with a warmth stereotype (i.e., higher in warmth) when the target used an evasive rejection strategy (confirming *H2.2c*). Furthermore, male (versus female) participants were more likely to rate the target as not adhering to feminine gender norms (i.e., more agentic), regardless of the target's gender and rejection behavior. These results suggest that men may perceive the act of rejection as a more masculine behavior, and one who uses an explicit declaration (rather than evasion) as a rejection strategy may be perceived as less feminine by coworkers, possibly leading to negative workplace perceptions and interactions.

Results did not support the hypotheses regarding the target's gender moderating the effect of the target's rejection behavior on perceptions of the target adhering to feminine gender norms (disconfirming *H2.2a*), on their stereotypical thinking patterns regarding the rejecting coworker (disconfirming *H2.2c, H2.2d*), and their engagement of either active harm or active facilitation via workplace prejudice and discrimination (disconfirming *H2.2e, H2.2f*). However, participants were more likely to rate a female target as adhering to feminine gender norms (i.e., less agentic,

more communal) when she used an evasive (rather than explicit declarative) rejection strategy (confirming *H2.2b*). Moreover, participants expressed greater positive perceptions of a female (rather than male) target as a fellow coworker when she used an explicit declarative rejection strategy (opposite of *H2.2e*). Furthermore, participants rated a female (rather than male) target as adhering to feminine gender norms (i.e., more communal), perceived her with in-group favoritism (i.e., more competent and higher in warmth), and were more likely to engage in active facilitation (i.e., less likely to express workplace prejudice and discrimination) towards her – regardless of her rejection behavior. These results suggest that the act of rejection is not perceived as a gendered act itself, and that men (rather than women) may experience workplace repercussions from fellow coworkers – including being perceived with a contemptuous stereotype (i.e., less competent and lower in warmth) – when they reject an unreciprocated romantic advance.

Results did not support the hypotheses that participants' sexist attitudes moderated the effects of the target's rejection behavior and gender on perceptions of the target adhering to feminine gender norms (disconfirming *H2.3a, H2.3b*), on their stereotypical thinking patterns regarding the rejecting coworker (disconfirming *H2.3c*, *H2.3d*), and their engagement of workplace prejudice and discrimination (disconfirming *H2.3e, H2.3f*). However, results indicated those with stronger adherence to hostile sexist attitudes may perceive a female target who uses an explicit declarative rejection strategy as lower in warmth, although this effect was not significant ($p = .09$). Additionally, those stronger in adherence to hostile sexist attitudes were less likely to rate a female target as adhering to feminine gender norms (i.e., less communal), regardless of her rejection behavior. Furthermore, participants with stronger adherence to benevolent sexist attitudes may be more likely to perceive the target with a warmth stereotype

(i.e., higher in warmth) and may engage in active facilitation (i.e., not engage in workplace prejudice and discrimination) – regardless of the target's gender and rejection behavior – although these effects were marginally significant (p = .07 and p = .06 respectively). These results indicate ambivalent sexist attitudes may influence perceptions of a target, where those with adherence to hostile sexist attitudes may view a female target as not adhering to feminine gender norms, and those with adherence to benevolent sexist attitudes may perceive them with a warmth stereotype and be less likely to express prejudice and engage in discrimination against someone who is rejecting an unreciprocated romantic advance.

Chapter 4 - Study 3

Overview

In Study 3, the relationship between men's sexist attitudes and their perceptions of a hypothetical female coworker who rejected their romantic interest was examined. The study design was a 2 (*Rejection Behavior: Explicit Declaration versus Evasive*) x 2 (*Use of Mitigated Speech: With versus Without*) between-subjects design where male participants were presented with a hypothetical scenario where a female coworker (i.e., *female target*) rejects his personal romantic interest.

Based on the previous literature (e.g., Eagly, 1987; Glick & Fiske, 1996; Goodboy & Brann, 2010; Rudman & Glick, 2001; Stratmoen et al., 2019), it was predicted that the female target's rejection behavior would influence perceptions of the female target. Specifically, it was hypothesized that:

H3.1a: Participants would be more likely to rate the female target as not adhering to feminine gender norms (i.e., more agentic, less communal) when she uses an explicit declarative rejection strategy.

H3.1b: Participants would be more likely to perceive the female target with a competence stereotype (i.e., higher in competence) when she uses an explicit declarative rejection strategy.

H3.1c: Participants would be more likely to perceive the female target with a warmth stereotype (i.e., higher in warmth) when she uses an evasive rejection strategy.

H3.1d: Participants would be more likely to engage in active harm (i.e., workplace prejudice and discrimination) against the female target when she uses an explicit declarative rejection strategy.

It was also predicted that the use of mitigated speech by the female target would moderate the effect of rejection behavior on perceptions of the female target. Specifically, it was hypothesized that:

H3.2a: Participants would be less likely to rate the female target as adhering to feminine gender norms (i.e., more agentic, less communal) when she does not use mitigated speech with an explicit declarative rejection strategy compared to when she uses mitigated speech with an evasive rejection strategy.

H3.2b: Participants would be more likely to perceive the female target with a competence stereotype (i.e., higher in competence) when she does not use mitigated speech with an explicit declarative rejection strategy compared to when she uses mitigated speech with an evasive rejection strategy.

H3.2c: Participants would be more likely to perceive the female target with a warmth stereotype (i.e., higher in warmth) when she uses mitigated speech with an evasive rejection strategy compared to when she does not use mitigated speech with an explicit declarative rejection strategy.

H3.2d: Participants would be more likely to engage in active harm (i.e., engage in workplace prejudice and discrimination) against the female target when she does not use mitigated speech with an explicit declarative rejection strategy compared to when she uses mitigated speech with an evasive rejection strategy.

It was also predicted individuals' adherence to sexist attitudes would moderate the effect of rejection behavior and use of mitigated speech on their perceptions of the female target. Specifically, it was hypothesized that:

H3.3a: Participants with stronger adherence to hostile sexist attitudes would be less likely

to rate the female target as adhering to feminine gender norms (i.e., more agentic, less communal) when she does not use mitigated speech with an explicit declarative rejection strategy compared to when she uses mitigated speech with an evasive rejection strategy.

H3.3b: Participants with stronger adherence to benevolent sexist attitudes would be more likely to rate the female target as adhering to feminine gender norms (i.e., less agentic, more communal) when she uses mitigated speech with an evasive rejection strategy compared to when she does not use mitigated speech with an explicit declarative rejection strategy.

H3.3c: Participants with stronger adherence to hostile sexist attitudes would be more likely to perceive the female target with a contemptuous stereotype (i.e., lower in competence and lower in warmth) when she does not use mitigated speech with an explicit declarative rejection strategy compared to when she uses mitigated speech with an evasive rejection strategy.

H3.3d: Participants with stronger adherence to benevolent sexist attitudes would be more likely to perceive a female target with a patronizing stereotype (i.e., lower in competence and higher in warmth) when she uses mitigated speech with an evasive rejection strategy compared to when she does not use mitigated speech with an explicit declarative rejection strategy.

H3.3e: Participants with stronger adherence to hostile sexist attitudes would be more would be more likely to engage in active harm (i.e., engage in workplace prejudice and discrimination) against the female target when she does not use

mitigated speech with an explicit declarative rejection strategy compared to when she uses mitigated speech with an evasive rejection strategy.

H3.3f: Participants with stronger adherence to benevolent sexist attitudes would be more would be more likely to engage in active facilitation (i.e., not engage in workplace prejudice and discrimination) against the female target when she uses mitigated speech with an evasive rejection strategy compared to when she does not use mitigated speech with an explicit declarative rejection strategy.

Method

Participants. Participants were 191 males recruited through Amazon Mechanical Turk (Mturk) (ages 20 – 83, M = 40.03, SD = 12.89) and were monetarily compensated for their participation. Most participants self-identified as White/Caucasian (68%) and being employed full-time within the past year (79%). All participants self-identified their gender identity as being cisgender, their sexual orientation as heterosexual, and their current relationship status as being single, casually dating, or divorced. This sample size was based on a power analysis using G*Power (Faul et al., 2007) with a suggested sample size of 166 using a multiple regression effect size level of 0.15, power level of .95, and 9 predictors.

Materials

Hostile and Benevolent Sexism. As in Studies 1 and 2, participants' adherence to benevolent and hostile sexist attitudes was measured using the Ambivalent Sexism Scale (ASI; Glick & Fiske, 1996; see Appendix A; HS: α: .93, M = 4.22, SD = 2.15; BS: α: .82, M = 4.59, SD = 1.73).

Perception of Mate Value. As in Study 1, participants' perceptions of their personal mate value were measured as a potential covariate using the Mate Value Scale (MVS; Edlund & Sagarin, 2014; see Appendix B; α: .91, *M* = 4.59, *SD* = 1.26).

Intolerance of Uncertainty. Participants' tendency to dislike and avoid ambiguous situations and uncertainty was measured as a potential covariate using the short form of the Intolerance of Uncertainty Scale (IUS-12; Carleton et al., 2007), a 12-item scale that measures an individual's tendency to consider the possibility of negative events occurring as unacceptable, regardless of the probability of the event's actual occurrence. Participants rated their agreement on statements (e.g., *It frustrates me not having all the information I need; I can't stand being taken by surprise;* see Appendix J) using a 9-point likert-typed scale (*1=Strongly disagree* to *9 = Strongly agree*). Participants' IUS scores were obtained by summing the items and dividing by the number of items (α: .91, *M* = 5.10, *SD* = 1.56).

Reading Comprehension Check. The same reading comprehension check from Studies 1 and 2 was also used in Study 3.

Vignettes. The vignettes from Study 2 were modified to manipulate the rejection strategy (i.e., explicit declaration versus evasive) and use of mitigated speech (i.e., with mitigated speech versus without mitigated speech) of the female target:

> ***Explicit Declaration Rejection Strategy***: *Imagine you are a supervisor at a mid-size company. You have been employed there for the past 2 years and get along well with your coworkers and managers. One Wednesday morning in the breakroom while getting a cup of coffee you strike up a conversation with a female supervisor from a different department named Teresa, finding her attractive. You decide to ask her if she has any weekend plans and if she would like to go out for coffee this coming Saturday, mentioning*

that you are interested in getting to know her better outside of work. (This would not be a problem since the company you both work for does not have a policy prohibiting coworkers from dating.)

*There is a **slight pause** while Teresa stirs her coffee and looks out the window. She then responds to your asking her out for the coffee date by saying "I'm flattered, but / No, **I am not romantically interested in you**."*

Evasive Rejection Strategy: *Imagine you are a supervisor at a mid-size company. You have been employed there for the past 2 years and get along well with your coworkers and managers. One Wednesday morning in the breakroom while getting a cup of coffee you strike up a conversation with a female supervisor from a different department named Teresa, finding her attractive. You decide to ask her if she has any weekend plans and if she would like to go out for coffee this coming Saturday, mentioning that you are interested in getting to know her better outside of work. (This would not be a problem since the company you both work for does not have a policy prohibiting coworkers from dating.)*

*There is **an awkward pause** while Teresa stirs her coffee and looks out the window. She then responds to your asking her out for the coffee date by saying "I'm flattered, but / **I can't, I already have plans this weekend."***

Workplace Evaluation Scenario. The same workplace evaluation scenario that was used in Study 2 was also used in Study 3, which was adapted from materials used in studies conducted by Caleo (2016) and Heilman and Chen (2005). It included information about the female target (i.e., birth date, date of hire, current position) and her job responsibilities in the

company. There was also evaluative feedback regarding the female target's job performance from her supervisor (see Appendix F).

Vignette Attention Checks. Participants were asked to respond to two attention checks after the vignette. The first attention check asked if the female target in the vignette was a supervisor at the company. The second attention check asked if the participant and the female target worked in the same department. Participants responded to both attention checks with either "yes" or "no."

Response Items. A series of response items were created to measure participants' perceptions regarding the female target.

Perceptions of Adherence to Gender Norms. As in Study 2, participants' perceptions of the female target's adherence societal gender roles and norms was measured using a modified version of the Bem Sex-Role Inventory (BSRI; Bem, 1974; Choi et al., 2009; see Appendix G; Communal: α: .96, M = 5.50, SD = 1.67; Agentic: α: .88, M = 6.32, SD = 1.30).

Perceptions of Competency and Warmth. As in Study 2, participants' perceptions of the female target's levels of competency and warmth was measuring using response items were modified from Fiske et al. (2002) (see Appendix H; Competency: α: .94, M = 7.00, SD = 1.35; Warmth: α: .95, M = 6.03, SD = 1.60).

Perceptions of Workplace Evaluation. Participants' perceptions of the female target within the workplace were measured using the same response items from Study 2 (see Appendix I).

Procedure. Participants first provided informed consent, then responded to the reading comprehension check. If participants passed the reading comprehension check, they were allowed to move forward in the study. Next, participants answered demographic information

(e.g., age, sex, sexual orientation, marital status, ethnicity). Participants were then randomly assigned to one of the four rejection vignettes and provided their answers to the accompanying response items. Next, participants read the workplace evaluation scenario and provided their answers to the accompanying response items. Afterwards, participants completed the ASI, IUS, and MVS (order randomized). After completing the study, participants were debriefed, thanked for their time, and received monetary compensation.

Results

Vignette Attention Checks. Sixteen (16) participants were removed from data analyses for not selecting the appropriate responses during the vignette attention checks, reducing the sample size from 191 to 175 for data analyses.

Data Reduction and Creation of Workplace Evaluation Composite Variables. A principal component analysis with varimax rotation was conducted on the perceptions of the female coworker regarding her job performance evaluation. Both Cattell's (1966) scree plot and Kaiser's (1960) rule (eigenvalues greater than 1) were used to determine the number of factors to retain. Based on recommendations and rule-of-thumb ratios in multivariate statistics books and simulations (e.g., Comrey & Lee, 1992; Guadagnoli & Velicer, 1988; Hair et al., 1998; Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007), factors retained contained at least three items, the items loaded at least .60 onto the factor, and did not cross-load above .30 on any other factor.

Four factors emerged that accounted for 84% of the variance. The first factor – *Positive Perceptions of the Target as a Potential Manager* – consisted of 3 items (i.e., *I would not mind having Teresa as my manager; Teresa is similar to other managers; I think Teresa would be successful in the new management position*) that loaded well (>.60) and created a reliable composite variable, α: .94. The second factor – *Positive Ratings of the Target's Work*

Performance – consisted of 5 items (i.e., *Teresa's job performance has been excellent over the past year; Teresa is a hard worker; Teresa is a valuable asset to the company; Teresa is likely to advance in the company; I would recommend Teresa for a high-profile project*) that loaded well (>.66) and created a reliable composite variable, α: .92. The third factor – *Likelihood to Support the Target* – consisted of 3 items (i.e., *I would recommend Teresa for the management position* (reverse coded); *I would recommend Teresa receive a salary increase* (reverse coded); *I would recommend Teresa receive a bonus for her hard work* (reverse coded)) that loaded well (>.76) and created a reliable composite variable, α: .94. A fourth factor – *Positive Perceptions of the Target as a Coworker* – consisted of 2 items (i.e., *I would enjoy working with Teresa as her coworker; I would enjoy working with Teresa within a team environment*) that loaded well (>.81) and created a reliable composite variable, α: .85. However, since this factor did not contain at least 3 items, it was not used for the following data analyses.

Zero-Order Correlations Between Sexist Attitudes, Composite Variables, and Other Individual Difference Measures. HS was positively correlated with BS (r = .14), indicating a weak relationship between participants' endorsement of hostile sexist attitudes and benevolent sexist attitudes. Both HS and BS were significantly positively correlated with IUS (r = .18 and r = .43, respectively), indicating moderate to strong relationships between participants' endorsement of hostile and benevolent sexist attitudes and their tendency to dislike and avoid ambiguous and uncertain situations. HS and BS were also significantly positively correlated with MVS (r = .22 and r = .24, respectively), indicating moderate relationships between participants' endorsement of hostile and benevolent sexist attitudes and perceptions of their personal mate value.

HS was significantly negatively correlated with the composite variables *Communal Traits* and *Warmth,* (*r* = – .17 and *r* = – .16, respectively), suggesting participants' adherence to hostile sexist attitudes was related to their perceptions of the female target's levels of competency and warmth. HS was also significantly negatively correlated with the composite variable *Positive Perceptions of the Target as a Potential Manager* (*r* = – .16), suggesting participants' adherence to hostile sexist attitudes was related to their perceptions of the female target as a potential manager. HS was significantly positively correlated with the composite variable *Likelihood to Support the Target* (*r* = .17), suggesting participants' adherence to hostile sexist attitudes was related to the likelihood of their engagement of discriminatory behaviors against the female target.

BS was significantly positively correlated with the composite variables *Agentic Traits, Competency,* and *Warmth* (*r* = .22, *r* = .19, and *r* = .18; respectively), suggesting participants' adherence to benevolent sexist attitudes was related to their perceptions of the female target's agentic traits (i.e., agentic/masculine behaviors), competency, and warmth. BS was also significantly positively correlated with the composite variables *Positive Perceptions of the Target as a Potential Manager* and *Positive Ratings of the Target's Work Performance* (*r* = .17, *r* = .19, and *r* = .23; respectively), suggesting participants' adherence to benevolent sexist attitudes was related to their perceptions of the female target as a fellow coworker, as a manager, and her work performance. BS was significantly negatively correlated with *Likelihood to Support the Target* (r = – .32), suggesting participants' adherence to benevolent sexist attitudes was related to the likelihood of their engagement of discriminatory behaviors against the female target. Please refer to Table 30 for means, standard deviations, reliability statistics, and other zero-order correlations between sexist attitudes, IUS, MVS, and the composite variables.

Data Analyses. Separate sequential (i.e., hierarchical) linear regression analyses were conducted to test the hypotheses regarding HS and BS. Additionally, IUS was not included as a covariate in the regression analyses due to its significant moderate correlation with BS (r = .43) as well as the lack of significant zero-order correlations with the composite variables (see Table 30). Furthermore, MVS was also not included as a covariate in the regression analyses due to its significant moderate correlation with both BS (r = .24) and HS (r = .22) as well as the lack of significant zero-order correlations with the composite variables (see Table 30).

To test hypotheses that the female target's rejection behavior (i.e., explicit declaration versus evasive), her use of mitigated speech (with versus without), and participants' sexist attitudes would predict perceptions of a female coworker (i.e., *target*) who rejects their romantic interest, sequential (i.e., hierarchical) regression analyses along with planned contrasts were conducted using BS and HS in separate regression models. In Step 1, individual differences in sexist attitudes were entered using the composite scores for HS or BS (both were standardized prior to analyses). Then the hypotheses regarding the main effect of the female target's rejection behavior were tested in Step 2 by entering the manipulations of the rejection behavior of the female target (dummy coded as 1(*Evasive*) and 0(*Explicit Declaration*)) and her use of mitigated speech (also dummy coded as 1(*with mitigated speech*) and 0(*without mitigated speech*)). Then the hypotheses regarding the moderating effect of the female target's use of mitigated speech on her rejection behavior was tested in Step 3 by entering the two-way interactions between the female target's rejection behavior, her use of mitigated speech, and the composite score for HS or BS. Then the hypotheses regarding the moderating effect of sexist attitudes on the female target's rejection behavior and her use of mitigated speech was tested in Step 4 by entering the three-way interaction between the female target's rejection behavior, her use of mitigated speech,

and the composite score of HS or BS. The structure of these hierarchical steps was used to predict each of the following composite variables.

Perceptions of Adherence to Gender Norms.

Agentic Traits. Step 1 of the separate hierarchical linear regression analyses using HS ($F(1, 173) = 0.42$, $p = .52$) and BS ($F(1, 173) = 9.24$, $p = .003$) to predict perceptions of agentic traits of the female target accounted for 0.24% and 5.07% of the variance respectively. BS emerged as a significant positive predictor of perceptions of agentic traits of the female target ($b = .29$, $t = 3.04$, $p = .003$; see Table 32), indicating as participants' adherence to benevolent sexist attitudes increased, their ratings of the female target exhibiting agentic traits also increased. HS did not emerge as a significant predictor of perceptions of agentic traits of the female target ($b = 0.06$, $t = 0.65$, $p = .52$; see Table 31).

The inclusion of the female target's rejection behavior and her use of mitigated speech in Step 2 accounted for an additional 13.22% of the variance in the model with HS ($\Delta F(2, 171) = 13.06$, $p < .0001$) and 12.37% of the variance in the model with BS ($\Delta F(2, 171) = 12.81$, $p < .0001$). Consistent with hypotheses (*H3.1a*), rejection behavior emerged as a significant unique and negative predictor (HS: $b = –0.81$, $t = –4.37$, $p < .0001$; BS: $b = –0.81$, $t = –4.48$, $p < .0001$; see Tables 31 and 32), indicating participants rated the female target as more agentic when she used an explicit declarative rejection strategy ($M = 6.75$, $SE = 0.13$) compared to an evasive rejection strategy ($M = 5.94$, $SE = 0.13$). Additionally, mitigated speech emerged as a significant unique and negative predictor (HS: $b = –0.47$, $t = –2.50$, $p = .01$; BS: $b = –0.40$, $t = –2.18$, $p = .03$; see Tables 31 and 32), indicating participants rated the female target as more agentic when she did not use mitigated speech ($M = 6.58$, $SE = 0.13$) than the female target who did use mitigated speech ($M = 6.11$, $SD = 0.13$).

The inclusion of the two-way interactions between the female target's rejection behavior, her use of mitigated speech, and the HS or BS composite score in Step 3 accounted for an additional 0.47% of the variance in the model with HS ($\Delta F(3, 168) = 0.31$, $p = .82$) and 1.39% of the variance in the model with BS ($\Delta F(3, 168) = 0.96$, $p = .41$). Results indicated that the two-way interaction between the female target's use of mitigated speech and her rejection behavior was not a significant or unique predictor on perceptions of the female target exhibiting agentic traits (see Tables 31 and 32). Consistent with hypotheses (*H3.2a*), planned contrasts indicated participants rated the female target as more agentic she did not use mitigated speech with an explicit declarative rejection strategy ($M = 7.06$, $SD = 0.19$) compared to when she did use mitigated speech with an evasive rejection strategy ($M = 5.78$, $SD = 0.18$; $t = 4.92$, $p < .0001$).

The inclusion of the three-way interaction between the female target's rejection behavior, her use of mitigated speech, and the HS or BS composite score in Step 4 accounted for an additional 0.01% of the variance in the model with HS ($\Delta F(1, 167) = 0.01$, $p = .91$) and 0.67% of the variance in the model with BS ($\Delta F(1, 167) = 1.39$, $p = .24$). Results indicated that the three-way interaction between the female target's rejection behavior, her use of mitigated speech, and the HS or the BS composite score did not emerge as unique nor significant predictors of ratings of the female target exhibiting agentic traits (HS: $b = –0.05$, $t = –0.12$, $p = .99$; BS: $b = –0.43$, $t = –1.18$, $p = .24$; see Tables 31 and 32). Inconsistent with hypotheses (*H3.3a*), planned contrasts indicated participants with stronger adherence to hostile sexist attitudes did not significantly differ in perceptions of a female target exhibiting agentic traits when she did not use mitigated speech with an explicit declarative rejection strategy ($b = 0.05$) compared to when she did use mitigated speech with an evasive rejection strategy ($b = –0.04$; $t = 0.33$, $p = .99$). Also inconsistent with hypotheses (*H3.3b*), planned contrasts indicated participants with stronger

adherence to benevolent sexist attitudes did not significantly differ in perceptions of a female target exhibiting agentic traits when she used mitigated speech with an evasive rejection strategy (b = –0.06) compared to when she did not use mitigated speech with an explicit declarative rejection strategy (b = 0.34; t = 1.50, p = .44).

Communal Traits. Step 1 of the separate hierarchical linear regression analyses using HS (F(1, 173) = 5.88, p = .02) and BS (F(1, 173) = 2.64, p = .11) to predict perceptions of communal traits of the female target accounted for 3.12% and 1.51% of the variance respectively. HS emerged as a significant negative predictor of perceptions of communal traits towards the female target (b = –0.30, t = –2.36, p = .02; see Table 33), indicating as participants' adherence to hostile sexist attitudes increased, their ratings of the female target exhibiting communal traits decreased. BS did not emerge as a significant predictor of perceptions of communal traits of the female target (b = 0.21, t = 1.63, p = .11; see Table 34).

The inclusion of the female target's rejection behavior and her use of mitigated speech in Step 2 accounted for an additional 6.03% of the variance in the model with HS (ΔF(2, 171) = 5.67, p = .01) and 7.88% of the variance in the model with BS (ΔF(2, 171) = 7.44, p = .001). Consistent with hypotheses (*H3.1a*), rejection behavior emerged as a significant unique and positive predictor (HS: b = 0.57, t = 2.33, p = .02; BS: b = 0.59, t = 2.42, p = .02; see Tables 33 and 34), indicating participants rated the female target as less communal when she used an explicit declarative rejection strategy (M = 5.20, SE = 0.18) compared to an evasive rejection strategy (M = 5.77, SE = 0.17). Additionally, mitigated speech emerged as a significant unique and positive predictor (HS: b = 0.58, t = 2.36, p = .02; BS: b = 0.71, t = 2.91, p = .004; see Tables 33 and 34), indicating participants rated the female target as more communal when she

used mitigated speech (*M* = 5.77, *SE* = 0.17) compared to the female target who did not use mitigated speech (*M* = 5.19, *SD* = 0.18).

The inclusion of the two-way interactions between the female target's rejection behavior, her use of mitigated speech, and the HS or BS composite score in Step 3 accounted for an additional 3.93% of the variance in the model with HS ($\Delta F(3, 168) = 2.53$, $p = .06$) and 5.55% of the variance in the model with BS ($\Delta F(3, 168) = 3.65$, $p = .01$). Results indicated the two-way interaction between the female target's rejection behavior and her use of mitigated speech was a significant unique and negative predictor (HS: $b = –1.26$, $t = –2.58$, $p = .01$; BS: $b = –1.16$, $t = –2.41$, $p = .02$; see Tables 33 and 34), Consistent with hypotheses (*H3.2a*), planned contrasts indicated that participants were significantly less likely to rate the female target as exhibiting communal traits when she did not use mitigated speech with an explicit declarative rejection strategy (*M* = 4.57, *SE* = 0.25) compared to when she used mitigated speech with an evasive rejection strategy (*M* = 5.76, *SE* = 0.23; $t = 3.56$, $p = .003$; see Figure 11). Results further indicated the two-way interaction between BS and the female target's use of mitigated speech was a significant unique and negative predictor ($b = –0.39$, $t = –2.00$, $p = .05$; see Table 34), indicating adherence to BS moderates the effect of the female target's use of mitigated speech on ratings of her exhibiting communal traits. Simple slope analyses indicated participants with stronger adherence to BS were more likely to perceive the female target as exhibiting communal traits when she did not use mitigated speech ($b = 0.49$) compared to when she did use mitigated speech ($b = 0.01$; see Figure 12).

The inclusion of the three-way interaction between the female target's rejection behavior, her use of mitigated speech, and the HS or BS composite score in Step 4 accounted for an additional 0.42% of the variance in the model with HS ($\Delta F(1, 167) = 0.82$, $p = .37$) and 0.08% of

the variance in the model with BS ($\Delta F(1, 167) = 0.16$, $p = .67$). Results indicated that the three-way interaction between the female target's rejection behavior, her use of mitigated speech, the HS or the BS composite score did not emerge as unique nor significant predictors of ratings of the female target exhibiting communal traits (HS: $b = –0.48$, $t = –1.06$, $p = .29$; BS: $b = –0.66$, $t = –1.46$, $p = .15$; see Tables 33 and 34). Inconsistent with hypotheses (*H3.3a*), planned contrasts indicated participants with stronger adherence to hostile sexist attitudes did not significantly differ in perceptions of a female target exhibiting communal traits when she did not use mitigated speech with an explicit declarative rejection strategy ($b = 0.10$) compared to when she did use mitigated speech with an evasive rejection strategy ($b = –0.35$; $t = 1.28$, $p = .56$). Also inconsistent with hypotheses (*H3.3b*), planned contrasts indicated participants with stronger adherence to benevolent sexist attitudes did not significantly differ in perceptions of a female target exhibiting communal traits when she used mitigated speech with an evasive rejection strategy ($b = 0.04$) compared to when she did not use mitigated speech with an explicit declarative rejection strategy ($b = 0.36$; $t = 0.92$, $p = .79$).

***Results Summary*.** Results supported the hypotheses that participants would be less likely to rate the female target as adhering to feminine gender norms when she used an explicit declarative rejection strategy rather than an evasive one when rejecting his romantic interest where participants rated the female target as being more agentic and less communal when she used an explicit declaration when rejecting his romantic advance (*H3.1a*). Results also supported hypotheses that participants rated her as more agentic and less communal when she did not use mitigated speech with an explicit declarative strategy compared to using mitigated speech with an evasive rejection strategy (*H3.2a*). However, results did not support the hypotheses regarding men's sexist attitudes moderating the effects of the female target's rejection behavior and her use

of mitigated speech on their perceptions of her adhering to feminine gender norms (*H3.3a, H3.3b*).

Additionally, results indicated participants with stronger in adherence to sexist attitudes were less likely to perceive the female target as adhering to feminine gender norms, where those with stronger adherence to hostile sexist attitudes perceived her as significantly less communal, and those with stronger adherence to benevolent sexist attitudes perceived her as significantly more agentic. Surprisingly, results also indicated that participants with stronger adherence to benevolent sexist attitudes were less likely to rate the female target as adhering to feminine gender norms (i.e., less communal) when she used mitigated speech, regardless of her rejection behavior. Results further indicated participants were more likely to rate the female target as not adhering to feminine gender norms (i.e., more agentic and less communal) when she did not use mitigated speech, regardless of her rejection behavior.

Perceptions of Competency and Warmth.

Competency. Step 1 of the separate hierarchical linear regression analyses using HS ($F(1, 173) = 0.41$, $p = .53$) and BS ($F(1, 173) = 6.42$, $p = .01$) to predict ratings of competency of the female target accounted for 0.23% and 3.56% of the variance respectively. BS emerged as a significant positive predictor of ratings of competency of the target ($b = .25$, $t = 2.53$, $p = .01$; see Table 36), indicating as participants' adherence to benevolent sexist attitudes increased, their ratings of the female target's level of competency also increased. HS did not emerge as a significant predictor of perceptions of the female target's competency ($b = –0.07$, $t = –0.64$, $p = .53$; see Table 35).

The inclusion of the female target's rejection behavior and her use of mitigated speech in Step 2 accounted for an additional 1.46% of the variance in the model with HS ($\Delta F(2, 171) =$

1.26, p = .29) and 1.17% of the variance in the model with BS ($\Delta F(2, 171) = 1.05$, p = .35). Inconsistent with hypotheses (*H3.1b*), results indicated the female target's rejection behavior (HS: b = –0.30, t = –1.45, p = .15; BS: b = –0.13, t = –0.61, p = .29; see Tables 35 and 36), suggesting there were no significant differences in participants' perceptions of the female target's level of competency when she used an explicit declarative rejection strategy (M = 7.14, SE = 0.15) compared to an evasive rejection strategy (M = 6.85, SE = 0.14). Results also indicated her use of mitigated speech (HS: b = –0.48, t = –1.06, p = .19; BS: b = –0.04, t = –0.18, p = .78; see Tables 35 and 36) were not significant nor unique predictors of their ratings of the level of competency of the female target.

The inclusion of the two-way interactions between the female target's rejection behavior, her use of mitigated speech, and the HS or BS composite score in Step 3 accounted for an additional 1.38% of the variance in the model with HS ($\Delta F(3, 168) = 0.80$, p = .50) and 1.53% of the variance in the model with BS ($\Delta F(3, 168) = 0.92$, p = .43). Results indicated that the female target's use of mitigated speech was not a unique nor significant moderator of her rejection behavior on ratings of competency of the female target (HS: b = –0.03, t = –0.08, p = .29; BS: b = 0.03, t = 0.08, p = .29; see Tables 35 and 36). Inconsistent with hypotheses (*H3.2b*), planned contrasts indicated there were no significant differences in participants' perceptions of the female target's level of competency when she did not use mitigated speech with an explicit declarative rejection strategy (M = 7.17, SE = 0.21) compared to using mitigated speech with an evasive rejection strategy (M = 6.76, SE = 0.20; t = 1.42, p = .49).

The inclusion of the three-way interaction between the female target's rejection behavior, her use of mitigated speech, and the HS or BS composite score in Step 4 accounted for an additional 0.004% of the variance in the model with HS ($\Delta F(1, 167) = 0.006$, p = .94) and 0.04%

of the variance in the model with BS ($\Delta F(1, 167) = 0.07$, $p = .79$). results indicated that the three-way interactions between the rejection behavior of the female target, her use of mitigated speech, the HS or the BS composite score did not emerge as unique nor significant predictors of their ratings of the level of competency of the female target (HS: $b = –0.03$, $t = –0.08$, $p = .29$; BS: $b = 0.03$, $t = 0.08$, $p = .29$; see Tables 35 and 36). Inconsistent with hypotheses (*H3.3c*), planned contrasts indicated participants with stronger adherence to hostile sexist attitudes did not significantly differ in perceptions of a female target's level of competency when she did not use mitigated speech with an explicit declarative rejection strategy ($b = 0.07$) compared to when she did use mitigated speech with an evasive rejection strategy ($b = –0.21$; $t = 0.91$, $p = .80$). Also inconsistent with hypotheses (*H3.3d*), planned contrasts indicated participants with stronger adherence to benevolent sexist attitudes did not significantly differ in perceptions of a female target's level of competency when she used mitigated speech with an evasive rejection strategy ($b = 0.20$) compared to when she did not use mitigated speech with an explicit declarative rejection strategy ($b = 0.24$; $t = 0.15$, $p = .99$).

Warmth. Step 1 of the separate hierarchical linear regression analyses using HS ($F(1, 173) = 4.24$, $p = .04$) and BS ($F(1, 173) = 5.91$, $p = .02$) to predict perceptions of warmth of the female target accounted for 2.49% and 3.30% of the variance respectively. HS emerged as a significant negative predictor of ratings of levels of warmth of the female target (HS: $b = –0.25$, $t = –2.10$, $p = .04$; see Table 37), suggesting that participants with stronger adherence to hostile sexist attitudes were more likely to rate the female target as having lower levels of warmth. BS also emerged as a significant positive predictor of ratings of levels of warmth of the female target (BS: $b = .29$, $t = 2.43$, $p = .02$; see Table 38), suggesting that participants with stronger

adherence to benevolent sexist attitudes were more likely to rate the female target as having higher levels of warmth.

The inclusion of the female target's rejection behavior and her use of mitigated speech in Step 2 accounted for an additional 2.91% of the variance in the model with HS ($\Delta F(2, 171) = 2.63$, $p = .07$) and 4.67% of the variance in the model with BS ($\Delta F(2, 171) = 4.34$, $p = .01$). Inconsistent with hypotheses (*H3.1c*), the female target's rejection behavior did not emerge as a significant and unique predictor (HS: $b = 0.22$, $t = 0.92$, $p = .36$; BS: $b = 0.24$, $t = 1.02$, $p = .31$; see Tables 37 and 38), indicating no significant differences in participants' ratings of the female target's levels of warmth when she used an evasive rejection strategy ($M = 6.13$, $SE = 0.17$) compared to an explicit declarative rejection strategy ($M = 5.91$, $SE = 0.17$). Mitigated speech emerged as a significant unique and negative predictor (HS: $b = 0.50$, $t = 2.07$, $p = .04$; BS: $b = 0.64$, $t = 2.72$, $p = .01$; see Tables 37 and 38), indicating participants rated the female target higher in warmth when she used mitigated speech ($M = 6.30$, $SD = 1.60$) compared to when she did not use mitigated speech ($M = 5.74$, $SD = 1.55$).

The inclusion of the two-way interactions between the female target's rejection behavior, her use of mitigated speech, and the HS or BS composite score in Step 3 accounted for an additional 2.43% of the variance in the model with HS ($\Delta F(3, 168) = 1.48$, $p = .22$) and 3.44% of the variance in the model with BS ($\Delta F(3, 168) = 2.17$, $p = .07$). results indicated the two-way interaction between the female target's rejection behavior and her use of mitigated speech was a marginally significant unique and negative predictor (HS: $b = –0.87$, $t = –1.83$, $p = .07$; BS: $b = –0.80$, $t = –1.70$, $p = .07$; see Tables 37 and 38). Inconsistent with hypotheses (*H3.3c*), planned contrasts indicated no significant differences in participants' ratings of the female target's levels

of warmth when she used an evasive rejection strategy (M = 6.18, SE = 0.23) compared to an explicit declarative rejection strategy (M = 5.44, SE = 0.24; t = 2.23, p = .12).

The inclusion of the three-way interaction between the female target's the rejection behavior, her use of mitigated speech, and the HS or BS composite score in Step 4 accounted for an additional 0.36% of the variance in the model with HS ($\Delta F(1, 167) = 0.66$, p = .42) and 0.15% of the variance in the model with BS ($\Delta F(1, 167) = 0.29$, p = .59). Results indicated that the three-way interaction between the female target's rejection behavior, her use of mitigated speech, the HS or the BS composite score did not emerge as unique nor significant predictors of ratings of the levels of warmth of the female target (HS: b = 0.39, t = 0.81, p = .42; BS: b = –0.25, t = –0.54, p = .59; see Tables 37 and 38). Inconsistent with hypotheses (*H3.3c*), planned contrasts indicated participants with stronger adherence to hostile sexist attitudes did not significantly differ in perceptions of a female target's level of warmth when she did not use mitigated speech with an explicit declarative rejection strategy (b = –0.04) compared to when she did use mitigated speech with an evasive rejection strategy (b = –0.21; t = 0.52, p = .96). Also inconsistent with hypotheses (*H3.3d*), planned contrasts indicated participants with stronger adherence to benevolent sexist attitudes did not significantly differ in perceptions of a female target's level of warmth when she used mitigated speech with an evasive rejection strategy (b = 0.14) compared to when she did not use mitigated speech with an explicit declarative rejection strategy (b = 0.38; t = 0.72, p = .89).

***Results Summary*.** Results did not support the hypotheses that male participants would be more likely to perceive the female target with a competence stereotype when she used an explicit declarative rejection strategy (*H3.1b*) nor when she did not use mitigated speech with an explicit declarative rejection strategy (*H3.2b*). Results also did not support hypotheses that male

participants would be more likely to perceive the female target with a warmth stereotype when she used an evasive rejection strategy (*H3.1c*) nor when she used mitigated speech with an evasive rejection strategy (*H3.2d*).

Results also did not support the hypothesis that male participants with stronger adherence to hostile sexist attitudes would be more likely to perceive the female target with a contemptuous stereotype when she did not use mitigated speech with an explicit declarative rejection strategy (*H3.3c*). Nor did results support the hypothesis that male participants with stronger adherence to benevolent sexist attitudes would be more likely to perceive a female target with a paternalistic stereotype when she used mitigated speech with an evasive rejection strategy (*H3.3d*).

Results did indicate that male participants were more likely to rate the female target higher in warmth when she used mitigated speech – regardless of her rejection behavior – and were more likely to rate the female target higher in warmth when she used mitigated speech (compared to not using mitigated speech) with an explicit declarative rejection strategy. Furthermore, male participants stronger in adherence to hostile sexist attitudes were more likely to rate the female target lower in warmth while those stronger in adherence to benevolent sexist attitudes were more likely to rate her higher in warmth, regardless of her rejection behavior and use of mitigated speech.

Perceptions of Workplace Evaluation.

Positive Ratings of the Target's Work Performance. Step 1 of the separate hierarchical linear regression analyses using HS ($F(1, 173) = 1.22$, $p = .27$) and BS ($F(1, 173) = 10.35$, $p = .002$) to predict positive perceptions of the female target's work performance accounted for 0.70% and 5.64% of the variance respectively. BS emerged as a significant positive predictor of

positive ratings of the female target's work performance (b = 0.36, t = 3.23, p = .002; see Table 40), indicating as participants' adherence to benevolent sexist attitudes increased, their positive ratings of her work performance also increased. HS did not emerge as a significant predictor of positive ratings of the female target's work performance (b = –0.13, t = –1.10, p = .27; see Table 39), suggesting participants' adherence to hostile sexist attitudes did not influence their ratings of the female target's work performance.

The inclusion of the female target's rejection behavior and her use of mitigated speech in Step 2 accounted for an additional 0.58% of the variance in the model with HS (ΔF(2, 171) = 0.50, p = .61) and 0.11% of the variance in the model with BS (ΔF(2, 171) = 0.10, p = .91). Inconsistent with hypotheses (*H3.1d*), results indicated that the female target's rejection behavior was not a significant nor unique predictor of positive ratings of the female target's work performance (HS: b = –0.05, t = –0.24, p = .81; BS: b = –0.04, t = –0.18, p = .86; see Tables 39 and 40), indicating there were no significant differences in participants' positive ratings of the female target's work performance when she used an explicit declarative rejection strategy (M = 6.44, SE = 0.16) compared to when she used an evasive rejection strategy (M = 6.39, SE = 0.16). The female target's use of mitigated speech was also not a significant nor unique predictor of their positive ratings of the female target's work performance (HS: b = –0.22, t = –0.96, p = .34; BS: b = –0.09, t = –0.40, p = .69; see Tables 39 and 40).

The inclusion of the two-way interactions between the female target's rejection behavior, her use of mitigated speech, and the HS or BS composite score in Step 3 accounted for an additional 0.40% of the variance in the model with HS (ΔF(3, 168) = 0.23, p = .87) and 1.76% of the variance in the model with BS (ΔF(3, 168) = 1.07, p = .37). Results indicated the two-way interaction between the female target's rejection behavior and her use of mitigated speech did not

emerge as a significant unique predictor of positive ratings of the female target's work performance (HS: $b = –0.20$, $t = –0.42$, $p = .67$; BS: $b = –0.13$, $t = –0.29$, $p = .77$; see Tables 39 and 40). Inconsistent with hypotheses (*H3.2d*), planned contrasts indicated no significant differences in positive ratings of the female target's work performance when she did not use mitigated speech with an explicit declarative rejection strategy ($M = 6.52$, $SE = 0.24$) compared to her using mitigated speech with an evasive rejection strategy ($M = 6.24$, $SE = 0.22$; $t = 0.87$, $p = .82$).

The inclusion of the three-way interaction between the female target's rejection behavior, her use of mitigated speech, and the HS or BS composite score in Step 4 accounted for an additional 0.17% of the variance in the model with HS ($\Delta F(1, 167) = 0.28$, $p = .60$) and 0.63% of the variance in the model with BS ($\Delta F(1, 167) = 1.15$, $p = .29$). Results indicated that the three-way interaction between the female target's rejection behavior, her use of mitigated speech, the HS or the BS composite score did not emerge as a unique nor significant predictor of positive ratings of the female target's work performance (HS: $b = 0.25$, $t = 0.53$, $p = .60$; BS: $b = 0.48$, $t = 1.07$, $p = .29$; see Tables 39 and 40). Inconsistent with hypotheses (*H3.3e*), planned contrasts indicated participants with stronger adherence to hostile sexist attitudes did not significantly differ in positive ratings of a female target's work performance when she did not use mitigated speech with an explicit declarative rejection strategy ($b = –0.17$) compared to when she did use mitigated speech with an evasive rejection strategy ($b = 0.001$; $t = 0.52$, $p = .95$). Also inconsistent with hypotheses (*H3.3f*), planned contrasts indicated participants with stronger adherence to benevolent sexist attitudes did not significantly differ in positive ratings of a female target's work performance when she used mitigated speech with an evasive rejection strategy (b

= 0.64) compared to when she did not use mitigated speech with an explicit declarative rejection strategy (b = 0.33; t = 0.95, p = .78).

Positive Perceptions of the Target as a Potential Manager. Step 1 of the separate hierarchical linear regression analyses using HS (F(1, 173) = 3.97, p = .05) and BS (F(1, 173) = 4.72, p = .03) to predict positive perceptions of the female target as a potential manager accounted for 2.24% and 2.65% of the variance respectively. HS emerged as a significant negative predictor of positive perceptions of the female target being a manager (b = –0.23, t = –1.99, p = .05; see Table 41), indicating as participants' adherence to hostile sexist attitudes increased, their positive perceptions of the female target being a manager decreased. BS emerged as a significant positive predictor of positive perceptions of the female target being a manager (b = 0.25, t = 2.17, p = .03; see Table 42), indicating as participants' adherence to benevolent sexist attitudes increased, their positive perceptions of the female target being a manager also increased.

The inclusion of the female target's rejection behavior and her use of mitigated speech in Step 2 accounted for an additional 0.41% of the variance in the model with HS (ΔF(2, 171) = 0.36, p = .70) and 0.34% of the variance in the model with BS (ΔF(2, 171) = 0.30, p = .74). Results indicated the female target's rejection behavior was not a significant nor unique predictor of participants' positive perceptions of the female target being a manager (HS: b = 0.16, t = 0.67, p = .50; BS: b = 0.18, t = 0.77, p = .44; see Tables 41 and 42). Inconsistent with hypotheses (*H3.1d*), planned contrasts indicated no significant differences in positive perceptions of the female target being a potential manager when she used an explicit declarative rejection strategy (M = 6.31, SE = 0.16) compared to her using an evasive rejection strategy (M = 6.46, SE = 0.16). Additionally, the female target's use of mitigated speech was not a significant nor unique

predictor of participants' positive perceptions of the female target being a manager (HS: b = –0.12, t = –0.54, p = .59; BS: b = 0.004, t = 0.02, p = .99; see Tables 41 and 42), suggesting the female target's use of mitigated speech did not significantly affect participants' positive perceptions of her being a potential manager.

The inclusion of the two-way interactions between the female target's rejection behavior, her use of mitigated speech, and the HS or BS composite score in Step 3 accounted for an additional 0.27% of the variance in the model with HS (ΔF(3, 168) = 0.16, p = .93) and 0.51% of the variance in the model with BS (ΔF(3, 168) = 0.29, p = .83). Results indicated the two-way interaction between the female target's rejection behavior and her use of mitigated speech was not a significant nor unique predictor of positive perceptions of the female target being a manager (HS: b = –0.22, t = –0.46, p = .65; BS: b = –0.21, t = –0.46, p = .65; see Tables 41 and 42). Inconsistent with hypotheses (*H3.2d*), planned contrasts indicated no significant differences in positive perceptions of the female target being a potential manager when she did not use mitigated speech with an explicit declarative rejection strategy (M = 6.33, SE = 0.24) compared to her using mitigated speech with an evasive rejection strategy (M = 6.36, SE = 0.22; t = 0.10, p = .99).

The inclusion of the three-way interaction between the female target's rejection behavior, her use of mitigated speech, and the HS or BS composite score in Step 4 accounted for an additional 0.17% of the variance in the model with HS (ΔF(1, 167) = 0.29, p = .59) and 1.67% of the variance in the model with BS (ΔF(1, 167) = 2.94, p = .08). Consistent with hypotheses (*H3.3f*), results indicated the three-way interaction between the female target's rejection behavior, her use of mitigated speech, and the BS composite score emerged as a marginally significant and unique predictor of participants' positive perceptions of the female target being a

manager (b = 0.80, t = 1.72, p = .08; see Table 42). Inconsistent with hypotheses (*H3.3e*), planned contrasts indicated participants with stronger adherence to hostile sexist attitudes did not significantly differ in positive perceptions of a female target being a potential manager when she did not use mitigated speech with an explicit declarative rejection strategy (b = –0.36) compared to when she did use mitigated speech with an evasive rejection strategy (b = –0.23; t = 0.39, p = .98). Also inconsistent with hypotheses (*H3.3f*), planned contrasts indicated participants with stronger adherence to benevolent sexist attitudes did not significantly differ in perceptions of a female target exhibiting agentic traits when she used mitigated speech with an evasive rejection strategy (b = 0.33) compared to when she did not use mitigated speech with an explicit declarative rejection strategy (b = 0.59; t = 0.77, p = .87).

Likelihood to Support the Target. Step 1 of the separate hierarchical linear regression analyses using HS (F(1, 173) = 4.52, p = .03) and BS (F(1, 173) = 17.26, p = .0001) to predict the likelihood of engaging in workplace discrimination against the female target accounted for 2.55% and 9.07% of the variance respectively. HS emerged as a significant positive predictor of participants' ratings of their likelihood to engage in discriminatory behaviors against the female target (b = 0.29, t = 2.13, p = .03; see Table 43), indicating as participants' adherence to hostile sexist attitudes increased, the likelihood they would engage in discriminatory actions against the female target also increased. Additionally, BS emerged as a significant negative predictor of participants' ratings of their likelihood to engage in discriminatory behaviors against the female target (b = –0.55, t = –4.15, p = .0001; see Table 44), indicating as participants' adherence to benevolent sexist attitudes increased, the likelihood they would engage in discriminatory actions against the female target decreased.

The inclusion of the female target's rejection behavior and her use of mitigated speech in Step 2 accounted for an additional 1.64% of the variance in the model with HS ($\Delta F(2, 171) = 1.47$, $p = .23$) and 0.51% of the variance in the model with BS ($\Delta F(2, 171) = 0.48$, $p = .62$). Inconsistent with hypotheses (*H3.1d*), results indicated the female target's rejection behavior was not a significant nor unique predictor of participants' likelihood to engage in discriminatory behaviors against the female target (HS: $b = –0.09$, $t = –0.33$, $p = .74$; BS: $b = –0.12$, $t = –0.46$, $p = .65$; see Tables 43 and 44), indicating there were no significant differences affect participants' likelihood to engage in workplace discrimination against the female target when she used an explicit declarative rejection strategy ($M = 3.92$, $SE = 0.20$) compared to an evasive rejection strategy ($M = 3.83$, $SE = 0.19$). Additionally, mitigated speech was not a significant nor unique predictor of participants' likelihood to engage in discriminatory behaviors against the female target (HS: $b = 0.47$, $t = 1.69$, $p = .09$; BS: $b = 0.24$, $t = 0.88$, $p = .38$; see Tables 43 and 44), indicating the female target's use of mitigated speech did not significantly affect participants' likelihood to engage in workplace discrimination against her.

The inclusion of the two-way interactions between the female target's rejection behavior, her use of mitigated speech, and the HS or BS composite score in Step 3 accounted for an additional 0.83% of the variance in the model with HS ($\Delta F(3, 168) = 0.49$, $p = .69$) and 1.86% of the variance in the model with BS ($\Delta F(3, 168) = 1.18$, $p = .32$). Results indicated the two-way interaction between the female target's rejection behavior and her use of mitigated speech was not significant (HS: $b = 0.02$, $t = 0.04$, $p = .97$; BS: $b = 0.04$, $t = 0.07$, $p = .95$; see Tables 43 and 44). Inconsistent with hypotheses (*H3.2d*), planned contrasts indicated no significant differences in participants' likelihood to engage in workplace discrimination against the female target when she did not use mitigated speech with an explicit declarative rejection strategy ($M = 3.66$, $SE =$

0.28) compared to her using mitigated speech with an evasive rejection strategy (M = 4.05, SE = 0.26; t = 1.02, p = .74).

The inclusion of the three-way interaction between the female target's rejection behavior, her use of mitigated speech, and the HS or BS composite score in Step 4 accounted for an additional 0.34% of the variance in the model with HS ($\Delta F(1, 167) = 0.60$, p = .44) and 0.74% of the variance in the model with BS ($\Delta F(1, 167) = 1.40$, p = .24). Results indicated the three-way interaction between the female target's rejection behavior, her use of mitigated speech, and the HS or BS composite score was not significant (HS: b = –0.43, t = –0.77, p = .44; BS: b = –0.63, t = –1.18, p = .24; see Tables 43 and 44). Inconsistent with hypotheses (*H3.3e*), planned contrasts indicated no significant differences in participants' likelihood to engage in workplace discrimination against the female target when she did not use mitigated speech with an explicit declarative rejection strategy (b = 0.44) compared to when she did use mitigated speech with an evasive rejection strategy (b = 0.01; t = 1.07, p = .71). Also inconsistent with hypotheses (*H3.3f*), planned contrasts indicated no significant differences in participants' likelihood to engage in workplace discrimination against the female target when she used mitigated speech with an evasive rejection strategy (b = –0.68) compared to when she did not use mitigated speech with an explicit declarative rejection strategy (b = –0.71; t = 0.08, p = .99).

***Results Summary*.** Results did not support the hypotheses that male participants would engage in active harm (i.e., more likely to engage in workplace prejudice and discrimination) against a female target who used an explicit declarative rejection strategy (*H3.1d*), nor that her use of mitigated speech would moderate these effects (*H3.2c, H3.2d*). Furthermore, results did support the hypotheses that sexist attitudes would moderate the interaction effects of the female target's rejection behavior and her use of mitigated speech (*H3.3e, H3.3f*).

Additionally, results indicated that male participants' sexist attitudes influenced their likelihood to engage in active harm, where those with stronger adherence to hostile sexist attitudes were more likely to rate the female target unfavorably as a potential manager and more likely to engage in discriminatory actions against her. Furthermore, those with stronger adherence to benevolent sexist attitudes were more likely to rate the female target's work performance positively, were more likely to rate her favorably as a potential manager, and were less likely to engage in discriminatory actions against her. Furthermore, results indicated male participants who more strongly adhered to benevolent sexist attitudes were more likely to rate the female target more favorably as a potential manager when she used mitigated speech while using an evasive rejection strategy.

Study 3 Discussion

Study 3's results provided some support for the hypotheses that the female target's rejection behavior, her use of mitigated speech, and male participants' adherence to sexist attitudes affects perceptions of the female target adhering to feminine gender norms, the use of stereotypical thinking patterns, and the engagement in either active harm or active facilitation via expressions of workplace prejudice and discrimination. Results indicated that men were more likely to perceive the female target as not adhering to feminine gender norms (i.e., more agentic and less communal) either when she used an explicit declarative rejection strategy (*H3.1a*) or when she did not use mitigated speech with an explicit declarative rejection strategy (*H3.2a*) when rejecting his romantic interest. This suggests that the both the use of an explicit declarative rejection strategy as well as not using mitigated speech may be regarded as a masculine behavior while both the use of an evasive rejection strategy as well as using mitigated speech may be regarded as a feminine behavior.

However, the results also suggest that the female target's use of a specific rejection strategy did not influence stereotypical thinking patterns (i.e., competence or warmth stereotypes; *H3.1b, H3.1c*), her not using mitigated speech with an explicit declarative rejection strategy may not lead to rejected men perceiving her with a competence stereotype (*H3.2b*) or her using mitigated speech with an evasive rejection strategy perceiving her with a warmth stereotype (*H3.2c*), as well as them hindering her from additional workplace achievements and advancement (*H3.1d, H3.2d*). Furthermore, men's sexist attitudes did not moderate the effects of the female target's rejection behavior and her use of mitigated speech on perceptions of her adherence to feminine gender norms (*H3.3a, H3.3b*), their stereotypical thinking patterns (*H3.3c, H3.3d*), and their engagement in active harm or active facilitation (*H3.3e, H3.3f*).

Additionally, men with stronger adherence to hostile sexist attitudes were less likely to perceive the female target as adhering to feminine gender norms (i.e., less communal), were less likely to perceive her with a warmth stereotype, and were more likely to engage in active harm by engaging in workplace prejudice and discrimination against her. Furthermore, men with stronger adherence to benevolent sexist attitudes were also less likely to perceive the female target as adhering to feminine gender norms (i.e., higher in agentic traits), but were more likely to perceive her with a warmth stereotype and to engage in active facilitation (i.e., not engaging in workplace prejudice and discrimination). These results overall indicate that men's ambivalent sexist attitudes influence perceptions of a woman who rejects his romantic interest, regardless of her rejection behavior or use of mitigated speech, where men's hostile sexist attitudes may hinder a rejecting female coworker from additional workplace achievements and advancement. Furthermore, men's benevolent sexist attitudes may appear to act as a deterrent from hindering her from workplace achievements and advancement, but this was stronger for when she either

engages in feminine behaviors (i.e., when she uses mitigated with an evasive rejection strategy) or when she engages in more masculine behaviors (i.e., when she did not use mitigated speech with an explicit declarative rejection strategy).

Surprisingly, results showed men with stronger adherence to benevolent sexist attitudes were more likely to perceive the female target as being communal when she did not use mitigated speech, regardless of rejection behavior. This result – while not specific to any prediction posited – suggests that men with stronger benevolent sexist attitudes perceived the female target's use of mitigated speech as being less feminine. However, the specific phrase used in the vignettes (i.e., "I'm flattered") could have been perceived as being less friendly or even patronizing.

Chapter 5 - General Discussion

The previous set of studies took an integrated approach to theory-driven gender research (see Burghardt & Bodansky, 2021) by examining how women's rejection behaviors (e.g., direct vs indirect strategies; the use of mitigated speech; Banks et al., 1987; Baumeister et al., 1993; Dockterman, 2014; Dovidio et al., 1988; Freedman et al., 2022; Goodboy & Brann, 2010; Halversen et al., 2021; Joel et al., 2014; LaFrance et al., 2003; LeFebvre et al., 2019; Owen et al., 2013; Stratmoen et al., 2019; Swim, 1994; Taylor, 1978) and others' sexist attitudes (i.e., ambivalent sexism; Becker & Wright, 2011; Christopher & Wojda, 2008; Glick et al., 2000; Glick & Fiske, 1996; Sacco et al., 2003) affect perceptions of women's adherence to feminine gender norms (i.e., her exhibiting agentic traits and communal traits; Bakan, 1966; Diekman & Goodfriend, 2006; Eagly, 1987; Haines et al., 2016) as well as stereotypical perceptions and discriminatory behaviors (as defined by the Stereotype Content Model (SCM) and the Behaviors from Intergroup Affect and Stereotypes (BIAS) Map; Cuddy et al., 2007; 2008; Fiske, 2018; Fiske et al., 2002) within an applied context (i.e., a workplace environment). The relationships between gender, rejection behavior, and levels of sexist attitudes on perceptions of a coworker (i.e., target) who rejects another coworker's (i.e., suitor) romantic interest were examined. Researching these perceptions within a workplace context is particularly important, given the extant research on gender bias in hiring decisions and wage equity and the potential for retaliation when reporting unwanted sexual attention and coercion in the workplace (e.g., Brand & Silberman, 2002; Burgess & Borgida, 1999; Eagly & Karau, 2002; Fitzgerald et al., 1995; Heilman, 2001; Hunt et al., 2010; O'Connor et al., 2004; O'Leary et al., 2000; 2009; Pierce et al., 2004; Rotundo et al., 2001; Rudman & Glick, 2001; Rudman et al., 2012). Furthermore, women face various obstacles towards their advancement and promotion in the workplace. The

fear of backlash from fellow work colleagues when she does not adhere to feminine gender norms can lead to her to not be as assertive during salary negotiations (e.g., Amanatullah & Morris, 2010; Phelan et al., 2008; Rudman, 1998; Rudman & Glick, 1999; 2001; Rudman & Phelan, 2008) and place her in a double-bind dilemma, where women may either be perceived as competent for their work position but unlikeable, or they can be perceived as likeable but incompetent (e.g., Catalyst, 2007; Eaves-Boykin, 2020; Taylor, 1978).

The Stereotype Content Model (SCM; Fiske et al., 2002) and the Behaviors from Intergroup Affect and Stereotypes (BIAS) Map (Cuddy et al., 2007; 2008; Fiske, 2018) were used as theoretical frameworks to examine these relationships. The SCM suggests that the stereotypes individuals hold regarding various groups of people can be described along two different axes – competency and warmth – resulting in 4 subsets of stereotypes, which may influence emotions and behaviors directed towards the group. One subset is termed ingroup/ally favoritism, where people perceive others in this subset as both higher in competence and higher in warmth. Conversely, the subset termed contemptuous stereotype, where people perceive group members as both lower in competence and lower in warmth. The other two subsets are ambiguous in nature, where they are high in one aspect but low in the other. One subset is the envious stereotype, where people regard group members as being higher in competence but lower in warmth; the other subset is the paternalistic stereotype, where people regard group members as being lower in competence but higher in warmth. This framework – along with gender stereotypes stemming from gender norms (e.g., exhibiting agentic traits and communal traits; Bakan, 1966; Diekman & Goodfriend, 2006; Eagly, 1987; Haines et al., 2016) and sexist attitudes (i.e., hostile and benevolent sexism; Becker & Wright, 2011; Christopher & Wojda, 2008; Glick et al., 2000; Glick & Fiske, 1996; Sacco et al., 2003) – was used to examine the

perceptions individuals may hold regarding a target in this particular context. Factors were manipulated that were hypothesized to affect these perceptions, including the context of the rejection (i.e., target versus suitor; Study 1), the target's use of mitigated speech (Study 2), the gender of the target (Study 2), and the target's rejection behavior (Studies 2 and 3). Perceptions of adherence to gender norms (e.g., exhibiting agentic traits and communal traits; Bakan, 1966; Diekman & Goodfriend, 2006; Eagly, 1987; Haines et al., 2016), stereotyping (via the SCM and BIAS Map; Cuddy et al., 2007; 2008; Fiske, 2018), and engagement of either active harm or active facilitation via workplace prejudice and discrimination were examined.

Gender Differences in Endorsement of Rejection Behaviors.

Consistent with hypotheses, men were more likely to endorse direct rejection behaviors, irrespective of the rejection context (i.e., being a suitor or being a target; Study 1). However, women were also more likely to endorse the use of direct rejection behaviors (also irrespective of the rejection context), specifically when the justifications provided were either regarding the level of familiarity between the target and the suitor (e.g., "We are work colleagues") or the target stating they were already in a romantic relationship (Study 1). These results suggest that both men and women have expectations – for both their own behavior and the behavior of the target – of being explicit when rejecting a coworker's unreciprocated romantic advance. Furthermore, male suitors were more likely than female targets to endorse direct rejection behaviors with her justification being in a relationship while female targets were more likely than male suitors to endorse an explicit rejection due to the level of familiarity between herself and the male suitor (Study 1). Hence, while both men and women endorse being rejected in an explicit manner, men may prefer to be rejected due to her lack of romantic availability while women may prefer to refer to their workplace affiliation (i.e., "We are work colleagues") to

justify her rejection. This suggests that gender differences lie in the justifications of a direct rejection, where men prefer to be rejected due to another suitor (i.e., "I already have a boyfriend") rather than her lack of interest (i.e., "I'm not interested"), with the latter being perceived as blunt. And since being blunt alone may be perceived as assertive and insensitive (i.e., not congruent with feminine gender norms; Diekman & Goodfriend, 2006; Eagly, 1987; Haines et al., 2016), women may pair their direct rejections with justifications that are not personal in nature (e.g., "I'm already dating someone"; "We are work colleagues") as a means to mitigate the harshness of the direct rejection while adhering to feminine gender norms (e.g., exhibiting niceness; Rudman & Glick, 2001).

Additionally, there were no gender differences in the endorsement of indirect rejection behaviors; however, female targets were more likely than female suitors to endorse indirect rejection behaviors that were evasive in nature (e.g., ignore the request; change the topic; Study 1). This suggests women may perceive the use of indirect rejection behaviors as congruent with feminine gender norms (i.e., less agentic; Diekman & Goodfriend, 2006; Eagly, 1987; Haines et al., 2016), and may expect themselves and other women (rather than men) to be evasive to indicate a lack of reciprocated romantic interest to a coworker.

Furthermore, men who were stronger in adherence to hostile sexist attitudes were more likely to endorse direct rejection behaviors when they were the target; however, they were less likely to endorse indirect rejection behaviors when they were the suitor, but rather expressed a preference to be rejected by a female coworker in a direct manner (Study 1). These results suggest that hostilely sexist men not only prefer to engage in explicit rejection behaviors when signaling a lack of reciprocal romantic interest in a female suitor, but also prefer to be informed in a straightforward manner when the female target is not romantically interested in him.

Additionally, those who more strongly adhered to benevolent sexist attitudes were more likely to endorse direct rejection behaviors when they were the suitor while endorsing indirect rejection behaviors when they were the target (Study 1). These results suggest ambivalence towards rejection strategies by benevolently sexist individuals, where they may prefer to engage in noncommittal rejection behaviors to mitigate any negative reactions experienced by the suitor (e.g., sadness, hurt) but prefer to be rejected explicitly, without ambiguity. This may be due to the inherent chivalrous mindset that accompanies benevolent sexist attitudes, where men are expected to be protective of women (Becker & Wright, 2011; Glick & Fiske, 1996). Hence, those who express benevolently sexist attitudes may use indirect rejection strategies when rejecting a coworker – so as not to appear unchivalrous – but perceive the use of these same rejection strategies where they are the target as being discourteous.

Perceptions of Adherence to Feminine Gender Norms.

Consistent with hypotheses, individuals were more likely to perceive a target who uses a direct rejection strategy as not adhering to feminine gender norms (i.e., more agentic, less communal; Study 2), suggesting that explicit rejection behaviors may be perceived as a masculine behavior. Furthermore, men were more likely to perceive a female coworker as adhering to feminine gender norms when she used mitigated speech when rejecting his romantic interest (Study 3) and were less likely to perceive a female coworker as adhering to feminine gender norms when she rejected his own romantic interest using a direct rejection strategy without mitigated speech (Study 3). This corresponds with previous literature regarding emotional labor in the workplace, where the care and management of workplace relationships and coworkers' feelings are expected of women more so than men (e.g., Bellas, 1999; Caleo, 2016; Catalyst, 2005; Cortina et al., 2001; Hayes-Smith et al., 2010; Heilman & Chen, 2005;

Hochschild, 1983; Morris & Feldman, 1996). Therefore, men may prefer women to use mitigated speech when she is indicating a lack of romantic interest as a means of protecting his feelings and managing their work relationship. As a result, men may harbor negative perceptions of women who choose to be straightforward and explicit in their rejection without the use of soft, buffering language to attenuate the perceived harshness of the rejection (e.g., exhibiting niceness; Rudman & Glick, 2001).

Additionally, individual's adherence to ambivalent sexist attitudes may influence perceptions of a female target adhering to feminine gender norms. Men with stronger adherence to benevolent sexist attitudes were less likely to rate a female target as adhering to feminine gender norms when she rejected his romantic interest (Study 3). Furthermore, bystanders with strong hostile sexist attitudes perceived a female target as less communal (Study 2) and men with strong hostile sexist attitudes were more likely to rate a female target who rejected his romantic interest as less communal (Study 3). Consistent with previous literature (e.g., Glick & Fiske, 1996; Glick et al., 2000; Pacilli et al., 2019), these results provide further evidence that individuals' ambivalent sexist attitudes may be detrimental to women in the workplace, particularly if she does not adhere to feminine gender norms and gender role expectations for women. Additionally, men who adhere strongly to hostile sexist attitudes may view someone they are romantically interested in as not adhering to gender role expectations when she does not reciprocate his interest (e.g., Becker & Wright, 2011; Christopher & Wojda, 2008; Glick & Fiske, 1996), which may lead to perceiving her as less friendly and approachable – potentially leading to feelings of contempt as well as bias against the female coworker through workplace promotions and achievements.

Stereotyping as defined by the Stereotype Content Model.

Consistent with hypotheses, bystanders were more likely to view a female target who used a direct rejection strategy with a competence stereotype (i.e., more competent) while viewing a female target who uses an indirect rejection strategy with a warmth stereotype (i.e., higher in warmth; Study 2). This may be due to women being more likely to be targets of unrequited or unwanted romantic advances (Bohns & DeVincent, 2019; Fitzgerald et al., 1988; 1995; Jagsi et al., 2016); therefore, others may view a woman who is tasked with rejecting a man's unrequited romantic interest as engaging in behaviors that are expected for women in a workplace setting as well as in today's dating climate.

Additionally, both bystanders (Study 2) and men (Study 3) who hold strong hostile sexist attitudes viewed a female target as lower in warmth. These results suggest those who hold hostile sexist attitudes may harbor bias against women who choose to reject a man's unwanted or unrequited romantic advance, which may affect perceptions and feelings of animosity towards women who reject men. These results also suggest that while women may endorse their own use of direct rejection behaviors (Study 1), others may perceive the use of such rejection strategies by another as being too harsh, thereby potentially rewarding those who use rejection strategies that are not as blunt (Study 3). Furthermore, the results suggest a trade-off between a woman's choice in rejection strategy, where those who use more direct and explicit behaviors to indicate a lack of reciprocal romantic interest may be perceived as highly competent but less friendly and approachable while those who use more indirect rejection behaviors may be perceived as friendly and approachable but risks being viewed as less competent. Consistent with the previous literature (e.g., Catalyst, 2005; 2007; Eagly & Karau, 2002; Rudman & Glick, 1999; 2001), women who inhabit an agentic role in the workplace experience a double bind dilemma, where

they are expected to engage in the agentic behaviors necessary for the role but should do so in a nice and polite manner congruent with feminine gender norms. Therefore, it may be that women experience a double bind dilemma when rejecting an unwanted or unreciprocated romantic advance, where they are expected to be assertive by providing a clear rejection but should do so using a low-powered form of communication to soften the blow, thereby lessening the potential of backlash and retaliation in the workplace.

Additionally, men were more likely to perceive the female target with a warmth stereotype when she used mitigated speech with a direct rejection strategy (Study 3) but were more likely to view the female target with an envious or contemptuous stereotype (i.e., lower in warmth) when she did not use mitigated speech with a direct rejection strategy (Study 3). Furthermore, men were more likely to perceive a female target who used mitigated speech while rejecting his romantic interest with a paternalistic stereotype or in-group favoritism (i.e., higher in warmth; Study 3), particularly when she used mitigated speech with an indirect rejection strategy (Study 3). These results indicate women's use of soft, buffering language when rejecting his romantic interest may influence men's perceptions of her, where men may perceive women who use words and phrases to soften the blow while rejecting him as being the favored method of rejection. Indeed, prior research has indicated that people generally perceive women with in-group favoritism (Durante et al., 2016) and more traditional women (i.e., housewives) with a paternalistic stereotype (Cuddy et al., 2007). Therefore, women who use softening language – coupled with rejection behaviors that are not straightforward or explicit – may be perceived by men as engaging in both descriptive and prescriptive behaviors for women.

Additionally, women within society are expected to engage in unpaid emotional labor (e.g., Bellas, 1999; Catalyst, 2005; Hochschild, 1979; 1983; Morris & Feldman, 1996) and

women's use of mitigated speech may be viewed as a form of emotional labor for the men who are being rejected. Furthermore, a woman's choice in her use of mitigated speech when rejecting an unreciprocated romantic advance may also be a trade-off, where those who use mitigated speech may be perceived as polite and kind while those who do not use mitigated speech risk being viewed as rude and insensitive – particularly when she is employing an explicit rejection strategy. Therefore, future research should determine women's motivations to use mitigated speech and indirect rejection strategies, examine if they are concerned about the potential consequences to the suitor's esteem (i.e., hurting his feelings) as well as about self-presentation concerns of appearing insensitive, rude, and/or impolite, and explore if this is heightened by the workplace context.

Expressions of Workplace Prejudice and Discrimination.

Results showed bystanders were more likely to engage in active harm (i.e., engage in workplace prejudice and discrimination) against the target who used a direct rejection strategy (Study 2), but were more likely to engage in active facilitation (i.e., not engage in workplace prejudice and discrimination) when the target was female (Study 2). These results suggest a potential bias in favor of women rather than men when they are engaging in rejection behaviors. This could be due to the nature of the rejection (i.e., a romantic context) and the social norms surrounding dating culture, where men are generally expected to be the initiators of heterosexual romantic interactions and, therefore, it is women who are generally expected to let him down if his romantic interest is not reciprocated (Mills, 2011). Conversely, it could also be that women are viewed in a more implicit condescending fashion, where bystanders may feel sorry for the woman in this position. Much like the effects of benevolent sexism (e.g., Fraser et al., 2015; Lee et al., 2010), even though this appears to be a positive outcome for female employees, this can

have detrimental workplace affects for women who may not adhere to feminine gender norms in other contexts (e.g., platonic coworker interactions). Specifically, bystanders may express sympathy for the female coworker who is rejecting a male coworker – hence the in-group favoritism – and yet believe she needs protection and assistance to be promoted within the workplace organization. However, if additional personal information about the woman was included in the vignettes – specifically personality traits that indicate adherence (or lack thereof) to feminine gender norms – it is a possibility that bystanders may not be so kind and thoughtful (i.e., patronizing) towards the female target.

Additionally, results showed men with stronger hostile sexist attitudes were more likely to engage in active harm against the female target whereas men with stronger benevolent sexist attitudes were more likely to engage in active facilitation (Study 3). These results provide further evidence of the influence of ambivalent sexist attitudes on expressions of workplace prejudice and discrimination, where men's benevolent sexist beliefs may be related to their engagement in paternalistic behaviors towards women. Consistent with previous literature (e.g., Fraser et al., 2015; Glick & Fiske, 1996; Glick et al., 2000; Lee et al., 2010; Tannenbaum, 2013), benevolent sexist attitudes may superficially appear to be related to positive outcomes for women, however benevolently sexist men may provide their support with the mindset that women cannot achieve workplace promotions and advancement on her own merits. This contrasts with results that men with strong benevolent sexist attitudes may also perceive a woman who rejects their attempt at initiating a romantic relationship as not being feminine (Study 3). Hence, while men's adherence to benevolent sexist attitudes may appear to act as a deterrent from hindering women from workplace advancement, this may only be for women who appear and act in accordance with feminine gender norms.

Limitations and Future Directions.

The research presented here is not without its limitations. Two different sampling strategies were used, first with an emerging adult sample (i.e., General Psychology Students; Study 1) and the second with a greater age range (i.e., MTurk Participants; Studies 2 and 3). However, research has indicated that the differences between General Psychology samples and MTurk samples is negligible (e.g., Goodman et al., 2013; Gosling & Mason, 2015; Litman et al., 2015; Mason & Suri, 2012; Miller et al., 2017; Paolacci & Chandler, 2014), where these two different samples are more alike than they are different. Furthermore, participants who were currently employed or had work experience over the past few years were included; however, there may still be differences in perceptions based on both their line of work and the longevity of their work experience – an older adult will have had a greater extensive work history than a college student in their early 20s. Nevertheless, both samples were included in the studies to ensure a greater diversity in the age and work history of participants.

Another limitation is the generalizability of the results due to the studies' focus on romantic rejection in a workplace setting rather than in a general setting (e.g., social gathering, bar/pub, online dating app). Given the professional nature of a workplace setting, recent social movements regarding women's experiences of workplace sexual harassment (e.g., #MeToo movement; Atwater et al., 2019; Felsenthal, 2018; Ohlheiser, 2017; Zacharek et al., 2018), and legal concerns regarding workplace romantic pursuits (Leonoro, 2022), it stands to reason that individuals might view women's engagement of direct rejection strategies differently compared to a non-workplace setting. Indeed, portraying a romantic rejection between two coworkers rather than two strangers or social acquaintances may have influenced participants to suppress expressions of prejudice and discrimination (see the Justification-Suppression Model of

prejudice (JSM); Crandall & Eshleman, 2003). Future research should examine stereotyping and expressions of prejudice towards women who reject men's unreciprocated romantic interest in general settings and how these may differ compared to a workplace setting.

While individual differences in perceptions of mate value and tolerance to uncertainty were measured as potential covariates, there are additional individual differences that may influence one's perceptions of a target rejecting a suitor's romantic advance, including rejection sensitivity (see Downey & Feldman, 1996; Downey et al., 1999; 2000), attachment style (see Bretherton, 1992; Hazan & Shaver, 1987; Rajecki et al., 1978), mental health concerns (e.g., anxiety, depression), personality traits (e.g., agreeableness, narcissism), and self-esteem. Future research should examine the relationship between these additional and other individual differences with perceptions of women who reject men's unreciprocated romantic interest.

Also, perceptions of the target's levels of femininity and masculinity (i.e., communal traits and agentic traits) and potential stereotyping of the target via the Stereotype Content Model (i.e., perceptions of the target's levels of competency and warmth; Cuddy et al., 2007; 2008; Fiske, 2018; Fiske et al., 2002) were assessed as outcome variables rather than as mediators of participants' expressions of prejudice and engagement of workplace discrimination. It may be that perceptions of female targets are moderated and explained by perceptions of her levels of femininity, masculinity, competency, and warmth. Future research may reexamine these variables using a moderated mediation model to better explain the potential of expressions of prejudice and engagement of workplace discrimination.

Additionally, data was collected during the spring of 2021, a time when there was a global pandemic (WHO, 2021) that required many to telework (Parker et al., 2020) and potentially quarantine due to exposure to COVID-19 (CDC, 2022). Around 33 million

Americans quit their job during 2021 (Rosalsky, 2022), sparking debates regarding work conditions, corporate culture, and sufficient compensation. Hence, these social and global issues could have impacted participants' perceptions regarding the work environment generally and about coworkers specifically. Future research should re-examine these perceptions once we have reached a more post-pandemic period (Maragakis, 2021) and if/when workers are allowed to return to the office in a pre-pandemic fashion.

Another limitation is the phrase used to suggest the female target's use of mitigated speech in Study 3. Men with stronger adherence to benevolent sexist attitudes perceived a female coworker's use of mitigated speech as being less feminine (Study 3); however, the phrase used to indicate her use of mitigated speech (i.e., "I'm flattered…") may have been perceived as less friendly or even patronizing rather than easing the harshness of the rejection. Future research should examine other mitigating speech phrases women may use within a romantic rejection context, how these impact others' perceptions of her adherence to feminine gender norms, and determine if the use of mitigated speech in this context is inherently perceived as demeaning and/or patronizing.

Furthermore, the behaviors indicating a direct rejection as well as the lack of mitigated speech may be a valid indication of one's agentic behavior rather than a woman's violation of feminine gender norms. Also, the behaviors indicating an indirect rejection as well as the use of mitigated speech may be a valid indication of one's communal behavior rather than a woman's adherence to feminine gender norms. While prior literature indicates that women are expected to be more communal and less agentic (Bakan, 1966; Diekman & Goodfriend, 2006; Eagly, 1987; Haines et al., 2016) and may experience backlash if they appear to violate these norms (Basow & Silberg, 1987; Rudman, 1998; Rudman & Glick, 1999; 2001; Rudman et al., 2012; Rudman &

Phelan, 2008), it may be that participants were accurately perceiving their behavior (e.g., being direct is an agentic behavior; using mitigated speech is a communal behavior) rather than indicating that the woman was not adhering to feminine gender norms. While perceptions of the target's levels of femininity and masculinity was measured using the Bem-Sex Role Inventory (BSRI; Bem, 1974; Choi et al., 2009) – a widely used tool in gender role research – it may not indicate fully whether the target is negatively perceived based on these gendered attributes. Future research should use additional measures with the BSRI to fully examine both perceptions of the target's levels of femininity and masculinity as well as perceptions of whether the target is perceived to be adhering to societal norms surrounding gender.

Additionally, the results suggest that agentic women (e.g., using a direct rejection strategy) should also employ communal communication behaviors (e.g., using mitigated speech) as a means to mitigate potential backlash. Indeed, results from Rudman and Glick (2001) show that agentic female leaders experience backlash unless they counterbalance their agentic behaviors with communal behaviors (e.g., niceness, politeness). Therefore, these results appear to encourage societal gender norms in the workplace rather than dispute them. However, the results are also indicative of the double bind dilemma faced by agentic women in the workplace, where they can either engage in agentic behaviors that are incongruous with prescriptive feminine gender norms and be viewed as competent but unlikable, or engage in communal behaviors congruous with prescriptive feminine gender norms and be viewed as likable but also less competent, or (Catalyst, 2005; 2007; Eagly & Karau, 2002; Martens et al., 2018; O'Neill & O'Reilly III, 2011; Rosette & Tost, 2010; Rudman & Glick, 1999; 2001; Rudman & Phelan, 2008). Hence, an agentic woman's use of communal communication may perpetuate rather than subvert these gender norms.

However, one may argue that agentic women must carefully navigate workplace relationships due to others' perceptions of her agentic behavior; hence, she may engage in communal speech as a form of social lubrication. For instance, if an agentic woman receives unfavorable evaluative feedback from her supervisor, and during this interaction she chooses to remain professional and exhibit a neutral (rather than an emotional) facial expression. Her lack of emotional expression may then make her supervisor uncomfortable, to which they ask why she is not smiling or being emotionally expressive. At that moment, she faces a dilemma – does she call out the inherent sexism regarding her supervisor's expectations that she smiles and express her emotions, or does she smile to appease her supervisor? If the agentic woman chooses to verbally challenge the inherent sexism underlying her supervisor's expectations of her engaging in expected feminine behaviors, she risks facing backlash from her supervisor for being disagreeable and confrontational. However, if she chooses to smile, she risks perpetuating feminine gender norms and gender role expectations in the workplace. Hence, she is damned if she does and doomed if she doesn't.

There are additional ramifications to this dilemma of an agentic woman choosing to engage in communal communication behaviors as a means of appeasing others. For instance, she is burdened with the emotional labor that is expected of women in the workplace (i.e., managing her supervisor's feelings regarding her and their interaction; Bellas, 1999; Caleo, 2016; Catalyst, 2005; Cortina et al., 2001; Hayes-Smith et al., 2010; Heilman & Chen, 2005; Hochschild, 1983; Morris & Feldman, 1996). This gendered expectation has been shown to have negative effects for women, including increased stress and burnout (Pugliesi, 1999; Sharrad, 1992; Tolich, 1993; Wharton, 1993), decreased job satisfaction and personal well-being (Pugliesi, 1999), and other negative health effects (Ashforth & Humphrey, 1993; Fineman, 1993). Also, it may be that

agentic women who also employ communal communication behaviors are doing so as an impression management strategy (i.e., a conscious or subconscious process where one attempts to influence others' perceptions of them through the regulation of information during a social interaction; Sanaria, 2016) and/or as a self-presentation strategy (i.e., conveying information about oneself to others as a means to match others' expectations and preferences of her; Baumeister, 1987). It may also be that these agentic women are high self-monitors (i.e., a personality trait indicating one's ability to modify their behavior in response to situational pressures and societal norms; APA, 2022) and have learned how to overcome the negative gender stereotyping she may encounter (Flynn & Ames, 2006). Furthermore, her use of communal communication behaviors may be an acute stress response (i.e., the fight-flight-freeze-fawn response that occurs in reaction to a perceived harmful event, attack, or threat; Cannon, 1932), where instead of "fighting" others' gendered expectations of her, she engages in "fawn" behaviors, such as smiling and using mitigated speech. Indeed, the engagement of communal communication behaviors by agentic women may be a survival strategy for navigating workplace relationships. Future research should examine the motivations of agentic women to engage in communal communication behaviors within the workplace as well as when they are explicitly rejecting a romantic advance.

Additionally, the vignettes made clear that the target and suitor were both on the same managerial level (i.e., managers, supervisors) to remove any workplace power dynamic issues that may influence participants' perceptions of the target. Also, the vignettes did not provide extensive details about the target or suitor, including personality traits and how familiar participants may be with them. Future research may examine these additional factors to determine how workplace power dynamics may interact with the gender of the target,

particularly due to the double bind dilemma female leaders must contend with – as well as if familiarity with the target or suitor influences perceptions and workplace prejudice and discrimination.

Future research should also examine different justifications targets may use to reject suitors' unreciprocated romantic advances. Baxter (1984) discusses two distinct dimensions to relationship dissolution strategies, where one dimension indicates the level of explicitness of the rejection (i.e., direct versus indirect) while the other dimension represents the degree of protecting the suitor's feelings over concern for oneself (i.e., Self- versus Other-Oriented). Suitors tend to perceive being rejected via a direct + other-oriented approach as the more compassionate strategy (e.g., explicitly stating the rejection while protecting the suitor's self-esteem) compared to an indirect + self-oriented approach (e.g., not explicitly stating the rejection while focusing on the target's own needs) (Sprecher, Zimmerman, & Abraham, 2010). The rejection behaviors used in Study 1 focused on the level of explicitness (i.e., direct versus indirect) with many of the justifications provided indicating both self-oriented concerns (e.g., "I don't find you attractive") and other-oriented concerns (e.g., "We are work colleagues"). It may be that women who use more direct rejection strategies will also use other-oriented justifications to mitigate the rejection. Future research should examine how perceptions differ for men and women who use these strategies, and the potential for workplace prejudice and discrimination.

Future research should also examine comparative and noncomparative rejection regarding romantic rejection. Results from Deri and Zitek (2017) show individuals view comparative rejection (i.e., when the target is rejecting the suitor due to being interested in someone else) as being worse than noncomparative rejection (i.e., when the target is not rejecting the suitor due to being interested in someone else), where comparative rejection may result in a

decrease in the suitor's sense of belonging, leading them to feel excluded. Even though the justifications provided in Study 1's rejection items had these elements (e.g., "I'm in a relationship with someone else" versus "I'm not interested in dating anyone right now"), perceptual differences in these justifications were not examined. Hence, it may be that women are more likely to use noncomparative strategies when rejecting a man's romantic interest to mitigate the sting of the rejection, and women who use comparative rejection strategies may be viewed with envious or contemptuous stereotypes and more likely to experience workplace prejudice and discrimination.

Summary and Conclusion

Across three studies, perceptions of a target being influenced by others' sexist attitudes, the nature of the rejection, the gender of the target, and the target's rejection behavior were examined. Men's hostile sexist attitudes may lead to greater deterrent of workplace advancements and promotions for female coworkers who engage in rejection, while men's benevolent sexist attitudes indicate expectations for women to engage in rejection behaviors that mitigate the harshness of the rejection. These results have both theoretical and practical implications, as they indicate (a) gendered expectations regarding romantic rejection and (b) consequences for the female target in the workplace. Therefore, women who engage in direct rejection strategies may be caught in the conundrum of "damned if you do, doomed if you don't," where men prefer to be rejected in a straightforward manner, but there may be social consequences for doing so.

Chapter 6 - Tables

Table 1. *Means, Standard deviations, Cronbach's alphas, and zero-order correlations of predictors and outcome variables for the Suitor Context in Study 1*

Variable	*M (SD)*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Gender	0.36 (0.48)	—									
2. HS	3.95 (1.67)	-.20	(.84)								
3. BS	4.70 (1.38)	-.19	.79****	(.67)							
4. MVS	5.14 (0.94)	.001	.33	.52*	(.83)						
5. Personal Preferences	4.49 (2.04)	-.32	.04	.08	.16	(.91)					
6. Interpersonal Relationships	6.32 (1.95)	-.54**	.24	.28	.22	.77****	(.89)				
7. Current Relationship Status	6.23 (2.24)	-.39	.23	.26	.14	.59**	.75****	(.88)			
8. Rude/Impolite Behaviors	1.45 (0.94)	.35	-.51*	-.55**	-.33	-.02	-.40	-.21	(.96)		
9. Avoidant Behaviors	2.87 (1.50)	-.06	-.45*	-.37	-.36	-.21	-.29	-.05	.58**	(.88)	
10. Evasive Behaviors	2.46 (1.44)	-.10	-.27	-.30	-.25	.30	.09	.22	.69***	.44*	(.72)

*$p \leq .05$, **$p \leq .01$, ***$p \leq .001$, ****$p \leq .0001$

Note. *Gender* was dummy coded 1 = Male, 0 = Female. Items were measured on a 1-to-9 response scale. MVS was measured on a 1-to-7 response scale. Cronbach's are displayed alphas along the diagonal. Variables 5-8 are Direct Rejection-Related Behaviors. Variables 9-10 are Indirect Rejection-Related Behaviors. Variables 5-10 were measured using 9-point preference scales. HS: Hostile Sexism; BS: Benevolent Sexism; MVS: Mate Value Scale.

Table 2. *Means, Standard deviations, Cronbach's alphas, and zero-order correlations of predictors and outcome variables for the Target Context in Study 1*

Variable	*M (SD)*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Gender	0.36 (0.48)	—									
2. HS	3.95 (1.67)	-.20	(.84)								
3. BS	4.70 (1.38)	-.19	.79****	(.67)							
4. MVS	5.14 (0.94)	.001	.33	.52*	(.83)						
5. Personal Preferences	3.90 (1.88)	-.45*	-.15	-.27	-.19	(.88)					
6. Interpersonal Relationships	6.19 (1.96)	-.75***	-.05	-.09	-.17	.66**	(.81)				
7. Current Relationship Status	4.20 (2.76)	-.47*	-.04	-.09	-.33	.35	.51*	(.89)			
8. Rude/Impolite Behaviors	1.31 (0.78)	.23	-.56**	-.63**	-.43	.14	-.18	-.01	(.93)		
9. Avoidant Behaviors	2.28 (1.35)	-.39	-.17	-.03	-.22	-.04	.19	.34	.31	(.86)	
10. Evasive Behaviors	2.77 (1.60)	-.31	-.29	-.38	-.32	.33	.18	.06	.61**	.42	(.68)

*$p \leq .05$, **$p \leq .01$, ***$p \leq .001$, ****$p \leq .0001$

Note. *Gender* was dummy coded 1 = Male, 0 = Female. Items were measured on a 1-to-9 response scale. MVS was measured on a 1-to-7 response scale. Cronbach's alphas are displayed along the diagonal. Variables 5-8 are Direct Rejection-Related Behaviors. Variables 9-10 are Indirect Rejection-Related Behaviors. Variables 5-10 were measured using 9-point likelihood scales. HS: Hostile Sexism; BS: Benevolent Sexism; MVS: Mate Value Scale.

Table 3. *Results of Regression Analyses using Hostile Sexism, Gender, and Context to predict Endorsement of Explicit Declaration Due to Personal Preferences in Study 1*

	Model 1		***Model 2***		***Model 3***	
Fixed Effects	*b (SE)*	*t*	*b (SE)*	*t*	*b (SE)*	*t*
(Intercept)	3.63 (0.27)	13.34****	3.45 (0.30)	11.54****	3.45 (0.30)	11.53****
Gender	0.42 (0.32)	1.33	0.69 (0.37)	1.84†	0.69 (0.37)	1.83†
Context	0.58 (0.19)	3.14**	0.91 (0.31)	2.94**	0.91 (0.31)	2.91**
HS	0.11 (0.15)	0.72	-0.15 (0.28)	-0.55	-0.13 (0.30)	-0.42
Gender x Context			-0.51 (0.39)	-1.32	-0.51 (0.39)	-1.31
Gender x HS			0.34 (0.32)	1.06	0.30 (0.38)	0.80
Context x HS			0.08 (0.19)	0.43	0.05 (0.32)	0.10
Gender x Context x HS					0.08 (0.39)	0.19
Number of Observations	120		120		120	
AIC	988.48		993.50		995.50	
BIC	1009.37		1024.83		1030.31	

†$p \leq .06$,*$p \leq .05$, **$p \leq .01$, ***$p \leq .001$, ****$p \leq .0001$

Note. Gender was dummy coded 1 = Female, 0 = Male. *Context* was dummy coded 1 = Suitor, 0 = Target. HS was standardized prior to analyses. HS: Hostile Sexism.

Table 4. *Results of Regression Analyses using Benevolent Sexism, Gender, and Context to predict Endorsement of Explicit Declaration Due to Personal Preferences in Study 1*

	Model 1		***Model 2***		***Model 3***	
Fixed Effects	*b (SE)*	*t*	*b (SE)*	*t*	*b (SE)*	*t*
(Intercept)	3.63 (0.27)	13.34****	3.45 (0.30)	11.54****	3.45 (0.30)	11.51****
Gender	0.42 (0.32)	1.33	0.70 (0.37)	1.87†	0.70 (0.37)	1.88†
Context	0.58 (0.19)	3.14**	0.93 (0.31)	3.05**	0.94 (0.31)	3.06**
BS	0.08 (0.15)	0.52	-0.20 (0.28)	-0.72	-0.27 (0.30)	-0.88
Gender x Context			-0.54 (0.38)	-1.42	-0.55 (0.38)	-1.43
Gender x BS			0.15 (0.32)	0.46	0.25 (0.38)	0.67
Context x BS			0.37 (0.18)	2.01*	0.50 (0.31)	1.62
Gender x Context x BS					-0.20 (0.38)	-0.53
Number of Observations	120		120		120	
AIC	988.74		990.92		992.71	
BIC	1009.62		1022.24		1027.52	

†$p \leq .06$,*$p \leq .05$, **$p \leq .01$, ***$p \leq .001$, ****$p \leq .0001$

Note. Gender was dummy coded 1 = Female, 0 = Male. *Context* was dummy coded 1 = Suitor, 0 = Target. BS was standardized prior to analyses. BS: Benevolent Sexism.

Table 5. *Results of Regression Analyses using Hostile Sexism, Gender, and Context to predict Endorsement of Explicit Declaration Due to Interpersonal Relationships in Study 1*

	Model 1		***Model 2***		***Model 3***	
Fixed Effects	*b (SE)*	*t*	*b (SE)*	*t*	*b (SE)*	*t*
(Intercept)	5.34 (0.24)	21.88****	5.17 (0.28)	18.31****	5.18 (0.28)	18.28****
Gender	1.31 (0.28)	4.77****	1.59 (0.35)	4.51****	1.59 (0.35)	4.49****
Context	0.13 (0.21)	0.63	0.50 (0.35)	1.42	0.49 (0.36)	1.39
HS	0.11 (0.13)	0.84	0.14 (0.25)	0.58	0.19 (0.29)	0.67
Gender x Context			-0.58 (0.44)	-1.30	-0.57 (0.44)	-1.28
Gender x HS			-0.26 (0.28)	-0.94	-0.34 (0.36)	-0.95
Context x HS			0.28 (0.21)	1.30	0.18 (0.36)	0.49
Gender x Context x HS					0.16 (0.45)	0.35
Number of Observations	120		120		120	
AIC	985.92		989.62		991.27	
BIC	1006.80		1020.95		1026.08	

*$p \leq .05$, **$p \leq .01$, ***$p \leq .001$, ****$p \leq .0001$

Note. *Gender* was dummy coded 1 = Female, 0 = Male. *Context* was dummy coded 1 = Suitor, 0 = Target.
HS was standardized prior to analyses. HS: Hostile Sexism

Table 6. *Results of Regression Analyses using Benevolent Sexism, Gender, and Context to predict Endorsement of Explicit Declaration Due to Interpersonal Relationships in Study 1*

	Model 1		***Model 2***		***Model 3***	
Fixed Effects	*b (SE)*	*t*	*b (SE)*	*t*	*b (SE)*	*t*
(Intercept)	5.34 (0.24)	21.89****	5.17 (0.28)	18.36****	5.16 (0.28)	18.32****
Gender	1.31 (0.28)	4.78****	1.59 (0.35)	4.53****	1.60 (0.35)	4.56****
Context	0.13 (0.21)	0.63	0.51 (0.35)	1.44	0.53 (0.35)	1.50
BS	0.12 (0.13)	0.87	0.12 (0.25)	0.48	-0.05 (0.28)	-0.15
Gender x Context			-0.58 (0.44)	-1.33	-0.60 (0.44)	-1.36
Gender x BS			-0.29 (0.28)	-1.07	-0.04 (0.35)	-0.13
Context x BS			0.37 (0.21)	1.77†	0.70 (0.35)	1.97*
Gender x Context x BS					-0.50 (0.44)	-1.14
Number of Observations	120		120		120	
AIC	985.89		987.97		988.48	
BIC	1006.77		1019.29		1023.29	

†$p \leq .08$,*$p \leq .05$, **$p \leq .01$, ***$p \leq .001$, ****$p \leq .0001$

Note. *Gender* was dummy coded 1 = Female, 0 = Male. *Context* was dummy coded 1 = Suitor, 0 = Target.
BS was standardized prior to analyses. BS: Benevolent Sexism

Table 7. *Results of Regression Analyses using Hostile Sexism, Gender, and Context to predict Endorsement of Explicit Declaration Due to Current Relationship Status in Study 1*

	Model 1		***Model 2***		***Model 3***	
Fixed Effects	*b (SE)*	*t*	*b (SE)*	*t*	*b (SE)*	*t*
(Intercept)	3.65 (0.32)	11.39****	3.55 (0.38)	9.35****	3.58 (0.38)	9.52****
Gender	0.86 (0.36)	2.42**	1.03 (0.47)	2.17*	1.01 (0.47)	2.15*
Context	2.03 (0.30)	6.80****	2.26 (0.50)	4.52****	2.19 (0.50)	4.45****
HS	0.26 (0.17)	1.46	0.30 (0.33)	0.92	0.78 (0.38)	2.04*
Gender x Context			-0.37 (0.63)	-0.58	-0.32 (0.61)	-0.51
Gender x HS			-0.27 (0.36)	-0.75	-1.01 (0.47)	-2.13*
Context x HS			0.25 (0.30)	0.84	-0.71 (0.50)	-1.41
Gender x Context x HS					1.48 (0.62)	2.38**
Number of Observations	120		120		120	
AIC	1126.24		1130.57		1126.09	
BIC	1147.13		1161.89		1160.90	

*$p \leq .05$, **$p \leq .01$, ***$p \leq .001$, ****$p \leq .0001$

Note. *Gender* was dummy coded 1 = Female, 0 = Male. *Context* was dummy coded 1 = Suitor, 0 = Target. HS was standardized prior to analyses. HS: Hostile Sexism

Table 8. *Results of Regression Analyses using Benevolent Sexism, Gender, and Context to predict Endorsement of Explicit Declaration Due to Current Relationship Status in Study 1*

	Model 1		***Model 2***		***Model 3***	
Fixed Effects	*b (SE)*	*t*	*b (SE)*	*t*	*b (SE)*	*t*
(Intercept)	3.64 (0.32)	11.34****	3.55 (0.38)	9.40****	3.55 (0.38)	9.36****
Gender	0.87 (0.36)	2.44**	1.03 (0.47)	2.19*	1.04 (0.47)	2.19*
Context	2.03 (0.30)	6.80****	2.26 (0.50)	4.52****	2.27 (0.50)	4.52****
BS	0.19 (0.17)	1.10	0.42 (0.32)	1.31	0.35 (0.38)	0.91
Gender x Context			-0.37 (0.63)	-0.58	-0.37 (0.63)	-0.59
Gender x BS			-0.57 (0.36)	-1.61	-0.46 (0.48)	-0.96
Context x BS			0.27 (0.30)	0.91	0.42 (0.51)	0.83
Gender x Context x BS					-0.23 (0.63)	-0.36
Number of Observations	120		120		120	
AIC	1127.17		1129.39		1130.34	
BIC	1148.06		1160.71		1165.15	

*$p \leq .05$, **$p \leq .01$, ***$p \leq .001$, ****$p \leq .0001$

Note. *Gender* was dummy coded 1 = Female, 0 = Male. *Context* was dummy coded 1 = Suitor, 0 = Target. BS was standardized prior to analyses. BS: Benevolent Sexism

Table 9. *Results of Regression Analyses using Hostile Sexism, Gender, and Context to predict Endorsement of Rude/Impolite Behaviors in Study 1*

	Model 1		***Model 2***		***Model 3***	
Fixed Effects	*b (SE)*	*t*	*b (SE)*	*t*	*b (SE)*	*t*
(Intercept)	1.53 (0.12)	12.78****	1.47 (0.13)	11.26****	1.47 (0.13)	11.28****
Gender	-0.34 (0.14)	-2.40**	-0.25 (0.16)	-1.51	-0.25 (0.16)	-1.52
Context	0.14 (0.08)	1.89†	0.26 (0.13)	2.09*	0.25 (0.16)	2.03*
HS	-0.10 (0.07)	-1.42	-0.13 (0.12)	-1.09	-0.08 (0.13)	-0.62
Gender x Context			-0.19 (0.16)	-1.21	-0.18 (0.16)	-1.18
Gender x HS			0.03 (0.14)	0.17	-0.06 (0.16)	-0.34
Context x HS			0.04 (0.08)	0.53	-0.06 (0.13)	-0.50
Gender x Context x HS					0.16 (0.16)	1.01
Number of Observations	120		120		120	
AIC	582.36		593.92		596.75	
BIC	603.25		625.24		631.56	

†$p \leq .06$,*$p \leq .05$, **$p \leq .01$, ***$p \leq .001$, ****$p \leq .0001$
Note. *Gender* was dummy coded 1 = Female, 0 = Male. *Context* was dummy coded 1 = Suitor, 0 = Target.

Table 10. *Results of Regression Analyses using Benevolent Sexism, Gender, and Context to predict Endorsement of Rude/Impolite Behaviors in Study 1*

	Model 1		***Model 2***		***Model 3***	
Fixed Effects	*b (SE)*	*t*	*b (SE)*	*t*	*b (SE)*	*t*
(Intercept)	1.53 (0.12)	12.87****	1.45 (0.13)	11.38****	1.45 (0.13)	11.37****
Gender	-0.34 (0.14)	-2.40**	-0.23 (0.16)	-1.47	-0.23 (0.16)	-1.46
Context	0.14 (0.08)	1.89†	0.26 (0.13)	2.11*	0.26 (0.13)	2.10*
BS	-0.14 (0.07)	-2.08*	-0.35 (0.12)	-2.98**	-0.36 (0.13)	-2.76**
Gender x Context			-0.19 (0.16)	-1.23	-0.19 (0.16)	-1.23
Gender x BS			0.28 (0.14)	1.98*	0.28 (0.16)	1.74
Context x BS			0.07 (0.08)	0.90	0.07 (0.13)	0.56
Gender x Context x BS					-0.01 (0.16)	-0.04
Number of Observations	120		120		120	
AIC	580.11		587.36		591.22	
BIC	601.00		618.68		626.03	

†$p \leq .06$,*$p \leq .05$, **$p \leq .01$, ***$p \leq .001$, ****$p \leq .0001$
Note. *Gender* was dummy coded 1 = Female, 0 = Male. *Context* was dummy coded 1 = Suitor, 0 = Target. BS was standardized prior to analyses. BS: Benevolent Sexism.

Table 11. *Results of Regression Analyses using Hostile Sexism, Gender, and Context to predict Endorsement of Avoidant Behaviors in Study 1*

	Model 1		***Model 2***		***Model 3***	
Fixed Effects	*b (SE)*	*t*	*b (SE)*	*t*	*b (SE)*	*t*
(Intercept)	2.11 (0.20)	10.59****	1.98 (0.22)	9.05****	1.96 (0.22)	9.16****
Gender	0.25 (0.24)	1.08	0.47 (0.27)	1.70	0.46 (0.27)	1.67
Context	0.59 (0.13)	4.52****	0.87 (0.22)	3.98****	0.84 (0.21)	3.91****
HS	-0.06 (0.11)	-0.55	0.04 (0.20)	0.20	0.25 (0.22)	1.13
Gender x Context			-0.43 (0.27)	-1.56	-0.40 (0.27)	-1.51
Gender x HS			-0.04 (0.24)	-0.18	-0.36 (0.27)	-1.32
Context x HS			-0.15 (0.13)	-1.16	-0.57 (0.22)	-2.61**
Gender x Context x HS					0.64 (0.27)	2.37**
Number of Observations	120		120		120	
AIC	835.36		841.35		838.60	
BIC	856.24		872.68		873.41	

*$p \leq .05$, **$p \leq .01$, ***$p \leq .001$, ****$p \leq .0001$

Note. *Gender* was dummy coded 1 = Female, 0 = Male. *Context* was dummy coded 1 = Suitor, 0 = Target.
HS was standardized prior to analyses. HS: Hostile Sexism.

Table 12. *Results of Regression Analyses using Benevolent Sexism, Gender, and Context to predict Endorsement of Avoidant Behaviors in Study 1*

	Model 1		***Model 2***		***Model 3***	
Fixed Effects	*b (SE)*	*t*	*b (SE)*	*t*	*b (SE)*	*t*
(Intercept)	2.12 (0.20)	10.64****	1.98 (0.22)	9.10****	1.99 (0.22)	9.12****
Gender	0.24 (0.24)	1.01	0.45 (0.27)	1.67	0.45 (0.27)	1.65
Context	0.59 (0.13)	4.52****	0.86 (0.22)	3.99****	0.85 (0.22)	3.93****
BS	0.08 (0.11)	0.66	0.06 (0.20)	0.28	0.14 (0.22)	0.63
Gender x Context			-0.42 (0.27)	-1.55	-0.41 (0.27)	-1.52
Gender x BS			0.21 (0.24)	0.89	0.08 (0.27)	0.30
Context x BS			-0.23 (0.13)	-1.81†	-0.40 (0.22)	-1.83†
Gender x Context x BS					0.27 (0.27)	0.95
Number of Observations	120		120		120	
AIC	835.24		838.64		840.52	
BIC	856.12		869.97		875.33	

†$p \leq .07$,*$p \leq .05$, **$p \leq .01$, ***$p \leq .001$, ****$p \leq .0001$

Note. *Gender* was dummy coded 1 = Female, 0 = Male. *Context* was dummy coded 1 = Suitor, 0 = Target.
BS was standardized prior to analyses. BS: Benevolent Sexism.

Table 13. *Results of Regression Analyses using Hostile Sexism, Gender, and Context to predict Endorsement of Evasive Behaviors in Study 1*

	Model 1		***Model 2***		***Model 3***	
Fixed Effects	*b (SE)*	*t*	*b (SE)*	*t*	*b (SE)*	*t*
(Intercept)	2.55 (0.21)	12.11****	2.40 (0.23)	10.28****	2.41 (0.23)	10.33****
Gender	0.34 (0.25)	1.39	0.58 (0.29)	1.98*	0.57 (0.29)	1.96*
Context	-0.31 (0.15)	-2.10*	-0.003 (0.25)	-0.01	-0.03 (0.25)	-0.10
HS	0.01 (0.12)	0.08	0.05 (0.21)	0.21	0.19 (0.24)	0.81
Gender x Context			-0.48 (0.31)	-1.55	-0.47 (0.31)	-1.51
Gender x HS			-0.10 (0.25)	-0.41	-0.33 (0.29)	-1.11
Context x HS			0.06 (0.15)	0.41	-0.23 (0.25)	-0.92
Gender x Context x HS					0.45 (0.31)	1.44
Number of Observations	120		120		120	
AIC	874.55		881.32		881.74	
BIC	895.46		912.64		916.55	

*$p \leq .05$, **$p \leq .01$, ***$p \leq .001$, ****$p \leq .0001$

Note. *Gender* was dummy coded 1 = Female, 0 = Male. *Context* was dummy coded 1 = Suitor, 0 = Target.
HS was standardized prior to analyses. HS: Hostile Sexism.

Table 14. *Results of Regression Analyses using Benevolent Sexism, Gender, and Context to predict Endorsement of Evasive Behaviors in Study 1*

	Model 1		***Model 2***		***Model 3***	
Fixed Effects	*b (SE)*	*t*	*b (SE)*	*t*	*b (SE)*	*t*
(Intercept)	2.54 (0.21)	12.10****	2.37 (0.23)	10.23****	2.38 (0.23)	10.24****
Gender	0.35 (0.25)	1.41	0.60 (0.29)	2.08*	0.60 (0.29)	2.07*
Context	-0.31 (0.15)	-2.10*	0.004 (0.25)	0.02	-0.01 (0.25)	-0.03
BS	-0.05 (0.12)	-0.38	-0.33 (0.21)	-1.55	-0.26 (0.23)	-1.10
Gender x Context			-0.49 (0.31)	-1.60	-0.49 (0.31)	-1.57
Gender x BS			0.30 (0.25)	1.24	0.20 (0.29)	0.68
Context x BS			0.17 (0.15)	1.15	0.03 (0.25)	0.13
Gender x Context x BS					0.21 (0.31)	0.69
Number of Observations	120		120		120	
AIC	874.45		878.71		880.75	
BIC	895.33		910.04		915.55	

*$p \leq .05$, **$p \leq .01$, ***$p \leq .001$, ****$p \leq .0001$

Note. *Gender* was dummy coded 1 = Female, 0 = Male. *Context* was dummy coded 1 = Suitor, 0 = Target.
BS was standardized prior to analyses. BS: Benevolent Sexism.

Table 15. *Means, Standard deviations, Cronbach's alphas, and zero-order correlations of predictors and outcome variables in Study 2*

Variables	*M(SD)*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Participant Gender	0.36 (0.48)	–									
2. HS	3.29 (2.02)	.10	(.93)								
3. BS	4.36 (2.06)	.19**	.39****	(.89)							
4. Agentic Traits	6.64 (1.25)	-.12†	.01	.05	(.90)						
5. Communal Traits	5.46 (1.76)	.02	.01	.11	.06	(.97)					
6. Competency	7.26 (1.22)	-.08	.05	.09	.68****	.45****	(.90)				
7. Warmth	6.07 (1.73)	-.02	.02	.12†	.22***	.86****	.58****	(.92)			
8. Positive Ratings of Target's Work Performance	6.11 (1.28)	.07	-.04	.09	.18**	.27****	.28****	.30****	(.81)		
9. Positive Perceptions of Target as a Coworker	6.57 (1.34)	.01	-.01	.08	.16*	.51****	.41****	.56****	.71****	(.90)	
10. Likelihood to Support the Target	3.75 (1.44)	-.05	-.04	-.14*	-.20**	-.36****	-.33****	-.41****	-.76****	-.79****	(.95)

†$p \leq .08$, *$p \leq .05$, **$p \leq .01$, ***$p \leq .001$, ****$p \leq .0001$

Note. *Participant gender* was dummy coded 1 = Male, 0 = Female. Items were measured on a 1-to-9 response scale. Cronbach's alphas are displayed along the diagonal. HS: Hostile Sexism; BS: Benevolent Sexism

Table 16. *Results of Hierarchical Regression Analyses using Hostile Sexism, Rejection Behavior, and Gender of Target to predict Agentic Traits in Study 2*

	Step 1		Step 2		Step 3		Step 4	
Predictors	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*
(Intercept)	6.50 (0.12)	55.69****	7.17 (0.15)	46.79****	7.07 (0.17)	41.53****	7.08 (0.17)	41.43****
Participant Gender	-0.34 (0.19)	-1.81†	-0.31 (0.17)	-1.81†	-0.31 (0.17)	-1.84†	-0.32 (0.17)	-1.86†
HS	0.03 (0.09)	0.33	0.04 (0.08)	0.52	-0.12 (0.15)	-0.81	-0.16 (0.17)	-0.90
Behavior			-1.20 (0.16)	-7.33****	-1.03 (0.23)	-4.50****	-1.03 (0.23)	-4.47****
Gender			-0.14 (0.16)	-0.84	0.05 (0.24)	0.20	0.05 (0.24)	0.20
HS x Behavior					0.22 (0.17)	1.31	0.29 (0.24)	1.18
HS x Gender					0.11 (0.17)	0.67	0.18 (0.23)	0.76
Behavior x Gender					-0.35 (0.33)	-1.05	-0.35 (0.33)	-1.06
Behavior x Gender x HS							-0.13 (0.33)	-0.39
ΔR^2			0.2104		0.0115		0.0006	
ΔF(df)			27.60 (2, 203)****		1.00 (3,200)		0.15 (1, 199)	
Cumulative R^2	0.01582		0.2262		0.2377		0.2383	
Model F(df)	1.65 (2, 205)		14.84 (4, 203)****		8.91 (7, 200)****		7.78 (8, 199)****	

†$p \leq .07$, *$p \leq .05$, **$p \leq .01$, ***$p \leq .001$, ****$p \leq .0001$

Note. *Participant Gender* and *Target Gender* were dummy coded 1 = Male, 0 = Female.
Rejection Behavior was dummy coded as 1 = Evasive, 0 = Explicit Declaration. HS was standardized prior to analyses.
HS: Hostile Sexism; *Behavior*: Rejection Behavior; *Gender*: Gender of Target.

Table 17. *Results of Hierarchical Regression Analyses using Benevolent Sexism, Rejection Behavior, and Gender of Target to predict Agentic Traits in Study 2*

	Step 1		Step 2		Step 3		Step 4	
Predictors	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*
(Intercept)	6.52 (0.12)	55.66****	7.19 (0.15)	46.81****	7.11 (0.17)	41.78****	7.11 (0.17)	41.84****
Participant Gender	-0.38 (0.19)	-1.96*	-0.34 (0.17)	-2.01*	-0.36 (0.17)	-2.08*	-0.38 (0.17)	-2.18*
BS	0.10 (0.09)	1.08	0.11 (0.08)	1.37	0.12 (0.14)	0.91	0.04 (0.15)	0.28
Behavior			-1.20 (0.16)	-7.36****	-1.02 (0.23)	-4.44****	-1.00 (0.23)	-4.36****
Gender			-0.16 (0.16)	-0.96	0.03 (0.24)	0.12	0.03 (0.23)	0.13
BS x Behavior					0.02 (0.17)	0.10	0.18 (0.22)	0.84
BS x Gender					-0.03 (0.17)	-0.15	0.18 (0.24)	0.73
Behavior x Gender					-0.37 (0.33)	-1.11	-0.37 (0.33)	-1.10
Behavior x Gender x BS							-0.40 (0.36)	-1.18
ΔR^2			0.21135		0.00484		0.0053	
ΔF(df)			27.94 (2, 203)****		0.42 (3, 200)		1.39 (1, 199)	
Cumulative R^2	0.02088		0.2322		0.2371		0.2424	
Model F(df)	2.19 (2, 205)		15.35 (4, 203)****		8.88 (7, 200)****		7.96 (8, 199)****	

†$p \leq .07$, *$p \leq .05$, **$p \leq .01$, ***$p \leq .001$, ****$p \leq .0001$

Note. *Participant Gender* and *Target Gender* were dummy coded 1 = Male, 0 = Female.
Rejection Behavior was dummy coded as 1 = Evasive, 0 = Explicit Declaration. BS was standardized prior to analyses.
BS: Benevolent Sexism; *Behavior*: Rejection Behavior; *Gender*: Gender of Target.

Table 18. *Results of Hierarchical Regression Analyses using Hostile Sexism, Rejection Behavior, and Gender of Target to predict Communal Traits in Study 2*

	Step 1		Step 2		Step 3		Step 4	
Predictors	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*
(Intercept)	5.35 (0.15)	34.72****	5.42 (0.21)	25.92****	5.42 (0.23)	23.48****	5.42 (0.23)	23.46****
Participant Gender	0.06 (0.25)	0.22	-0.01 (0.23)	-0.05	0.01 (0.23)	0.02	-0.02 (0.23)	-0.07
HS	-0.01 (0.12)	-0.08	0.01 (0.11)	0.07	-0.09 (0.20)	-0.45	-0.22 (0.24)	-0.94
Behavior			0.93 (0.22)	4.14****	0.89 (0.31)	2.87**	0.90 (0.31)	2.91**
Gender			-1.07 (0.22)	-4.78****	-1.13 (0.32)	-3.55***	-1.12 (0.32)	-3.53***
HS x Behavior					-0.28 (0.22)	-1.24	-0.03 (0.33)	-0.08
HS x Gender					0.43 (0.22)	1.91*	0.65 (0.31)	2.12*
Behavior x Gender					0.10 (0.46)	0.23	0.10 (0.45)	0.22
Behavior x Gender x HS							-0.48 (0.45)	-1.06
ΔR^2			0.15792		0.02339		0.0046	
ΔF(df)			19.04 (2, 203)****		1.91 (3, 200)		1.12 (1, 199)	
Cumulative R^2	0.0003		0.1582		0.1816		0.1862	
Model F(df)	0.03 (2, 205)		9.54 (4, 203)****		6.34 (7, 200)****		5.69 (8, 199)****	

*$p \leq .05$, **$p \leq .01$, ***$p \leq .001$, ****$p \leq .0001$

Note. *Participant Gender* and *Target Gender* were dummy coded 1 = Male, 0 = Female.

Rejection Behavior was dummy coded as 1 = Evasive, 0 = Explicit Declaration. HS was standardized prior to analyses.

HS: Hostile Sexism; *Behavior*: Rejection Behavior; *Gender*: Gender of Target.

Table 19. *Results of Hierarchical Regression Analyses using Benevolent Sexism, Rejection Behavior, and Gender of Target to predict Communal Traits in Study 2*

	Step 1		Step 2		Step 3		Step 4	
Predictors	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*
(Intercept)	5.38 (0.15)	34.95****	5.48 (0.21)	26.35****	5.48 (0.23)	23.80****	5.49 (0.23)	23.88****
Participant Gender	-0.02 (0.25)	-0.10	-0.11 (0.23)	-0.47	-0.11 (0.23)	-0.47	-0.14 (0.23)	-0.61
BS	0.19 (0.12)	1.58	0.25 (0.11)	2.20*	0.23 (0.18)	1.26	0.10 (0.21)	0.48
Behavior			0.92 (0.22)	4.18****	0.89 (0.31)	2.87**	0.92 (0.31)	2.97**
Gender			-1.12 (0.22)	-5.03****	-1.13 (0.32)	-3.57***	-1.13 (0.32)	-3.57***
BS x Behavior					-0.14 (0.22)	-0.63	0.14 (0.29)	0.46
BS x Gender					0.21 (0.23)	0.92	0.54 (0.32)	1.69
Behavior x Gender					0.04 (0.45)	0.08	0.04 (0.45)	0.10
Behavior x Gender x BS							-0.66 (0.45)	-1.46
ΔR^2			0.16552		0.00501		0.00865	
ΔF(df)			20.43 (2, 203)****		0.41 (3, 200)		2.13 (1, 199)	
Cumulative R^2	0.01226		0.1778		0.1828		0.1914	
Model F(df)	1.27 (2, 205)		10.97 (4, 203)****		6.39 (7, 200)****		5.89 (8, 199)****	

*$p \leq .05$, **$p \leq .01$, ***$p \leq .001$, ****$p \leq .0001$

Note. *Participant Gender* and *Target Gender* were dummy coded 1 = Male, 0 = Female.

Rejection Behavior was dummy coded as 1 = Evasive, 0 = Explicit Declaration. BS was standardized prior to analyses.

BS: Benevolent Sexism; *Behavior*: Rejection Behavior; *Gender*: Gender of Target.

Table 20. *Results of Hierarchical Regression Analyses using Hostile Sexism, Rejection Behavior, and Gender of Target to predict Competency in Study 2*

	Step 1		Step 2		Step 3		Step 4	
Predictors	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*
(Intercept)	7.06 (0.11)	63.14****	7.54 (0.16)	47.62****	7.47 (0.18)	42.38****	7.47 (0.18)	42.27****
Participant Gender	-0.22 (0.18)	-1.23	-0.23 (0.18)	-1.34	-0.23 (0.18)	-1.32	-0.23 (0.18)	-1.35
HS	0.07 (0.09)	0.77	0.09 (0.09)	1.00	-0.03 (0.15)	-0.18	-0.06 (0.18)	-0.36
Behavior			-0.32 (0.17)	-1.91*	-0.21 (0.24)	-0.88	-0.21 (0.24)	-0.87
Gender			-0.64 (0.17	-3.78***	-0.53 (0.24)	-2.18*	-0.53 (0.24)	-2.17*
HS x Behavior					-0.02 (0.17)	-0.14	0.05 (0.25)	0.19
HS x Gender					0.23 (0.17)	1.34	0.30 (0.24)	1.24
Behavior x Gender					-0.22 (0.34)	-0.64	-0.22 (0.34)	-0.64
Behavior x Gender x HS							-0.14 (0.34)	-0.39
ΔR^2			0.083458		0.01005		0.00069	
ΔF(df)			9.34 (2, 203)****		0.75 (3, 200)		0.15 (1, 199)	
Cumulative R^2	0.009283		0.09274		0.1028		0.1035	
Model F(df)	0.96 (2, 205)		5.19 (4, 203)***		3.27 (7, 200)**		2.87 (8, 199)**	

*$p \leq .05$, **$p \leq .01$, ***$p \leq .001$, ****$p \leq .0001$

Note. *Participant Gender* and *Target Gender* were dummy coded 1 = Male, 0 = Female.

Rejection Behavior was dummy coded as 1 = Evasive, 0 = Explicit Declaration. HS was standardized prior to analyses.

HS: Hostile Sexism; *Behavior*: Rejection Behavior; *Gender*: Gender of Target.

Table 21. *Results of Hierarchical Regression Analyses using Benevolent Sexism, Rejection Behavior, and Gender of Target to predict Competency in Study 2*

	Step 1		Step 2		Step 3		Step 4	
Predictors	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*
(Intercept)	7.07 (0.11)	63.23****	7.57 (0.16)	47.86****	7.51 (0.18)	42.83****	7.51 (0.18)	42.87****
Participant Gender	-0.26 (0.18)	-1.44	-0.29 (0.18)	-1.62	-0.30 (0.18)	-1.68	-0.32 (0.18)	-1.79
BS	0.14 (0.09)	1.55	0.18 (0.09)	2.03*	0.15 (0.14)	1.03	0.07 (0.16)	0.42
Behavior			-0.32 (0.17)	-1.92*	-0.19 (0.24)	-0.82	-0.18 (0.24)	-0.74
Gender			-0.67 (0.17)	-3.96****	-0.53 (0.24)	-2.19*	-0.53 (0.24)	-2.19*
BS x Behavior					-0.01 (0.17)	-0.05	0.15 (0.22)	0.69
BS x Gender					0.10 (0.17)	0.55	0.29 (0.25)	1.19
Behavior x Gender					-0.28 (0.34)	-0.81	-0.27 (0.34)	-0.80
Behavior x Gender x BS							-0.39 (0.35)	-1.12
ΔR^2			0.08851		0.00424		0.00557	
ΔF(df)			10.05 (2, 203)****		0.32 (3, 200)		1.26 (1, 199)	
Cumulative R^2	0.01797		0.1065		0.1107		0.1163	
Model F(df)	1.88 (2, 205)		6.05 (4, 203)****		3.56 (7, 200)***		3.27 (8, 199)***	

*$p \leq .05$, **$p \leq .01$, ***$p \leq .001$, ****$p \leq .0001$

Note. *Participant Gender* and *Target Gender* were dummy coded 1 = Male, 0 = Female.

Rejection Behavior was dummy coded as 1 = Evasive, 0 = Explicit Declaration. BS was standardized prior to analyses.

BS: Benevolent Sexism; *Behavior*: Rejection Behavior; *Gender*: Gender of Target.

Table 22. *Results of Hierarchical Regression Analyses using Hostile Sexism, Rejection Behavior, and Gender of Target to predict Warmth in Study 2*

	Step 1		Step 2		Step 3		Step 4	
Predictors	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*
(Intercept)	6.08 (0.14)	42.20****	6.29 (0.20)	31.28****	6.25 (0.22)	28.14****	6.25 (0.22)	28.23****
Participant Gender	-0.08 (0.23)	-0.36	-0.13 (0.22)	-0.60	-0.12 (0.22)	-0.54	-0.15 (0.22)	-0.68
HS	0.03 (0.11)	0.25	0.05 (0.11)	0.43	-0.11 (0.19)	-0.55	-0.30 (0.23)	-1.34
Behavior			0.53 (0.22)	2.47**	0.58 (0.30)	1.95*	0.60 (0.30)	2.02*
Gender			-0.96 (0.22)	-4.45****	-0.93 (0.31)	-3.03**	-0.92 (0.31)	-3.01**
HS x Behavior					-0.19 (0.22)	-0.90	0.19 (0.31)	0.60
HS x Gender					0.46 (0.22)	2.11*	0.80 (0.30)	2.67**
Behavior x Gender					-0.07 (0.43)	-0.16	-0.07 (0.43)	-0.17
Behavior x Gender x HS							-0.72 (0.43)	-1.67†
ΔR^2			0.10893		0.02461		0.01197	
ΔF(df)			12.42 (2, 203)****		1.90 (3, 200)		2.79 (1, 199)	
Cumulative R^2	0.00084		0.1098		0.1344		0.1464	
Model F(df)	0.09 (2, 205)		6.26 (4, 203)****		4.44 (7, 200)****		4.27 (8, 199)***	

†$p \leq .09$, *$p \leq .05$, **$p \leq .01$, ***$p \leq .001$, ****$p \leq .0001$

Note. *Participant Gender* and *Target Gender* were dummy coded 1 = Male, 0 = Female.

Rejection Behavior was dummy coded as 1 = Evasive, 0 = Explicit Declaration. HS was standardized prior to analyses.

HS: Hostile Sexism; *Behavior*: Rejection Behavior; *Gender*: Gender of Target.

Table 23. *Results of Hierarchical Regression Analyses using Benevolent Sexism, Rejection Behavior, and Gender of Target to predict Warmth in Study 2*

	Step 1		Step 2		Step 3		Step 4	
Predictors	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*
(Intercept)	6.10 (0.14)	42.50****	6.35 (0.20)	31.76****	6.31 (0.22)	28.56****	6.32 (0.22)	28.67****
Participant Gender	-0.16 (0.24)	-0.67	-0.22 (0.22)	-1.01	-0.23 (0.22)	-1.04	-0.27 (0.22)	-1.18
BS	0.20 (0.12)	1.77†	0.25 (0.11)	2.34*	0.23 (0.18)	1.32	0.09 (0.20)	0.48
Behavior			0.53 (0.21)	2.50**	0.58 (0.30)	1.94**	0.61 (0.30)	2.05*
Gender			-1.00 (0.21)	-4.70****	-0.93 (0.31)	-3.06**	-0.93 (0.30)	-3.06**
BS x Behavior					-0.16 (0.22)	-0.73	0.13 (0.28)	0.47
BS x Gender					0.24 (0.22)	1.12	0.59 (0.31)	1.92*
Behavior x Gender					-0.13 (0.43)	-0.30	-0.13 (0.43)	-0.29
Behavior x Gender x BS							-0.69 (0.44)	-1.59
ΔR^2			0.11663		0.0081		0.01073	
ΔF(df)			13.64 (2, 203)****		0.63 (3, 200)		2.52 (1, 199)	
Cumulative R^2	0.01564		0.1323		0.1403		0.1511	
Model F(df)	1.63 (2, 205)		7.74 (4, 203)****		4.66 (7, 200)****		4.43 (8, 199)****	

†$p \leq .07$,*$p \leq .05$, **$p \leq .01$, ***$p \leq .001$, ****$p \leq .0001$

Note. *Participant Gender* and *Target Gender* were dummy coded 1 = Male, 0 = Female.

Rejection Behavior was dummy coded as 1 = Evasive, 0 = Explicit Declaration. BS was standardized prior to analyses.

BS: Benevolent Sexism; *Behavior*: Rejection Behavior; *Gender*: Gender of Target.

Table 24. *Results of Hierarchical Regression Analyses using Hostile Sexism, Rejection Behavior, and Gender of Target to predict Positive Ratings of the Target's Work Performance in Study 2*

	Step 1		Step 2		Step 3		Step 4	
Predictors	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*
(Intercept)	6.04 (0.11)	53.58****	6.27 (0.17)	38.04****	6.36 (0.18)	34.87****	6.36 (0.18)	34.88****
Participant Gender	0.19 (0.18)	1.03	0.18 (0.18)	0.98	0.21 (0.18)	1.14	0.22 (0.18)	1.22
HS	-0.06 (0.09)	-0.67	-0.05 (0.09)	-0.57	-0.27 (0.16)	-1.71	-0.18 (0.19)	-0.96
Behavior			-0.08 (0.18)	-0.43	-0.31 (0.25)	-1.26	-0.32 (0.25)	-1.29
Gender			-0.38 (0.18)	-2.17*	-0.63 (0.25)	-2.50**	-0.63 (0.25)	-2.52**
HS x Behavior					0.17 (0.18)	0.94	-0.02 (0.26)	-0.07
HS x Gender					0.28 (0.18)	1.55	0.11 (0.24)	0.45
Behavior x Gender					0.50 (0.35)	1.41	0.50 (0.35)	1.42
Behavior x Gender x HS							0.35 (0.35)	0.99
ΔR^2			0.0238		0.0247		0.0046	
ΔF(df)			2.49 (2, 203)		1.74 (3, 200)		0.97 (1, 199)	
Cumulative R^2	0.0067		0.0305		0.0551		0.0597	
Model F(df)	0.69 (2, 205)		1.59 (4, 203)		1.67 (7, 200)		1.58 (8, 199)	

*$p \leq .05$, **$p \leq .01$, ***$p \leq .001$, ****$p \leq .0001$

Note. *Participant Gender* and *Target Gender* were dummy coded 1 = Male, 0 = Female.

Rejection Behavior was dummy coded as 1 = Evasive, 0 = Explicit Declaration. HS was standardized prior to analyses.

HS: Hostile Sexism; *Behavior*: Rejection Behavior; *Gender*: Gender of Target.

Table 25. *Results of Hierarchical Regression Analyses using Benevolent Sexism, Rejection Behavior, and Gender of Target to predict Positive Ratings of the Target's Work Performance in Study 2*

	Step 1		Step 2		Step 3		Step 4	
Predictors	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*
(Intercept)	6.06 (0.11)	53.60****	6.31 (0.17)	38.16****	6.41 (0.18)	35.18****	6.41 (0.18)	35.09****
Participant Gender	0.14 (0.19)	0.73	0.12 (0.18)	0.64	0.14 (0.19)	0.75	0.14 (0.19)	0.74
BS	0.10 (0.09)	1.13	0.12 (0.09)	1.38	0.12 (0.15)	0.85	0.12 (0.16)	0.75
Behavior			-0.08 (0.18)	-0.45	-0.33 (0.25)	-1.36	-0.33 (0.25)	-1.35
Gender			-0.41 (0.18)	-2.33*	-0.66 (0.25)	-2.64**	-0.66 (0.25)	-2.63**
BS x Behavior					-0.13 (0.18)	-0.74	-0.13 (0.23)	-0.54
BS x Gender					0.13 (0.18)	0.75	0.14 (0.26)	0.54
Behavior x Gender					0.51 (0.35)	1.43	0.51 (0.36)	1.43
Behavior x Gender x BS							-0.01 (0.36)	-0.03
ΔR^2			0.0273		0.0143		3.34E-06	
ΔF(df)			2.88 (2, 203)*		1.00 (3, 200)		0.001 (1, 199)	
Cumulative R^2	0.0106		0.03787		0.0521		0.0521	
Model F(df)	1.10 (2, 205)		2.00 (4, 203)		1.57 (7, 200)		1.37 (8, 199)	

*$p \leq .05$, **$p \leq .01$, ***$p \leq .001$, ****$p \leq .0001$

Note. *Participant Gender* and *Target Gender* were dummy coded 1 = Male, 0 = Female.

Rejection Behavior was dummy coded as 1 = Evasive, 0 = Explicit Declaration. BS was standardized prior to analyses.

BS: Benevolent Sexism; *Behavior*: Rejection Behavior; *Gender*: Gender of Target.

Table 26. *Results of Hierarchical Regression Analyses using Hostile Sexism, Rejection Behavior, and Gender of Target to predict Positive Perceptions of the Target as a Coworker in Study 2*

	Step 1		Step 2		Step 3		Step 4	
Predictors	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*
(Intercept)	6.57 (0.12)	55.29****	6.69 (0.17)	39.24****	6.87 (0.19)	36.75****	6.87 (0.19)	36.67****
Participant Gender	-0.004 (0.19)	-0.02	-0.03 (0.19)	-0.18	0.001 (0.19)	0.01	-0.01 (0.19)	-0.05
HS	-0.02 (0.09)	-0.17	-0.01 (0.09)	-0.06	-0.05 (0.16)	-0.29	-0.11 (0.19)	-0.57
Behavior			0.33 (0.18)	1.82†	-0.06 (0.25)	-0.26	-0.06 (0.25)	-0.23
Gender			-0.58 (0.18)	-3.16***	-1.01 (0.26)	-3.92****	-1.01 (0.26)	-3.90****
HS x Behavior					-0.20 (0.18)	-1.13	-0.08 (0.27)	-0.32
HS x Gender					0.27 (0.18)	1.48	0.38 (0.25)	1.50
Behavior x Gender					0.84 (0.36)	2.31*	0.83 (0.36)	2.31*
Behavior x Gender x HS							-0.23 (0.37)	-0.62
ΔR^2			0.0592		0.0409		0.0018	
ΔF(df)			6.39 (2, 203)**		3.03 (3, 200)*		0.39 (1, 199)	
Cumulative R^2	0.0002		0.0594		0.1002		0.1020	
Model F(df)	0.02 (2, 205)		3.20 (4, 203)**		3.18 (7, 200)**		2.83 (8, 199)**	

†$p \leq .07$, *$p \leq .05$, **$p \leq .01$, ***$p \leq .001$, ****$p \leq .0001$

Note. *Participant Gender* and *Target Gender* were dummy coded 1 = Male, 0 = Female.

Rejection Behavior was dummy coded as 1 = Evasive, 0 = Explicit Declaration. HS was standardized prior to analyses.

HS: Hostile Sexism; *Behavior*: Rejection Behavior; *Gender*: Gender of Target.

Table 27. *Results of Hierarchical Regression Analyses using Benevolent Sexism, Rejection Behavior, and Gender of Target to predict Positive Perceptions of the Target as a Coworker in Study 2*

	Step 1		Step 2		Step 3		Step 4	
Predictors	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*
(Intercept)	6.59 (0.12)	55.36****	6.73 (0.17)	39.43****	6.90 (0.19)	37.09****	6.90 (0.19)	37.20****
Participant Gender	-0.05 (0.20)	-0.27	-0.09 (0.19)	-0.49	-0.06 (0.19)	-0.33	-0.09 (0.19)	-0.46
BS	0.12 (0.10)	1.21	0.15 (0.09)	1.57	0.11 (0.15)	0.76	0.01 (0.17)	0.05
Behavior			0.33 (0.18)	1.82†	-0.08 (0.25)	-0.32	-0.06 (0.25)	-0.23
Gender			-0.61 (0.18)	-3.33***	-1.01 (0.26)	-3.95****	-1.01 (0.26)	-3.95****
BS x Behavior					-0.18 (0.18)	-1.00	0.04 (0.24)	0.15
BS x Gender					0.26 (0.18)	1.42	0.52 (0.26)	2.01*
Behavior x Gender					0.81 (0.36)	2.25*	0.82 (0.36)	2.26*
Behavior x Gender x BS							-0.52 (0.37)	-1.41
ΔR^2			0.0635		0.0348		0.0089	
ΔF(df)			6.94 (2, 203)***		2.60 (3, 200)*		1.99 (1, 199)	
Cumulative R^2	0.0071		0.0706		0.1054		0.1143	
Model F(df)	0.73 (2, 205)		3.86 (4, 203)**		3.37 (7, 200)**		3.21 (8, 199)***	

†p $\leq .07$, *$p \leq .05$, **$p \leq .01$, ***$p \leq .001$, ****$p \leq .0001$

Note. *Participant Gender* and *Target Gender* were dummy coded 1 = Male, 0 = Female.

Rejection Behavior was dummy coded as 1 = Evasive, 0 = Explicit Declaration. BS was standardized prior to analyses.

BS: Benevolent Sexism; *Behavior*: Rejection Behavior; *Gender*: Gender of Target.

Table 28. *Results of Hierarchical Regression Analyses using Hostile Sexism, Rejection Behavior, and Gender of Target to predict Likelihood to Support the Target in Study 2*

	Step 1		Step 2		Step 3		Step 4	
Predictors	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*
(Intercept)	3.79 (0.13)	29.79****	3.57 (0.19)	19.18****	3.46 (0.21)	16.75****	3.46 (0.21)	16.71****
Participant Gender	-0.12 (0.21)	-0.57	-0.10 (0.21)	-0.50	-0.13 (0.21)	-0.61	-0.12 (0.21)	-0.60
HS	-0.05 (0.10)	-0.48	-0.06 (0.10)	-0.58	-0.04 (0.18)	-0.24	-0.04 (0.21)	-0.17
Behavior			-0.004 (0.20)	-0.02	0.23 (0.28)	0.83	0.23 (0.28)	0.83
Gender			0.45 (0.20)	2.27*	0.71 (0.29)	2.50**	0.71 (0.29)	2.50**
HS x Behavior					0.18 (0.20)	0.91	0.17 (0.29)	0.58
HS x Gender					-0.20 (0.20)	-0.98	-0.21 (0.28)	-0.75
Behavior x Gender					-0.50 (0.40)	-1.25	-0.50 (0.40)	-1.25
Behavior x Gender x HS							0.03 (0.40)	0.07
ΔR^2			0.0247		0.0167		0.00002	
ΔF(df)			2.58 (2, 203)†		1.16 (3, 200)		0.01 (1, 199)	
Cumulative R^2	0.00303		0.0278		0.0444		0.04443	
Model F(df)	0.31 (2, 205)		1.45 (4, 203)		1.33 (7, 200)		1.16 (8, 199)	

†$p \leq .07$, *$p \leq .05$, **$p \leq .01$, ***$p \leq .001$, ****$p \leq .0001$

Note. *Participant Gender* and *Target Gender* were dummy coded 1 = Male, 0 = Female.
Rejection Behavior was dummy coded as 1 = Evasive, 0 = Explicit Declaration. HS was standardized prior to analyses.
HS: Hostile Sexism; *Behavior*: Rejection Behavior; *Gender*: Gender of Target.

Table 29. *Results of Hierarchical Regression Analyses using Benevolent Sexism, Rejection Behavior, and Gender of Target to predict Likelihood to Support the Target in Study 2*

	Step 1		Step 2		Step 3		Step 4	
Predictors	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*
(Intercept)	3.77 (0.13)	29.68****	3.52 (0.19)	19.00****	3.43 (0.20)	16.81****	3.43 (0.20)	16.80****
Participant Gender	-0.05 (0.21)	-0.26	-0.03 (0.21)	-0.15	-0.05 (0.21)	-0.20	-0.06 (0.21)	-0.27
BS	-0.19 (0.10)	-1.87†	-0.22 (0.10)	-2.13*	-0.10 (0.16)	-0.60	-0.16 (0.18)	-0.89
Behavior			-0.004 (0.20)	-0.02	0.22 (0.28)	0.78	0.23 (0.28)	0.83
Gender			0.49 (0.20)	2.48**	0.70 (0.28)	2.50**	0.71 (0.28)	2.51**
BS x Behavior					0.03 (0.20)	0.16	0.17 (0.26)	0.64
BS x Gender					-0.30 (0.20)	-1.50	-0.14 (0.29)	-0.48
Behavior x Gender					-0.42 (0.40)	-1.05	-0.41 (0.40)	-1.04
Behavior x Gender x BS							-0.32 (0.40)	-0.80
ΔR^2			0.0288		0.01604		0.0030	
ΔF(df)			3.07 (2, 203)*		1.14 (3, 200)		0.64 (1, 199)	
Cumulative R^2	0.0187		0.0475		0.0635		0.0665	
Model F(df)	1.95 (2, 205)		2.53 (4, 203)*		1.94 (7, 200)†		1.77 (8, 199)	

†$p \leq .06$, *$p \leq .05$, **$p \leq .01$, ***$p \leq .001$, ****$p \leq .0001$

Note. *Participant Gender* and *Target Gender* were dummy coded 1 = Male, 0 = Female.
Rejection Behavior was dummy coded as 1 = Evasive, 0 = Explicit Declaration. HS was standardized prior to analyses.
HS: Hostile Sexism; *Behavior*: Rejection Behavior; *Gender*: Gender of Target.

Table 30. *Means, Standard deviations, Cronbach's alphas, and zero-order correlations of predictors and outcome variables in Study 3*

Variable	*M(SD)*	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11
1. HS	4.22 (2.15)	(.93)										
2. BS	4.59 (1.73)	.14	(.82)									
3. IUS	5.10 (1.56)	.18*	.43**	(.91)								
4. MVS	4.59 (1.26)	.22*	.24*	-.02	(.91)							
5. Agentic Traits	6.32 (1.30)	.05	.22*	.13	.12	(.88)						
6. Communal Traits	5.50 (1.67)	-.17*	.12	.07	-.01	.10	(.96)					
7. Competency	7.00 (1.35)	-.05	.19*	.10	.11	.68****	.46****	(.94)				
8. Warmth	6.03 (1.60)	-.16*	.18*	.14	-.01	.24*	.90****	.57****	(.95)			
9. Positive Perceptions of Target as a Potential Manager	6.39 (1.52)	-.16*	.17*	.02	.04	.17*	.44****	.39****	.48****	(.94)		
10. Positive Ratings of the Target's Work Performance	6.41 (1.50)	-.08	.23*	.07	.06	.21*	.44****	.43****	.47****	.72****	(.92)	
11. Likelihood to Support the Target	3.88 (1.83)	.17*	-.32*	-.08	-.08	-.13	-.42****	-.32***	-.46****	-.73****	-.85****	(.94)

*$p \leq .05$, **$p \leq .01$, ***$p \leq .001$, ****$p \leq .0001$

Note. Items were measured on a 1-to-9 response scale. Cronbach's alphas are displayed along the diagonal. HS: Hostile Sexism; BS: Benevolent Sexism; MVS: Mate Value Scale; IUS: Intolerance of Uncertainty Scale.

Table 31. *Results of Hierarchical Regression Analyses using Hostile Sexism, Rejection Behavior, and Mitigated Speech to predict Agentic Traits in Study 3*

	Step 1		Step 2		Step 3		Step 4	
Predictors	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*
(Intercept)	6.33 (0.10)	64.14****	6.98 (0.16)	43.12****	7.06 (0.19)	36.99****	7.06 (0.19)	36.69****
HS	0.06 (0.10)	0.65	0.01 (0.09)	0.14	0.06 (0.17)	0.34	0.05 (0.19)	0.24
Behavior			-0.81 (0.19)	-4.37****	-0.97 (0.27)	-3.62***	-0.98 (0.27)	-3.60***
Speech			-0.47 (0.19)	-2.50**	-0.63 (0.27)	-2.33*	-0.63 (0.27)	-2.32*
Behavior x Speech					0.32 (0.38)	0.85	0.32 (0.38)	0.85
Behavior x HS					-0.03 (0.19)	-0.17	-0.01 (0.28)	-0.03
Speech x HS					-0.06 (0.19)	-0.30	-0.04 (0.26)	-0.14
Behavior x Speech x HS							-0.05 (0.38)	-0.12
ΔR^2			0.1322		0.0047		0.0001	
ΔF(df)			13.06 (2, 171)****		0.31 (3, 168)		0.014 (1, 167)	
Cumulative R^2	0.0024		0.1346		0.1393		0.1394	
Model F(df)	0.42 (1, 173)		8.87 (3, 171)****		4.53 (6, 168)***		3.86 (7, 167)***	

*$p \leq .05$, **$p \leq .01$, ***$p \leq .001$, ****$p \leq .0001$

Note. Behavior was dummy coded as 1 = Evasive, 0 = Explicit Declaration. *Speech* was dummy coded as 1 = With, 0 = Without. HS was standardized prior to analyses. HS: Hostile Sexism; *Behavior*: Rejection Behavior; *Speech*: Mitigated Speech.

Table 32. *Results of Hierarchical Regression Analyses using Benevolent Sexism, Rejection Behavior, and Mitigated Speech to predict Agentic Traits in Study 3*

	Step 1		Step 2		Step 3		Step 4	
Predictors	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*
(Intercept)	6.33 (0.10)	65.75****	6.95 (0.16)	44.01****	7.01 (0.18)	38.19****	7.02 (0.18)	38.23****
BS	0.29 (0.10)	3.04**	0.26 (0.09)	2.87**	0.43 (0.15)	2.84**	0.34 (0.17)	1.94*
Behavior			-0.81 (0.18)	-4.48****	-0.95 (0.26)	-3.65***	-0.98 (0.26)	-3.75***
Speech			-0.40 (0.18)	-2.18*	-0.54 (0.26)	-2.08*	-0.54 (0.26)	-2.08*
Behavior x Speech					0.28 (0.37)	0.75	0.27 (0.37)	0.75
Behavior x BS					-0.21 (0.18)	-1.17	-0.01 (0.25)	-0.05
Speech x BS					-0.15 (0.18)	-0.83	0.05 (0.25)	0.20
Behavior x Speech x BS							-0.43 (0.37)	-1.18
ΔR^2			0.1237		0.0139		0.0067	
ΔF(df)			12.81 (2, 171)****		0.96 (3, 168)		1.39 (1, 167)	
Cumulative R^2	0.0507		0.1744		0.1882		0.1949	
Model F(df)	9.24 (1, 173)***		12.04 (3, 171)****		6.49 (6, 168)****		5.78 (7, 167)****	

*$p \leq .05$, **$p \leq .01$, ***$p \leq .001$, ****$p \leq .0001$

Note. Behavior was dummy coded as 1 = Evasive, 0 = Explicit Declaration. *Speech* was dummy coded as 1 = With, 0 = Without. BS was standardized prior to analyses. BS: Benevolent Sexism; *Behavior*: Rejection Behavior; *Speech*: Mitigated Speech.

Table 33. *Results of Hierarchical Regression Analyses using Hostile Sexism, Rejection Behavior, and Mitigated Speech to predict Communal Traits in Study 3*

	Step 1		Step 2		Step 3		Step 4	
Predictors	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*
(Intercept)	5.50 (0.12)	44.05****	4.91 (0.21)	23.04****	4.57 (0.25)	18.54****	4.54 (0.25)	18.33****
HS	-0.30 (0.13)	-2.36**	-0.24 (0.12)	-1.97*	-0.02 (0.21)	-0.07	0.10 (0.25)	0.39
Behavior			0.57 (0.24)	2.33*	1.22 (0.35)	3.51***	1.25 (0.35)	3.58***
Speech			0.58 (0.25)	2.36*	1.24 (0.35)	3.53***	1.25 (0.35)	3.57***
Behavior x Speech					-1.26 (0.49)	-2.58**	-1.26 (0.49)	-2.59**
Behavior x HS					-0.27 (0.24)	-1.08	-0.51 (0.36)	-1.40
Speech x HS					-0.17 (0.25)	-0.71	-0.38 (0.34)	-1.14
Behavior x Speech x HS							0.44 (0.49)	0.90
ΔR^2			0.0603		0.0393		0.0042	
ΔF(df)			5.67 (2, 171)**		2.53 (3, 168)†		0.82 (1, 167)	
Cumulative R^2	0.0312		0.0915		0.1308		0.1350	
Model F(df)	5.88 (1, 173)**		5.74 (3, 171)***		4.21 (6, 168)***		3.72 (7, 167)***	

†$p \leq .06$, *$p \leq .05$, **$p \leq .01$, ***$p \leq .001$, ****$p \leq .0001$

Note. *Behavior* was dummy coded as 1 = Evasive, 0 = Explicit Declaration. *Speech* was dummy coded as 1 = With, 0 = Without. HS was standardized prior to analyses. HS: Hostile Sexism; *Behavior*: Rejection Behavior; *Speech*: Mitigated Speech.

Table 34. *Results of Hierarchical Regression Analyses using Benevolent Sexism, Rejection Behavior, and Mitigated Speech to predict Communal Traits in Study 3*

	Step 1		Step 2		Step 3		Step 4	
Predictors	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*
(Intercept)	5.50 (0.13)	43.69****	4.83 (0.21)	22.74****	4.51 (0.24)	18.67****	4.51 (0.24)	18.61****
BS	0.21 (0.13)	1.63	0.26 (0.12)	2.09*	0.38 (0.19)	2.00*	0.36 (0.23)	1.56
Behavior			0.59 (0.24)	2.43*	1.25 (0.33)	3.45***	1.17 (0.35)	3.39***
Speech			0.71 (0.25)	2.91**	1.24 (0.33)	3.80****	1.31 (0.35)	3.79***
Behavior x Speech					-1.16 (0.46)	-2.41**	-1.16 (0.48)	-2.40**
Behavior x BS					0.19 (0.23)	0.72	0.27 (0.33)	0.80
Speech x BS					-0.39 (0.23)	-2.00*	-0.39 (0.33)	-1.18
Behavior x Speech x BS							-0.20 (0.48)	-0.40
ΔR^2			0.0788		0.0555		0.0008	
ΔF(df)			7.44 (2, 171)***		3.65 (3, 168)**		0.16 (1, 167)	
Cumulative R^2	0.0151		0.0939		0.1493		0.1502	
Model F(df)	2.64 (1, 173)		5.91 (3, 171)***		4.92 (6, 168)****		4.22 (7, 167)***	

*$p \leq .05$, **$p \leq .01$, ***$p \leq .001$, ****$p \leq .0001$

Note. *Behavior* was dummy coded as 1 = Evasive, 0 = Explicit Declaration. *Speech* was dummy coded as 1 = With, 0 = Without. BS was standardized prior to analyses. BS: Benevolent Sexism; *Behavior*: Rejection Behavior; *Speech*: Mitigated Speech.

Table 35. *Results of Hierarchical Regression Analyses using Hostile Sexism, Rejection Behavior, and Mitigated Speech to predict Perceptions of Competency in Study 3*

	Step 1		Step 2		Step 3		Step 4	
Predictors	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*
(Intercept)	6.99 (0.10)	68.51****	7.20 (0.18)	40.37****	7.17 (0.21)	34.24****	7.17 (0.21)	33.95****
HS	-0.07 (0.10)	-0.64	0.08 (0.10)	-0.78	0.07 (0.18)	0.38	0.06 (0.21)	0.29
Behavior			-0.30 (0.20)	-1.45	-0.27 (0.30)	-0.91	-0.27 (0.30)	-0.91
Speech			-0.13 (0.21)	-0.61	-0.11 (0.30)	-0.36	-0.11 (0.30)	-0.36
Behavior x Speech					-0.03 (0.41)	-0.08	-0.03 (0.41)	-0.08
Behavior x HS					0.05 (0.21)	0.24	0.07 (0.31)	0.22
Speech x HS					-0.32 (0.21)	-1.53	-0.30 (0.29)	-1.06
Behavior x Speech x HS							-0.03 (0.42)	-0.08
ΔR^2			0.0146		0.0138		0.00004	
ΔF(df)			1.26 (2, 171)		0.80 (3, 168)		0.006 (1, 167)	
Cumulative R^2	0.0023		0.0169		0.0306		0.0307	
Model F(df)	0.41 (1, 173)		0.98 (3, 171)		0.85 (6, 168)		0.76 (7, 167)	

*$p \leq .05$, **$p \leq .01$, ***$p \leq .001$, ****$p \leq .0001$

Note. *Behavior* was dummy coded as 1 = Evasive, 0 = Explicit Declaration. *Speech* was dummy coded as 1 = With, 0 = Without. HS was standardized prior to analyses. HS: Hostile Sexism; *Behavior*: Rejection Behavior; *Speech*: Mitigated Speech.

Table 36. *Results of Hierarchical Regression Analyses using Benevolent Sexism, Rejection Behavior, and Mitigated Speech to predict Perceptions of Competency in Study 3*

	Step 1		Step 2		Step 3		Step 4	
Predictors	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*
(Intercept)	6.99 (0.10)	69.99****	7.15 (0.18)	40.80****	7.14 (0.20)	35.04****	7.15 (0.21)	34.89****
BS	0.25 (0.10)	2.53**	0.25 (0.10)	2.47**	0.27 (0.17)	1.58	0.24 (0.19)	1.26
Behavior			-0.29 (0.20)	-1.43	-0.30 (0.29)	-1.05	-0.31 (0.29)	-1.07
Speech			-0.04 (0.20)	-0.18	-0.05 (0.29)	-0.17	-0.05 (0.29)	-0.17
Behavior x Speech					0.03 (0.41)	0.08	0.03 (0.41)	0.08
Behavior x BS					0.22 (0.20)	1.07	0.27 (0.28)	0.96
Speech x BS					-0.25 (0.20)	-1.24	-0.20 (0.28)	-0.73
Behavior x Speech x BS							-0.11 (0.41)	-0.26
ΔR^2			0.0117		0.0153		0.0004	
ΔF(df)			1.05 (2, 171)		0.92 (3, 168)		0.07 (1, 167)	
Cumulative R^2	0.0358		0.0474		0.0628		0.0632	
Model F(df)	6.42 (1, 173)**		2.84 (3, 171)*		1.88 (6, 168)		1.61 (7, 167)	

*$p \leq .05$, **$p \leq .01$, ***$p \leq .001$, ****$p \leq .0001$

Note. *Behavior* was dummy coded as 1 = Evasive, 0 = Explicit Declaration. *Speech* was dummy coded as 1 = With, 0 = Without. BS was standardized prior to analyses. BS: Benevolent Sexism; *Behavior*: Rejection Behavior; *Speech*: Mitigated Speech.

Table 37. *Results of Hierarchical Regression Analyses using Hostile Sexism, Rejection Behavior, and Mitigated Speech to predict Perceptions of Warmth in Study 3*

	Step 1		Step 2		Step 3		Step 4	
Predictors	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*
(Intercept)	6.03 (0.12)	50.49****	5.66 (0.21)	27.32****	5.44 (0.24)	22.51****	5.42 (0.24)	22.27****
HS	-0.25 (0.12)	-2.10*	-0.21 (0.12)	-1.79†	-0.14 (0.21)	-0.65	-0.04 (0.24)	-0.15
Behavior			0.22 (0.24)	0.92	0.66 (0.34)	1.94*	0.69 (0.34)	2.01*
Speech			0.50 (0.24)	2.07*	0.95 (0.34)	2.77**	0.96 (0.34)	2.80**
Behavior x Speech					-0.87 (0.48)	-1.83†	-0.88 (0.48)	-1.83†
Behavior x HS					-0.27 (0.24)	-1.14	-0.49 (0.36)	-1.37
Speech x HS					0.10 (0.24)	0.43	-0.08 (0.33)	-0.24
Behavior x Speech x HS							0.39 (0.48)	0.81
ΔR^2			0.0291		0.0243		0.0036	
ΔF(df)			2.63 (2, 171)†		1.48 (3, 168)		0.66 (1, 167)	
Cumulative R^2	0.0249		0.0540		0.0783		0.0819	
Model F(df)	4.24 (1, 173)*		3.26 (3, 171)*		2.38 (6, 168)*		2.13 (7, 167)*	

†$p \leq .07$, *$p \leq .05$, **$p \leq .01$, ***$p \leq .001$, ****$p \leq .0001$

Note. *Behavior* was dummy coded as 1 = Evasive, 0 = Explicit Declaration. *Speech* was dummy coded as 1 = With, 0 = Without. HS was standardized prior to analyses. HS: Hostile Sexism; *Behavior*: Rejection Behavior; *Speech*: Mitigated Speech.

Table 38. *Results of Hierarchical Regression Analyses using Benevolent Sexism, Rejection Behavior, and Mitigated Speech to predict Perceptions of Warmth in Study 3*

	Step 1		Step 2		Step 3		Step 4	
Predictors	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*
(Intercept)	6.03 (0.12)	50.70****	5.58 (0.20)	27.32****	5.35 (0.24)	22.79****	5.36 (0.24)	22.73****
BS	0.29 (0.12)	2.43**	0.33 (0.12)	2.84**	0.44 (0.20)	2.25*	0.38 (0.22)	1.73†
Behavior			0.24 (0.23)	1.02	0.65 (0.33)	1.94*	0.63 (0.34)	1.88†
Speech			0.64 (0.24)	2.72**	1.05 (0.33)	3.14**	1.05 (0.34)	3.14**
Behavior x Speech					-0.80 (0.47)	-1.70†	-0.80 (0.47)	-1.70†
Behavior x BS					0.16 (0.23)	0.69	0.28 (0.32)	0.87
Speech x BS					-0.39 (0.23)	-1.65	-0.27 (0.32)	-0.84
Behavior x Speech x BS							-0.25 (0.47)	-0.54
ΔR^2			0.0467		0.0344		0.0015	
ΔF(df)			4.34 (2, 171)**		2.17 (3, 168)†		0.29 (1, 167)	
Cumulative R^2	0.0330		0.0797		0.1141		0.1156	
Model F(df)	5.91 (1, 173)**		4.94 (3, 171)**		3.61 (6, 168)**		3.12 (7, 167)**	

†$p \leq .07$, *$p \leq .05$, **$p \leq .01$, ***$p \leq .001$, ****$p \leq .0001$

Note. *Behavior* was dummy coded as 1 = Evasive, 0 = Explicit Declaration. *Speech* was dummy coded as 1 = With, 0 = Without. BS was standardized prior to analyses. BS: Benevolent Sexism; *Behavior*: Rejection Behavior; *Speech*: Mitigated Speech.

Table 39. *Results of Hierarchical Regression Analyses using Hostile Sexism, Rejection Behavior, and Mitigated Speech to predict Positive Ratings of the Target's Work Performance in Study 3*

	Step 1		Step 2		Step 3		Step 4	
Predictors	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*
(Intercept)	6.41 (0.11)	56.54****	6.55 (0.20)	32.88****	6.52 (0.23)	27.74****	6.51 (0.24)	27.47****
HS	-0.13 (0.11)	-1.10	-0.15 (0.12)	-1.23	-0.23 (0.20)	-1.15	-0.17 (0.24)	-0.72
Behavior			-0.05 (0.23)	-0.24	0.04 (0.33)	0.12	0.06 (0.33)	0.18
Speech			-0.22 (0.23)	-0.96	-0.12 (0.33)	-0.37	-0.12 (0.33)	-0.35
Behavior x Speech					-0.20 (0.46)	-0.42	-0.20 (0.46)	-0.43
Behavior x HS					0.02 (0.23)	0.07	-0.12 (0.35)	-0.34
Speech x HS					0.16 (0.23)	0.68	0.04 (0.32)	0.13
Behavior x Speech x HS							0.25 (0.47)	0.53
ΔR^2			0.0058		0.0040		0.0017	
ΔF(df)			0.50 (2, 171)		0.23 (3, 168)		0.28 (3, 165)	
Cumulative R^2	0.0070		0.0128		0.0168		0.0184	
Model F(df)	1.22 (1, 173)		0.74 (3, 171)		0.48 (6, 168)		0.45 (7, 167)	

*$p \leq .05$, **$p \leq .01$, ***$p \leq .001$, ****$p \leq .0001$

Note. *Behavior* was dummy coded as 1 = Evasive, 0 = Explicit Declaration. *Speech* was dummy coded as 1 = With, 0 = Without. HS was standardized prior to analyses. HS: Hostile Sexism; *Behavior*: Rejection Behavior; *Speech*: Mitigated Speech.

Table 40. *Results of Hierarchical Regression Analyses using Benevolent Sexism, Rejection Behavior, and Mitigated Speech to predict Positive Ratings of the Target's Work Performance in Study 3*

	Step 1		Step 2		Step 3		Step 4	
Predictors	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*
(Intercept)	6.41 (0.11)	58.00****	6.48 (0.19)	33.33****	6.44 (0.23)	28.52****	6.42 (0.23)	28.40****
BS	0.36 (0.11)	3.23***	0.35 (0.11)	3.12**	0.22 (0.19)	1.18	0.33 (0.21)	1.55
Behavior			-0.04 (0.22)	-0.18	0.03 (0.32)	0.09	0.06 (0.32)	0.19
Speech			-0.09 (0.22)	-0.40	-0.02 (0.32)	-0.05	-0.02 (0.32)	-0.05
Behavior x Speech					-0.13 (0.45)	-0.29	-0.13 (0.45)	-0.30
Behavior x BS					0.37 (0.23)	1.65	0.14 (0.31)	0.47
Speech x BS					-0.10 (0.23)	-0.42	-0.32 (0.31)	-1.04
Behavior x Speech x BS							0.48 (0.45)	1.07
ΔR^2			0.0011		0.0176		0.0063	
ΔF(df)			0.10 (2, 171)		1.07 (3, 168)		1.15 (1, 167)	
Cumulative R^2	0.0564		0.0575		0.0751		0.0815	
Model F(df)	10.35 (1, 173)***		3.48 (3, 171)**		2.28 (6, 168)*		2.12 (7, 167)*	

†$p \leq .07$,*$p \leq .05$, **$p \leq .01$, ***$p \leq .001$, ****$p \leq .0001$

Note. *Behavior* was dummy coded as 1 = Evasive, 0 = Explicit Declaration. *Speech* was dummy coded as 1 = With, 0 = Without. BS was standardized prior to analyses. BS: Benevolent Sexism; *Behavior*: Rejection Behavior; *Speech*: Mitigated Speech.

Table 41. *Results of Hierarchical Regression Analyses using Hostile Sexism, Rejection Behavior, and Mitigated Speech to predict Positive Perceptions of the Target as a Potential Manager in Study 3*

	Step 1		Step 2		Step 3		Step 4	
Predictors	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*
(Intercept)	6.39 (0.11)	56.04****	6.37 (0.20)	31.79****	6.33 (0.24)	26.75****	6.34 (0.24)	26.60****
HS	-0.23 (0.12)	-1.99*	-0.23 (0.12)	-2.00*	-0.30 (0.21)	-1.45	-0.36 (0.24)	-1.52
Behavior			0.16 (0.23)	0.67	0.26 (0.33)	0.78	0.24 (0.34)	0.73
Speech			-0.12 (0.23)	-0.54	-0.02 (0.33)	-0.05	-0.02 (0.34)	-0.07
Behavior x Speech					-0.22 (0.47)	-0.46	-0.21 (0.47)	-0.45
Behavior x HS					0.02 (0.24)	0.07	0.15 (0.35)	0.44
Speech x HS					0.11 (0.24)	0.47	0.23 (0.32)	0.70
Behavior x Speech x HS							-0.25 (0.47)	-0.53
ΔR^2			0.0041		0.0027		0.0017	
ΔF(df)			0.36 (2, 171)		0.16 (3, 168)		0.29 (1, 167)	
Cumulative R^2	0.0224		0.0265		0.0292		0.0309	
Model F(df)	3.97 (1, 173)*		1.55 (3, 171)		0.84 (6, 168)		0.76 (7, 167)	

†$p \leq .07$, *$p \leq .05$, **$p \leq .01$, ***$p \leq .001$, ****$p \leq .0001$

Note. *Behavior* was dummy coded as 1 = Evasive, 0 = Explicit Declaration. *Speech* was dummy coded as 1 = With, 0 = Without. HS was standardized prior to analyses. HS: Hostile Sexism; *Behavior*: Rejection Behavior; *Speech*: Mitigated Speech.

Table 42. *Results of Hierarchical Regression Analyses using Benevolent Sexism, Rejection Behavior, and Mitigated Speech to predict Positive Perceptions of the Target as a Potential Manager in Study 3*

	Step 1		Step 2		Step 3		Step 4	
Predictors	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*
(Intercept)	6.39 (0.11)	56.16****	6.29 (0.20)	31.51****	6.24 (0.23)	26.73****	6.22 (0.23)	26.72****
BS	0.25 (0.11)	2.17*	0.25 (0.12)	2.15*	0.15 (0.19)	0.78	0.33 (0.22)	1.51
Behavior			0.18 (0.23)	0.77	0.29 (0.33)	0.86	0.34 (0.33)	1.02
Speech			0.004 (0.23)	0.02	0.12 (0.33)	0.35	0.12 (0.33)	0.35
Behavior x Speech					-0.21 (0.47)	-0.46	-0.21 (0.46)	-0.45
Behavior x BS					0.17 (0.23)	0.74	-0.20 (0.32)	-0.63
Speech x BS					0.03 (0.23)	0.14	-0.34 (0.32)	-1.07
Behavior x Speech x BS							0.80 (0.46)	1.72†
ΔR^2			0.0034		0.0051		0.0167	
ΔF(df)			0.30 (2, 171)		0.29 (3, 168)		2.94 (1, 167)†	
Cumulative R^2	0.0265		0.0299		0.0350		0.0517	
Model F(df)	4.72 (1, 173)*		1.76 (3, 171)		1.02 (6, 168)		1.30 (7, 167)	

†$p \leq .08$,*$p \leq .05$, **$p \leq .01$, ***$p \leq .001$, ****$p \leq .0001$

Note. *Behavior* was dummy coded as 1 = Evasive, 0 = Explicit Declaration. *Speech* was dummy coded as 1 = With, 0 = Without. BS was standardized prior to analyses. BS: Benevolent Sexism; *Behavior*: Rejection Behavior; *Speech*: Mitigated Speech.

Table 43. *Results of Hierarchical Regression Analyses using Hostile Sexism, Rejection Behavior, and Mitigated Speech to predict Likelihood to Support the Target in Study 3*

	Step 1		Step 2		Step 3		Step 4	
Predictors	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*
(Intercept)	3.88 (0.14)	28.37****	3.69 (0.24)	15.43****	3.66 (0.28)	13.01****	3.68 (0.28)	13.01****
HS	0.29 (0.14)	2.13*	0.32 (0.14)	2.32*	0.55 (0.24)	2.23*	0.44 (0.28)	1.54
Behavior			-0.09 (0.27)	-0.33	-0.09 (0.40)	-0.23	-0.12 (0.40)	-0.30
Speech			0.47 (0.28)	1.69	0.46 (0.40)	1.16	0.45 (0.40)	1.12
Behavior x Speech					0.02 (0.56)	0.04	0.03 (0.56)	0.05
Behavior x HS					-0.11 (0.28)	-0.39	0.13 (0.41)	0.31
Speech x HS					-0.32 (0.28)	-1.14	-0.12 (0.38)	-0.30
Behavior x Speech x HS							-0.43 (0.56)	-0.77
ΔR^2			0.0164		0.0083		0.0034	
ΔF(df)			1.47 (2, 171)		0.49 (3, 168)		0.60 (3, 165)	
Cumulative R^2	0.0255		0.0419		0.0502		0.0536	
Model F(df)	4.52 (1, 173)*		2.49 (3, 171)†		1.48 (6, 168)		1.35 (7, 167)	

†$p \leq .07$, *$p \leq .05$, **$p \leq .01$, ***$p \leq .001$, ****$p \leq .0001$

Note. *Behavior* was dummy coded as 1 = Evasive, 0 = Explicit Declaration. *Speech* was dummy coded as 1 = With, 0 = Without. HS was standardized prior to analyses. HS: Hostile Sexism; *Behavior*: Rejection Behavior; *Speech*: Mitigated Speech.

Table 44. *Results of Hierarchical Regression Analyses using Benevolent Sexism, Rejection Behavior, and Mitigated Speech to predict Likelihood to Support the Target in Study 3*

	Step 1		Step 2		Step 3		Step 4	
Predictors	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*	*β (SE)*	*t*
(Intercept)	3.88 (0.13)	29.37****	3.82 (0.23)	16.49****	3.86 (0.27)	14.34****	3.88 (0.27)	14.41****
BS	-0.55 (0.13)	-4.15****	-0.53 (0.13)	-3.99****	-0.57 (0.22)	-2.54**	-0.72 (0.25)	-2.80**
Behavior			-0.13 (0.27)	-0.46	-0.14 (0.38)	-0.37	-0.18 (0.38)	-0.48
Speech			0.24 (0.27)	0.88	0.21 (0.38)	0.56	0.21 (0.38)	0.56
Behavior x Speech					0.04 (0.54)	0.07	0.04 (0.54)	0.07
Behavior x BS					-0.31 (0.27)	-1.16	-0.01 (0.37)	-0.04
Speech x BS					0.38 (0.27)	1.43	0.68 (0.37)	1.85
Behavior x Speech x BS							-0.63 (0.54)	-1.19
ΔR^2			0.0051		0.0186		0.0074	
ΔF(df)			0.48 (2, 171)		1.18 (3, 168)		1.40 (1, 167)	
Cumulative R^2	0.0907		0.0958		0.1143		0.1217	
Model F(df)	17.26 (3, 171)****		6.04 (3, 171)***		3.62 (6, 168)**		3.31 (7, 167)**	

*$p \leq .05$, **$p \leq .01$, ***$p \leq .001$, ****$p \leq .0001$

Note. *Behavior* was dummy coded as 1 = Evasive, 0 = Explicit Declaration. *Speech* was dummy coded as 1 = With, 0 = Without. BS was standardized prior to analyses. BS: Benevolent Sexism; *Behavior*: Rejection Behavior; *Speech*: Mitigated Speech.

Chapter 7 - Figures

Figure 1. *Two-Way Interaction between Context of Rejection and Benevolent Sexism on Endorsement of Explicit Declaration Due to Personal Preferences in Study 1*

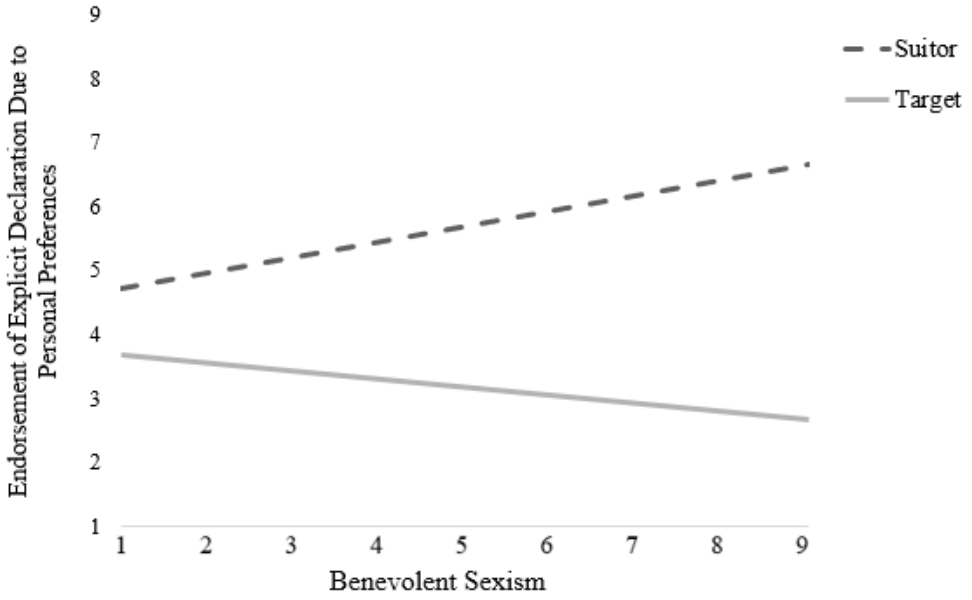


Figure 2. *Two-Way Interaction between Context of Rejection and Benevolent Sexism on Endorsement of Explicit Declaration Due to Interpersonal Relationships in Study 1*

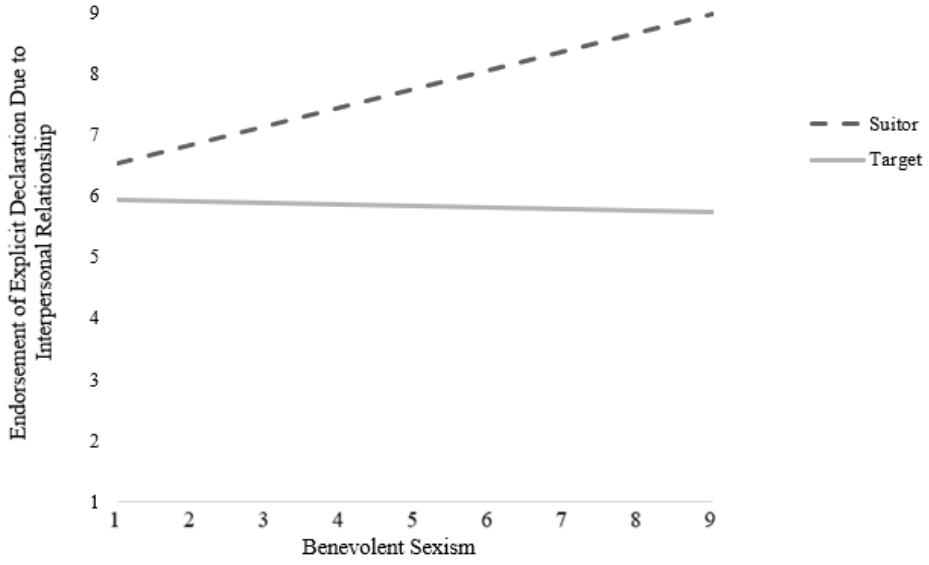


Figure 3. *Three-Way Interaction between Gender, Context of Rejection, and Hostile Sexism on Endorsement of Explicit Declaration Due to Current Relationship Status in Study 1*

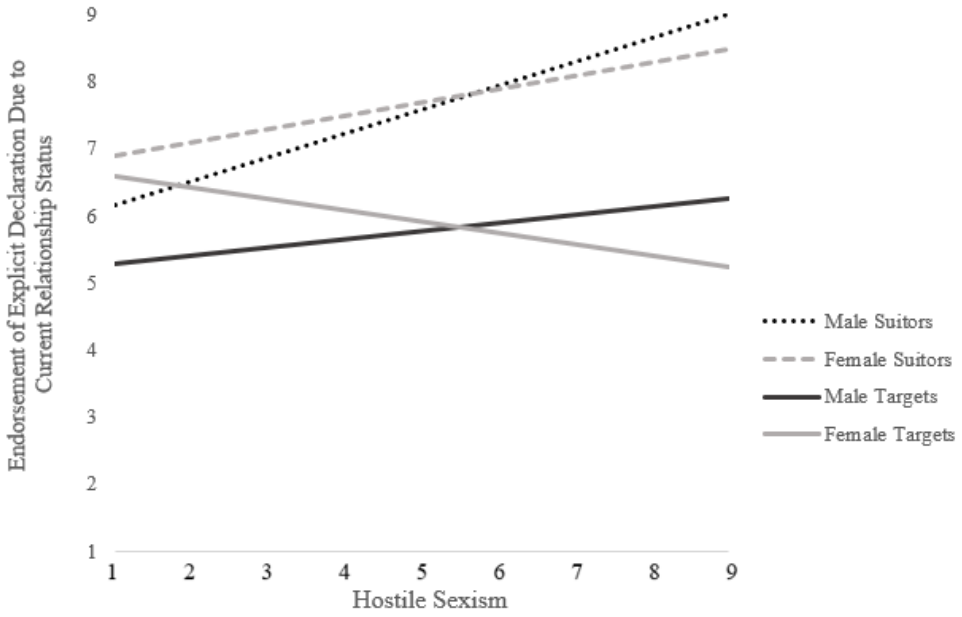


Figure 4. *Two-Way Interaction between Gender and Benevolent Sexism on Endorsement of Rude/Impolite Behaviors in Study 1*

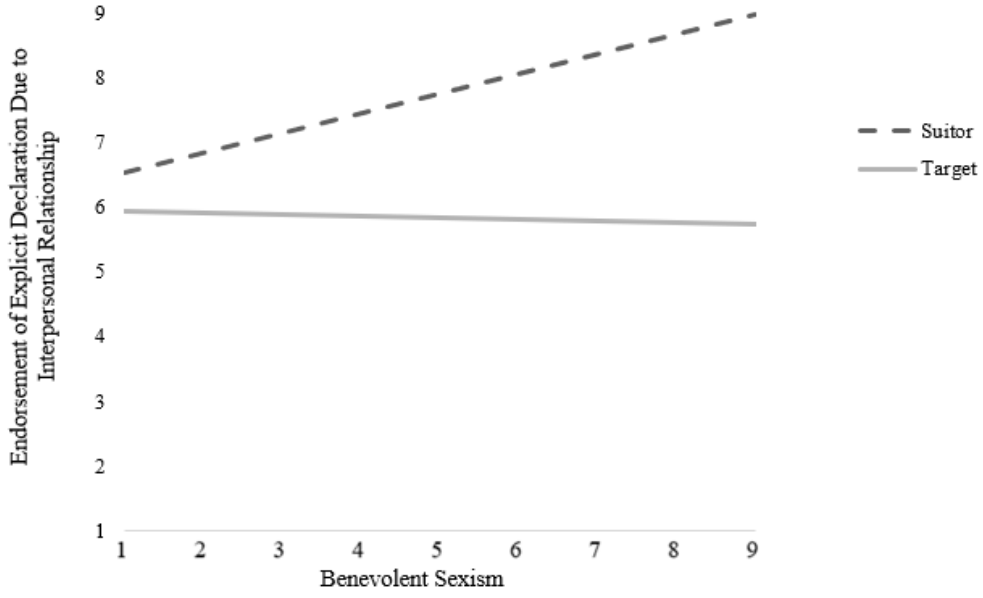


Figure 5. *Two-Way Interaction between Context and Benevolent Sexism on Endorsement of Avoidant Behaviors in Study 1*

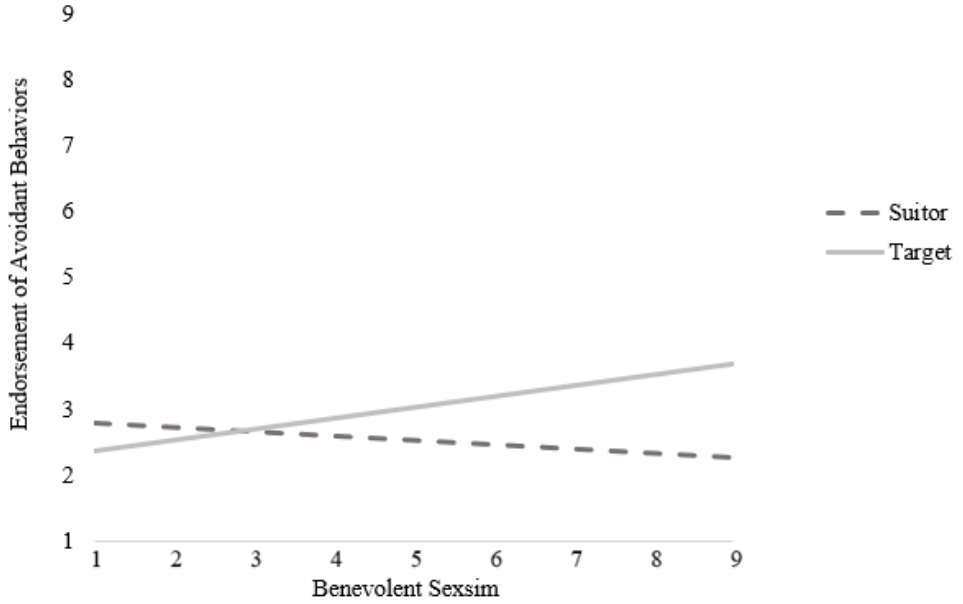


Figure 6. *Three-Way Interaction between Gender, Context, and Hostile Sexism on Endorsement of Avoidant Behaviors in Study 1*

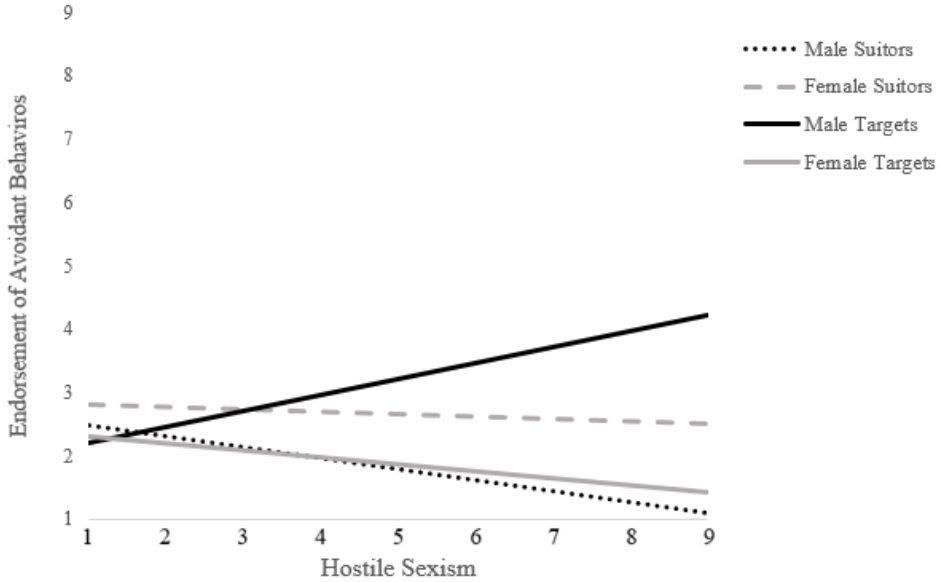


Figure 7. *Two-Way Interaction between Gender of Target and Hostile Sexism on Ratings of Communal Traits in Study 2*

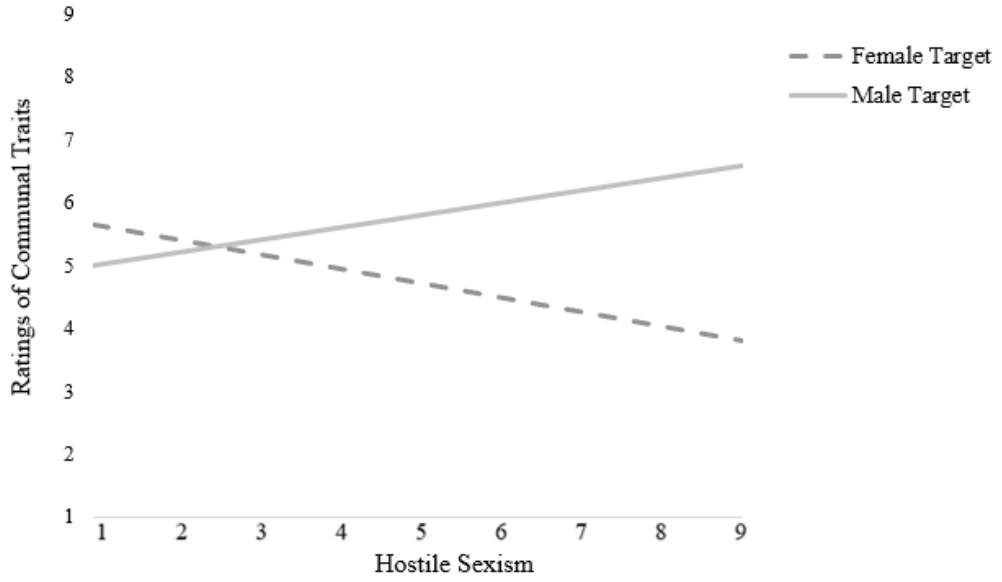


Figure 8. *Two-Way Interaction between Gender of Target and Hostile Sexism on Perceptions of Warmth in Study 2*

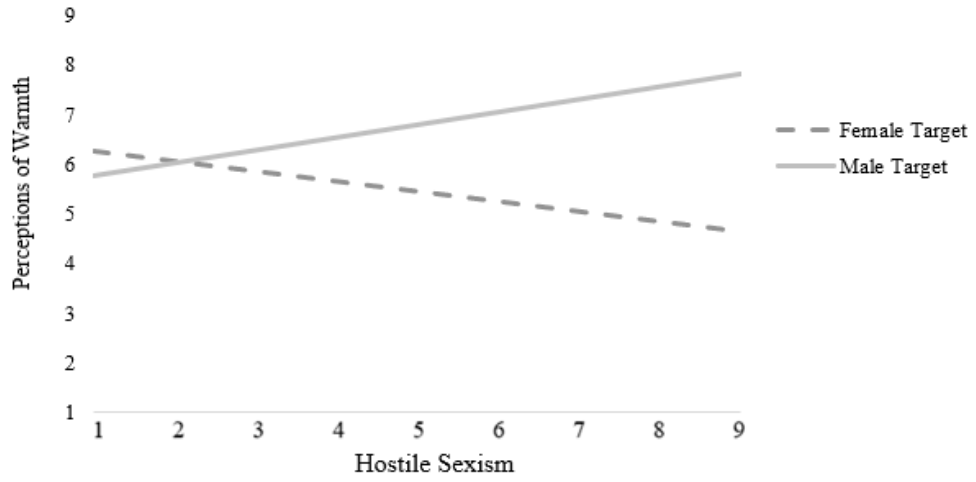


Figure 9. *Three-Way Interaction between Rejection Behavior, Gender of Target, and Hostile Sexism on Perceptions of Warmth in Study 2*

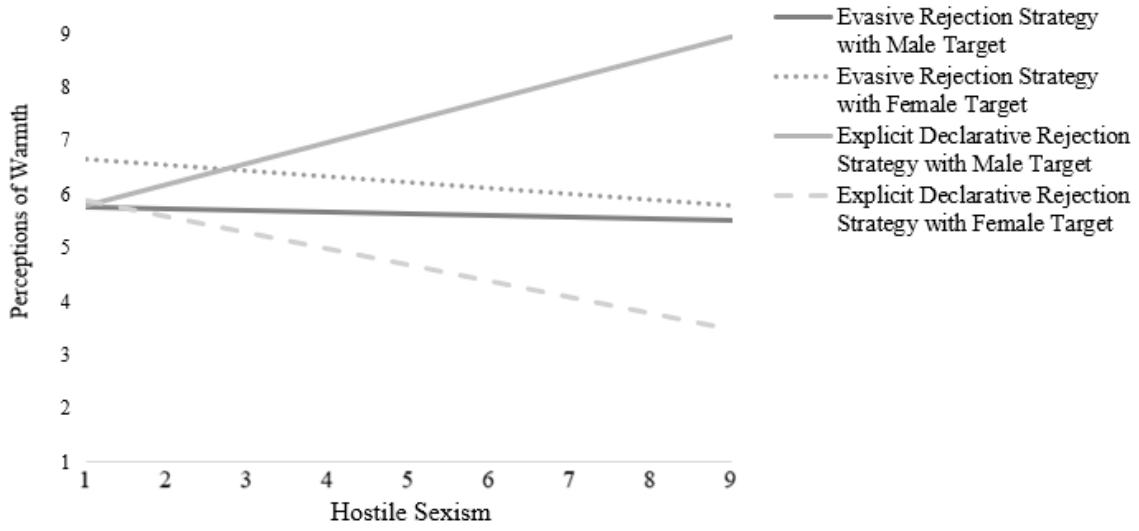


Figure 10. *Two-Way Interaction between Rejection Behavior and Gender of Target on Positive Perceptions of the Target as a Coworker in Study 2*

Figure 11. *Two-Way Interaction between Rejection Behavior and Mitigated Speech on Ratings of Communal Traits in Study 3*

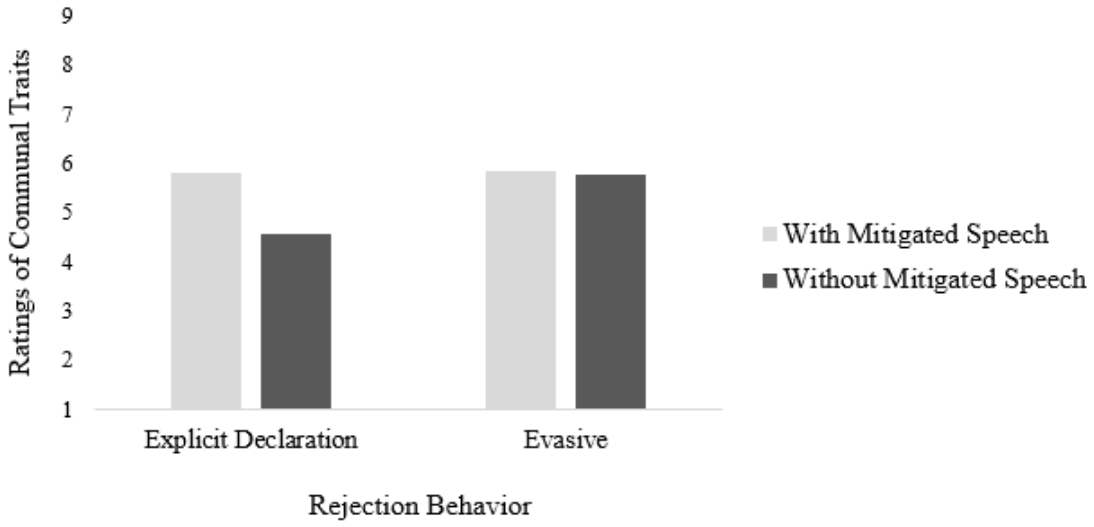


Figure 12. *Two-Way Interaction between Benevolent Sexism and Mitigated Speech on Ratings of Communal Traits in Study 3*

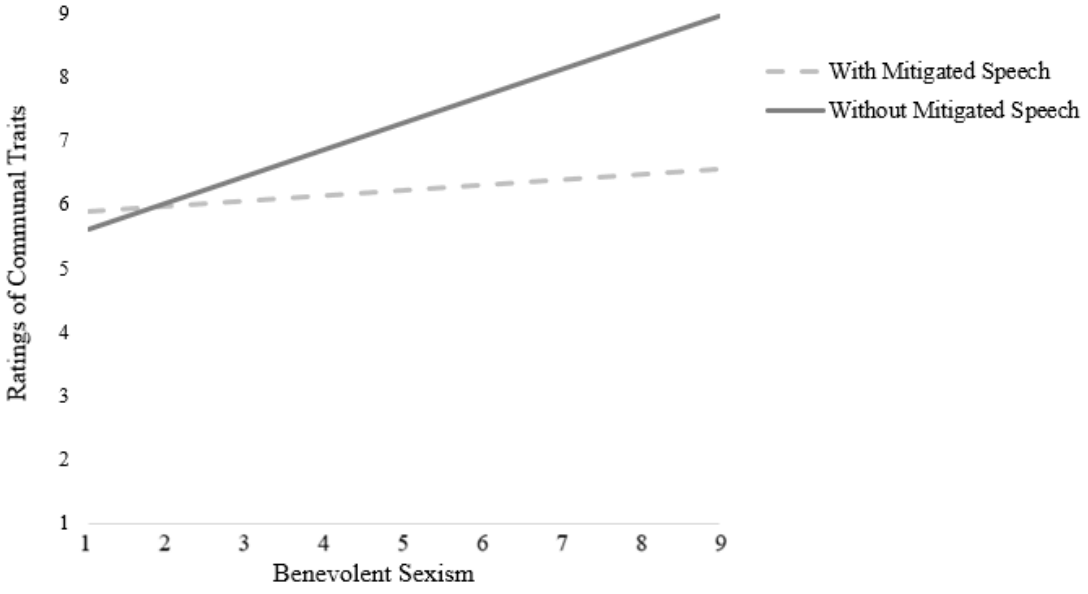


Figure 13. *Two-Way Interaction between Rejection Behavior and Mitigated Speech on Perceptions of Warmth in Study 3*

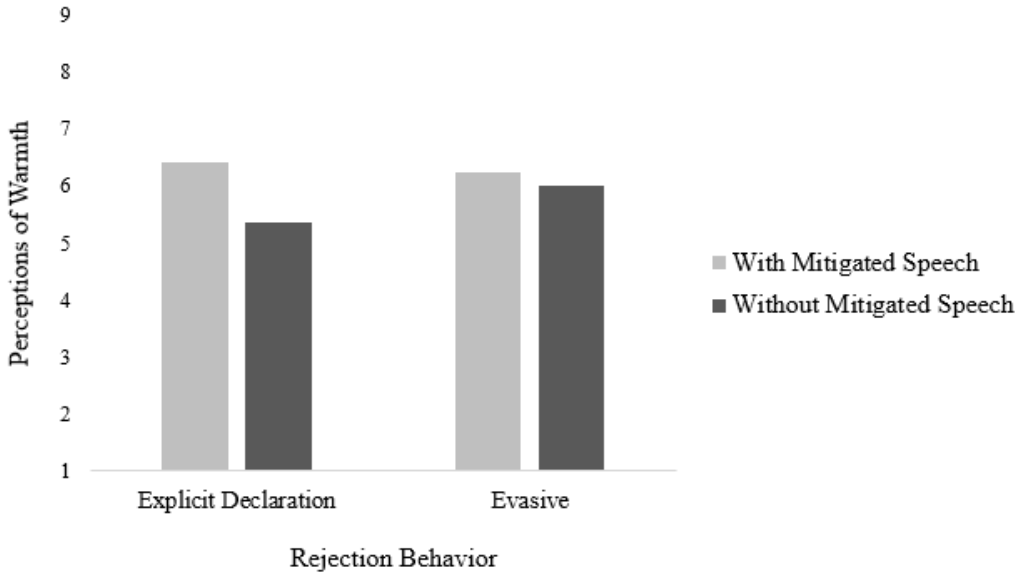
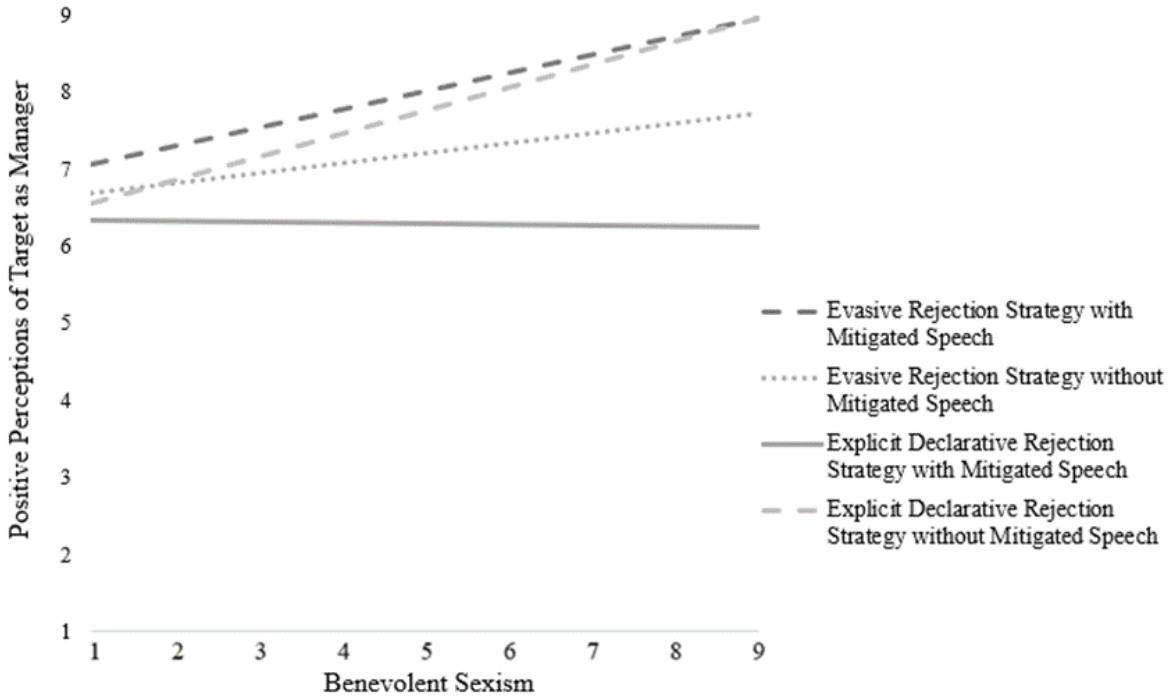


Figure 14. *Three-Way Interaction between Rejection Behavior, Mitigated Speech, and Benevolent Sexism on Positive Perceptions of the Target as a Potential Manager in Study 3*



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Appendix A - Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (ASI; Glick & Fiske, 1996)

Please use the 9-point scale below to indicate your agreement with each statement.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Disagree Very Strongly *Agree Very Strongly*

1. _____Many women are actually seeking special favors, such as hiring policies that favor them over men, under the guise of asking for "equality."
2. _____Most women interpret innocent remarks or acts as being sexist.
3. _____Women are too easily offended.
4. _____Feminists are not seeking for women to have more power than men.
5. _____Most women fail to appreciate fully all that men do for them.
6. _____Women seek to gain power by getting control over men.
7. _____Women exaggerate problems they have at work.
8. _____Once a woman gets a man to commit to her, she usually tries to put him on a tight leash.
9. _____When women lose to men in a fair competition, they typically complain about being discriminated against.
10. _____There are actually very few women who get a kick out of teasing men by seeming sexually available and then refusing male advances.
11. _____Feminists are making entirely reasonable demands of men.
12. _____No matter how accomplished he is, a man is not truly complete as a person unless he has the love of a woman.
13. _____In a disaster, women ought not necessarily be rescued before men.
14. _____People are often truly happy in life without being romantically involved with a member of the other sex.
15. _____Many women have a quality of purity that few men possess.
16. _____Women should be cherished and protected by men.
17. _____Every man ought to have a woman whom he adores.
18. _____Men are incomplete without women.
19. _____A good woman should be set on a pedestal by her man.
20. _____Women, compared to men, tend to have a superior moral sensibility.
21. _____Men should be willing to sacrifice their own well-being in order to provide financially for the women in their lives.
22. _____Women as compared to men, tend to have a more refined sense of culture and good taste.

Appendix B - Mate Value Scale (MVS; Edlund & Sagarin, 2014)

1. Overall, how would you rate your level of desirability as a partner on the following scale?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Extremely Undesirable						*Extremely Desirable*

2. Overall, how would members of the opposite sex rate your level of desirability as a partner on the following scale?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Extremely Undesirable						*Extremely Desirable*

3. Overall, how do you believe you compare to other people in desirability as a partner on the following scale?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Very much much lower than average	*Lower than average*	*Slightly lower than average*	*Average*	*Slightly higher than average*	*Higher than average*	*Very higher than average*

4. Overall, how good of a catch are you?

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Very bad catch	*Bad catch*	*Somewhat bad of a catch*	*Average catch*	*Somewhat good of catch*	*Good catch*	*Very good catch*

Appendix C - Study 1 Response Items

Modified from Goodboy & Brann, 2010; Stratmoen et al., 2020

I. Response Items for Target Context

Using the 9-point scale below, please indicate your agreement with the following ways in how you may respond to Thomas in this situation.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Disagree Very Strongly *Agree Very Strongly*

A. Direct Rejection Strategies & Behaviors

1. _____You would tell him "No."
2. _____You would tell him "I am not interested in having coffee with you."
3. _____You would tell him "I'm flattered but I am not interested in you."
4. _____You would tell him "I'm not interested in dating you."
5. _____You would tell him "I am not attracted to you."
6. _____You would tell him "That's really sweet, but I am not attracted to you."
7. _____You would tell him you prefer your relationship to remain professional only.
8. _____You would tell him you only like/think of him as a friend.
9. _____You would tell him you only like/think of him as a colleague.

B. Avoidant/Passive Rejection Strategies & Behaviors

1. _____You would tell him you are not looking for a relationship with anyone right now.
2. _____You would tell him you are not focused on dating right now.
3. _____You would change the topic.
4. _____You would tell him you are already dating someone else.
5. _____You would tell him you have a boyfriend.
6. _____You would pretend you did not hear him.
7. _____You would say you already have plans for Saturday.
8. _____You would tell him yes, but text him later to cancel with no explanation.
9. _____You would tell him yes, but text him on Saturday that you are not feeling well and cannot make it.
10. _____You would tell him yes, but don't respond to his text messages to finalize plans.
11. _____You would tell him yes, but text him later to tell him you changed your mind.
12. _____You would tell him yes, but when he texts you on Saturday you say you forgot and cannot make it.
13. _____You would tell him yes, but when he texts you on Saturday you say you thought it was for a different day.
14. _____You would tell him yes but suggest you both bring a friend.
15. _____You would tell him yes but bring a friend without letting him know ahead of time.
16. _____You would tell him you are not romantically interested in men.
17. _____You would laugh, pretending he was making a joke.

C. Impolite/Offensive Rejection Strategies & Behaviors

1. _____You would give him a dirty look.
2. _____You would make fun of him for asking you out.
3. _____You would glare at him.
4. _____You would stare at him.
5. _____You would laugh at him.
6. _____You would ignore him.
7. _____You would leave and walk away from him without answering.
8. _____You would make a scene as you turn him down.
9. _____You would tell him "I would never date someone like you."
10. _____You would tell him yes, but then arrive over one hour late without explanation.
11. _____You would tell him yes, but then not show up without explanation.

II. Response Items for Suitor Context

Using the 9-point scale below, please indicate your preference in how she may respond if she were not romantically interested in you.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Would Not Prefer At All *Would Prefer Very Much*

A. Direct Rejection Strategies & Behaviors

1. _____She would tell you "No."
2. _____She would tell you "I am not interested in having coffee with you."
3. _____She would tell you "I'm flattered but I am not interested in you."
4. _____She would tell you "I'm not interested in dating you."
5. _____She would tell you "I am not attracted to you."
6. _____She would tell you "That's really sweet, but I am not attracted to you."
7. _____She would tell you she prefers your relationship to remain professional only.
8. _____She would tell you she only likes/thinks of you as a friend.
9. _____She would tell you she only likes/thinks of you as a colleague.

B. Avoidant/Passive Rejection Strategies & Behaviors

1. _____She would tell you she is not looking for a relationship with anyone right now.
2. _____She would tell you she is not focused on dating right now.
3. _____She would change the topic.
4. _____She would tell you she is already dating someone else.
5. _____She would tell you she has a boyfriend.
6. _____She would pretend she did not hear you.
7. _____She would say she already has plans for Saturday.
8. _____She would tell you yes, but text you later to cancel with no explanation.
9. _____She would tell you yes, but text you on Saturday that she is not feeling well and cannot make it.
10. _____She would tell you yes but doesn't respond to your text messages to finalize plans.
11. _____She would tell you yes, but text you later to tell you she changed her mind.
12. _____She would tell you yes, but when you text her on Saturday, she says she forgot

and cannot make it.

13. _____She would tell you yes, but when you text her on Saturday, she says she thought it was for a different day.
14. _____She would tell you yes but suggest you both bring a friend.
15. _____She would tell you yes but bring a friend without letting you know ahead of time.
16. _____She would tell you she is not romantically interested in men.
17. _____She would laugh, pretending you were making a joke.

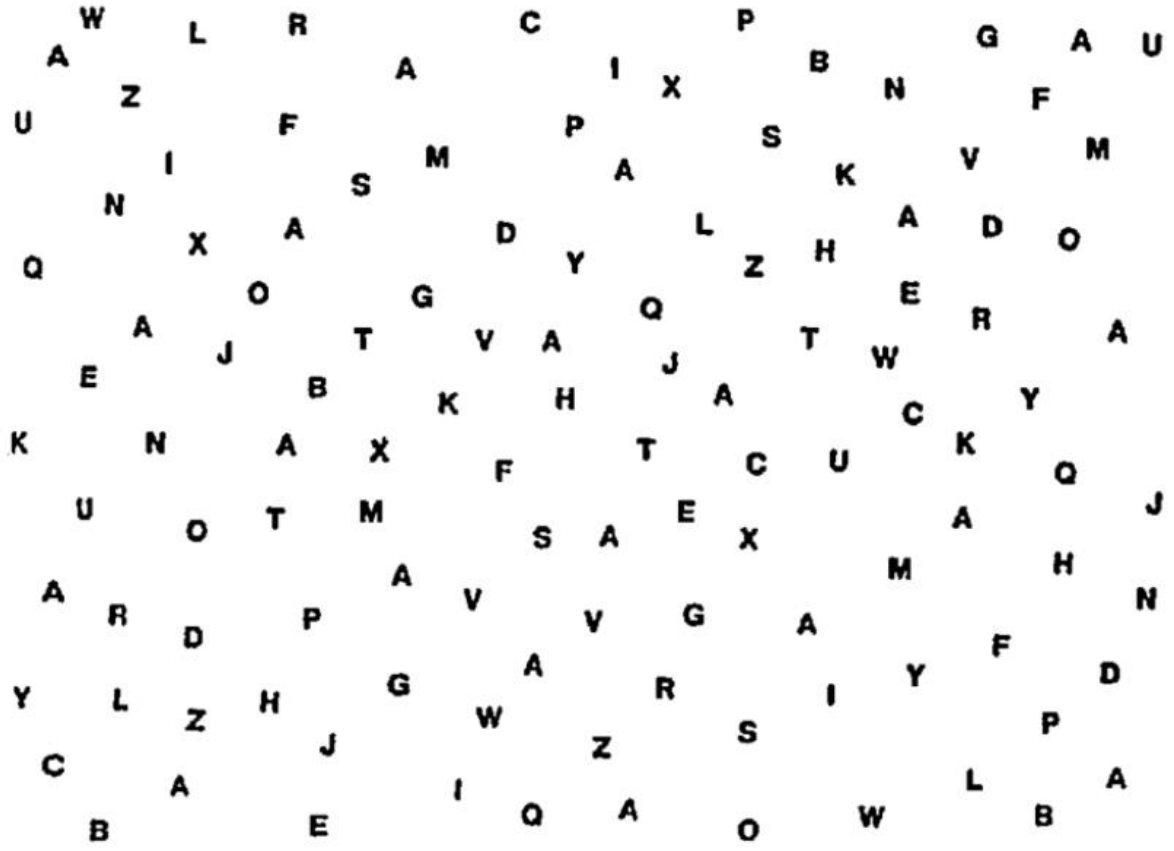
C. <u>Impolite/Offensive Rejection Strategies & Behaviors</u>

1. _____She would give you a dirty look.
2. _____She would make fun of you for asking her out.
3. _____She would glare at you.
4. _____She would stare at you.
5. _____She would laugh at you.
6. _____She would ignore you.
7. _____She would leave and walk away from you without answering.
8. _____She would make a scene as she turned you down.
9. _____She would tell you "I would never date someone like you."
10. _____She would tell you yes, but then arrive over one hour late without explanation.
11. _____She would tell you yes, but then not show up without explanation.

Appendix D - Random Letter Cancellation Task

Modified from Beeson (1990) for online use

On the following page, you will have 10 seconds to count the number of 'A's that appear on the screen. Do not proceed until you are ready to begin.



How many 'A's appeared on the previous screen? _____

Appendix E - Items for each Composite Variable in Study 1

Composite Variable	Response Items: Context of Rejection	
	Suitor	*Target*
Explicit Declaration Due to Personal Preferences	1. They would tell you 'no' 2. They would tell you 'I'm not interested in having coffee with you' 3. They would say 'I'm not interested in dating you' 4. They would say 'I'm not attracted to you' 5. They would say 'I'm flattered but I'm not interested in you' 6. They would say 'That's really sweet, but I don't find you very attractive' 7. They would say 'That's really sweet, but I'm not attracted to you'	1. You would tell him/her 'no' 2. You would tell him/her 'I'm not interested in having coffee with you' 3. You would say 'I'm not interested in dating you' 4. You would say 'I'm not attracted to you' 5. You would say 'I'm flattered but I'm not interested in you' 6. You would say 'That's really sweet, but I don't find you very attractive' 7. You would say 'That's really sweet, but I'm not attracted to you'
Explicit Declaration Due to Interpersonal Relationships	1. They would tell you they prefer your relationship remains professional only 2. They would tell you they only think of you as a work colleague 3. They would tell you they only like you as a friend	1. You would tell him/her you prefer your relationship remains professional only 2. You would tell him you only think of him/her as a work colleague 3. You would tell him/her you only like him/her as a friend
Explicit Declaration Due to Current Relationship Status	1. They would tell you they already have a boy/girlfriend 2. They would tell you they are already dating someone else 3. They would tell you they are not looking for a relationship with anyone right now	1. You would tell him/her you already have a boy/girlfriend 2. You would tell him/her you are already dating someone else 3. You would tell him/her you are not looking for a relationship with anyone right now

	Response Items	
	Context of Rejection	
Composite Variable	*Suitor*	*Target*
Rude/Impolite Behaviors	1. S/he would leave the room without giving you an answer	1. You would leave the room without giving him/her an answer
	2. S/he would make a dramatic scene as they turn you down	2. You would make a dramatic scene as you turn him/her down
	3. S/he would glare at you	3. You would glare at him/her
	4. S/he would laugh at you	4. You would laugh at him/her
	5. S/he would ignore you	5. You would ignore him/her
	6. S/he would give you a dirty look	6. You would give him/her a dirty look
	7. S/he would make fun of you for asking them out	7. You would make fun of him/her for asking you out
	8. S/he would say "I would never date someone like you"	8. You would say "I would never date someone like you"
Avoidant Behaviors	1. They say 'yes' but don't respond to your texts to finalize plans	1. You would say 'yes' but don't respond to his/her texts to finalize plans
	2. They say 'yes' but text you later to cancel with no explanation	2. You would say 'yes' but text him/her later to cancel with no explanation
	3. They say 'yes' but text you on that day that they are not feeling well and can't make it	3. You would say 'yes' but text him/her on that day that you are not feeling well and can't make it
	4. They say 'yes' but when you text them on that day, they say they forgot and can't make it	4. You would say 'yes' but when s/he texts you on that day, you say you forgot and can't make it
	5. They say 'yes' but when you text them on that day they say they thought the date was for a different day	5. You would say 'yes' but when s/he texts on that day you say you thought the date was for a different day
	6. They say 'yes' but they text you later that they changed their mind	6. You would say 'yes' but text him/her later that you changed your mind

	7. They say ‘yes’ but suggest you both bring a friend 8. They say ‘yes’ and bring a friend along without letting you know ahead of time	7. You would say ‘yes’ but suggest you both bring a friend 8. You would say ‘yes’ and bring a friend along without letting him/her know ahead of time
Evasive Behaviors	1. They would change the topic 2. They would pretend they did not hear you 3. They would laugh, pretending you were making a joke	1. You would change the topic 2. You would pretend you did not hear him/her 3. You would laugh, pretending s/he was making a joke

Appendix F - Workplace Evaluation Scenario

Adapted from Caleo, 2016; Heilman & Chen, 2005

Please carefully read the scenario depicted below.

Everyone at the company you work for undergoes an *Employee Annual Performance Review* with their current supervisor. During the review process, employees can decide if they want to negotiate for pay raises and apply for promotions within the company.

Teresa has decided to ask for a salary increase and apply for the new management position in the company.

Employee Annual Performance Review

Employee Name: Teresa Smith *Date of Hire*: August 17, 2013
Job Title: Assistant Manager Level II *Sex*: Female *DOB*: June 26, 1984
Basic Job Responsibilities: Distribute Budget Resources, Create & Enforce Company Policies

Quality ***Poor*** ☐ ***Good*** ☑ ***Excellent*** ☐
Work is completed following published processes and procedures.

Productivity/Reliability ***Poor*** ☐ ***Good*** ☑ ***Excellent*** ☐
Ability to work independently with little or no direction or follow up to complete tasks.

Job Knowledge ***Poor*** ☐ ***Good*** ☑ ***Excellent*** ☐
Demonstrates and understands the work processes, equipment, and materials required.

Cooperation ***Poor*** ☐ ***Good*** ☑ ***Excellent*** ☐
Willingness to cooperate, work, and communicate with coworkers, supervisors, subordinates, and/or outside contacts.

Attendance ***Poor*** ☐ ***Good*** ☐ ***Excellent*** ☑
Observes prescribed work break/meal periods and has an acceptable overall attendance record.

Appendix G - Adherence to Gender Norms Response Items

Modified from the Bem Sex Role Inventory (BSRI; Bem, 1974; Choi et al., 2009)

Using the 9-point scale below, please indicate your level of agreement with each statement regarding Teresa.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Disagree Very Strongly *Agree Very Strongly*

1. _____Teresa is affectionate.
2. _____Teresa is aggressive.
3. _____Teresa is warm.
4. _____Teresa is dominant.
5. _____Teresa is compassionate.
6. _____Teresa is gentle.
7. _____Teresa has leadership abilities.
8. _____Teresa is tender.
9. _____Teresa defends her own beliefs.
10. _____Teresa is sympathetic.
11. _____Teresa has a strong personality.
12. _____Teresa is understanding.
13. _____Teresa is independent.
14. _____Teresa soothes others' hurt feelings.
15. _____Teresa is willing to take a stand.
16. _____Teresa is assertive.
17. _____Teresa is sensitive to the needs of others.
18. _____Teresa is forceful.

Appendix H - Competency & Warmth Response Items

Modified from the Stereotype Content Model (SCM; Fiske et al., 2002)

Using the 9-point scale below, please indicate your level of agreement with each statement regarding Teresa.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Disagree Very Strongly *Agree Very Strongly*

Competency

1. _____Teresa is competent.
2. _____Teresa is confident.
3. _____Teresa is competitive.
4. _____Teresa is self-reliant.
5. _____Teresa is intelligent.

Warmth

6. _____Teresa is likable.
7. _____Teresa is sincere.
8. _____Teresa is kind.
9. _____Teresa is good-natured.
10. _____Teresa is tolerant.

Appendix I - Workplace Evaluation Scenario Response Items

Adapted from Caleo, 2016; Heilman & Chen, 2005

Using the 9-point scale below, please indicate your level of agreement with each statement regarding *Teresa*.

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Disagree Very Strongly *Agree Very Strongly*

1. _____Teresa is a hard worker.
2. _____I would enjoy working with Teresa as her coworker.
3. _____I would enjoy working with Teresa within a team environment.
4. _____I would recommend Teresa for a high-profile project.
5. _____Teresa is a valuable asset to the company.
6. _____Teresa is likely to succeed.
7. _____Teresa is likely to advance in the company.
8. _____Teresa's job performance has been excellent over the past year.
9. _____Teresa is similar to other managers.
10. _____I think Teresa would make a good manager.
11. _____I would like to have Teresa as my manager.
12. _____I would recommend Teresa for the management promotion.
13. _____I think Teresa would be successful in the new management position.
14. _____I would recommend Teresa receive a salary increase this year.
15. _____I would recommend Teresa receive a bonus for her hard work.

Appendix J - Intolerance of Uncertainty Scale (short version; IUS-12; Carleton, Norton, & Asmundson, 2007)

Please use the 5-point scale below to indicate your agreement with each statement.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly Disagree				*Strongly Agree*

1. _____Unforeseen events upset me greatly.
2. _____ It frustrates me not having all the information I need.
3. _____ One should always look ahead so as to avoid surprises.
4. _____ A small, unforeseen event can spoil everything, even with the best of planning.
5. _____ I always want to know what the future has in store for me.
6. _____ I can't stand being taken by surprise.
7. _____ I should be able to organize everything in advance.
8. _____ Uncertainty keeps me from living a full life.
9. _____ When it's time to act, uncertainty paralyses me.
10. _____ When I am uncertain I can't function very well.
11. _____ The smallest doubt can stop me from acting.
12. _____ I must get away from all uncertain situations.