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Expressing Pride: Effects On Perceptions of Agency and Communality Based On Race and Gender

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**EXPRESSING PRIDE: EFFECTS ON PERCEPTIONS OF AGENCY AND
COMMUNALITY BASED ON RACE AND GENDER**

A Masters Thesis

Presented to

The Graduate College of

Missouri State University

In Partial Fulfillment

Of the Requirements for the Degree

Master of Science, Psychology

By

Rosalyn A. Miles

May 2017

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Psychology

Missouri State University, May 2017

Master of Science

Rosalyn A. Miles

ABSTRACT

This study investigated how the expression of pride shapes perceptions of agency and communality, and how those perceptions differ when the pride expresser is of a certain gender and race. Participants were primed with a scenario featuring a picture of a target varying in race and gender. Participants were then invited to complete a survey assessing their perceptions of agency, communality, leadership competence, and ascribed interpersonal hostility. It was hypothesized that the expression of pride over happiness would rank someone as being more or less agentic, communal, competent in leadership, or interpersonally hostile. It was also hypothesized that black targets would be seen as less agentic, communal and competent in leadership styles than white targets. Lastly, it was hypothesized that black targets would be viewed as more interpersonally hostile than their white counterparts. Overall, participants reported that the targets expressed more pride in the pride conditions, than in the happiness conditions. The results did not confirm any of the hypotheses predictions however, utilizing a broader sample base while increasing the population size (so that is representative of multiple types of industries) could yield different results.

KEYWORDS: agency, pride, interpersonal perceptions, race, gender, emotion expression, leadership competence

This abstract is approved as to form and content

Michelle Visio, PhD
Chairperson, Advisory Committee
Missouri State University

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Approved:

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In the interest of academic freedom and the principle of free speech, approval of this thesis indicates the format is acceptable and meets the academic criteria for the discipline as determined by the faculty that constitute the thesis committee. The content and views expressed in this thesis are those of the student-scholar and are not endorsed by Missouri State University, its Graduate College, or its employees.

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INTRODUCTION

Emotional expressions are powerful communicators (Shariff & Tracy, 2011). People use emotional expressions to infer motives in others and plan an appropriate response (Kraut & Johnston, 1979). Emotions are communicated not only by facial expressions, but also by body language (de Valk, Wijnen, & Kret, 2015). For example, if you see someone with the corners of their lips curled upward and a slight display of teeth, you may interpret that as a friendly smile. Since this emotional display could be interpreted as anger, you also look for a relaxed body posture to confirm you are reading their emotion correctly. However, other characteristics displayed by an individual can carry additional information that may bias the correct reading of an emotion, such as race, which is the aim of this study.

I am proposing to replicate and extend a study by Brosi, Spörrle, Welpe, and Heilman (2016) in which they examined reactions to the emotional display of pride by white men and white women to judgments of agency, communality, leadership competence, and interpersonal hostility. They used a 2×2 between-groups design with emotional display (pride, happiness) and sex of target (male, female) as the independent variables. They found the expression of pride, compared to happiness, positively influenced perceptions of agency and task-oriented leadership competence. Conversely, expressions of pride negatively influenced perceptions of communality and people-oriented leadership competence. Pride expression was also related to greater perceptions of interpersonal hostility, especially when the target was female. Interestingly, they found

there was no backlash effect (Rudman & Glick, 2001) that characterized women as being more interpersonally hostile when expressing pride compared to men.

I proposed to build on the Brosi et al. (2016) study by adding a third independent variable which is African American vs. White race. Mainstream American culture has produced negative stereotypes that have made victims out of African Americans for years (Wingfield, 2007). Specifically, African American women are given the “angry black woman” stereotype, and these women are usually characterized as being aggressive, ill-tempered, illogical, overbearing, hostile, and ignorant according to Ashley (2014). African American men are similar in that stereotypes associated with them consist of the “angry black man stereotype” as well as the “absent father” according to Wingfield (2007). Specifically, Wingfield (2007) asserts that African American women and men are in many ways negatively perceived in the workplace. For instance, African American women may experience a “double burden” of racism and sexism in the workplace in that they are both women and African American. On the other hand, it has been suggested (Sidanius & Pratto, 2001) that Black men are not as employable as Black women because Black men are harder to control and, thus, more of a threat. Because the stereotypes about African American individuals are so prevalent, I find it important to look at how African Americans are perceived in a specific situation. The main question is will these stereotypes show up within the perceptions of the specific dependent variables.

The purpose of the current study is to recreate and extend the study by Brosi et al. (2016) and to determine if pride expression has differential effects on perceptions of agency, communality, interpersonal hostility, and leadership competence depending on target gender and race. I find that this research can be beneficial, if we can see how

stereotypes play into real world situations, there may be ways to avoid negative stereotyping of individuals. I also find this research valuable to making selection decisions in the workplace. We can view perceptions of different people to see how they would make selection decisions based on certain variables. It is important to note that the original study was conducted in Germany with German students enrolled in a university. It will be both interesting and enlightening to compare Brosi et al.'s (2016) results with the results from an American sample. I expect to find similar results to Brosi et al., but I also expect to find differences based on race, as expressed in the hypotheses.

The literature review that follows begins with an overview of agency, communality, pride expression, people oriented leadership, and task oriented leadership. Next, studies that have examined stereotype threat in the workplace are discussed. In addition, the literature on interpersonal hostility is explored. The review concludes with a discussion of the specific hypotheses to be examined in this study.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Agency, Stereotypes, and Task-Oriented Leadership

Abele and Wojciske (2007) define agency as a goal or pursuit of the self, and the distinction between an organism as an individual. Agency is a way to individuate and expand the self, and encompasses a number of qualities, including ambition, dominance, competence, instrumentality, and efficiency in goal attainment (Abele & Wojciske, 2007).

Agency has numerous defining characteristics that associate themselves with stereotypes. This leads to the focus of the current research, which is how perceptions of agency relate to stereotypes regarding gender and race. Agency suggests a more assertive association. It is usually viewed as a masculine characteristics (Conway, Pizzamiglio, & Mount, 1996). Agentic qualities are typically useful and helpful, but can either yield positive results or a “backlash effect,” depending on the situation and gender of the individual. Rudman and Glick (2001) found that women portraying agentic behaviors were recognized as having competence ratings equal to those for agentic men, and were perceived as being qualified for leadership roles. On the other hand, agentic women face a “backlash effect” in the form of social consequences, specifically being viewed as socially deficient compared to agentic men (Rudman & Glick, 2001). Women rate other women lower than men on agentic traits of decisiveness, competitiveness, forcefulness, and aggressiveness, which can be characterized as reflecting “social dominance” according to Rudman and Glick (2001). Men, who are usually stereotyped as agentic, might not be perceived as nice, but they do not violate the stereotype that they ought to be

communal, thus being judged less negatively than women who exude this agentic behavior (Rudman & Glick, 2001). Race and how it relates to agency brings another aspect to this study. Livingston, Rosette, and Washington (2012) found that not only does gender play a role in having a backlash effect, but race does as well. That is, black women who portray agentic behaviors will be penalized similarly, if not to a greater extent than white women. Though agentic black women are seen to have a sort of “double burden,” Livingston et al. (2012) suggest that they still would not be penalized as harshly as agentic black men. They explain that black men are seen as more of a threat to white men than black women; with that being said, black men are more likely to be punished for displaying agency, while being rewarded for showing traits coinciding with communality (Livingston et al., 2012).

When taking into account leadership styles and perceptions of agency, task oriented leadership styles are more in line with agentic qualities and include behaviors such as: “speaking assertively, competing for attention, influencing others, initiating activity directed to assigning tasks, and making problem focused suggestions” (Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001, p. 783). Task oriented leadership style can be defined as “a concern with accomplishing assigned tasks by organizing task-relevant activities” (Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001, p. 786). This leadership style is linked with behaviors like “encouraging subordinates to follow rules and procedures, maintaining high standards for performance, and making leader and subordinate roles explicit” (Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001, p. 786). Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt (2001) conducted a study focusing on ratings from subordinates about different leadership styles and how they viewed each gender within those leadership styles. Results indicated there was no

difference between men and women on task-oriented leadership style. However, differences were found based on social context. For instance, in a laboratory and assessment settings, there was a stronger tendency for more gender stereotypic styles to occur—men being more task-oriented and women being more interpersonally oriented, leading them to approach leadership styles with ‘gender-congruent-shading’ (Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001, p. 787) by which men behaved agentic and women communal.

Communality, Stereotypes, and People-Oriented Leadership

A concern for others over self, and a list of attributes consisting of kind, caring, warm, considerate, friendly, obedient, and respectful of all, fall under the definition of communality (Heilman, 2012).

The idea that communality and agency are core features of gender stereotypes is supported by the stereotypical definitions given to each. According to Conway and Vartanian (2000), communality can be considered a central feature of the female stereotype, and it refers to an emotional and interpersonal orientation. Women are usually seen as possessing communal attributes, and, because women are held to a higher standard of “niceness” than men, they are more likely to be punished for perceived violations of those attributes according to Rudman and Glick (1999). Men are held to a lower standard on communality, and can be praised for presenting both agentic and communal properties as opposed to women. Men are not usually punished when displaying those communal attributes like women are when displaying agentic attributes (Rudman & Glick, 1999). Communal traits consist of a concern for others, emotional

expressiveness, and cooperativeness, these traits are associated with deference and subordination. Usually people who proclaim these traits in an interaction with others allow their partners to exert more power. Specifically, business women are viewed as competent but not seen as warm or communal (Rosette & Tost, 2010).

According to Rosette and Tost (2010), communal traits and behaviors have become increasingly valued leadership characteristics. These traits are linked to individualized consideration, and inspirational motivation, which are correlated with effective leadership. People-oriented relationship behaviors include supportive personal relationships, a willingness to develop employees, and demonstrations of respect and warmth (Duehr & Bono, 2006). Suggestions from previous research include that leader traits related to task competence and interpersonal attributes are important predictors of leadership effectiveness (DeRue, Nahrgang, Welmman, & Humphrey, 2011). Success and positive views of competence in leadership roles have been said to be influenced by people-oriented leadership behaviors (DeRue et al., 2011).

Pride Expression

Pride is too broad a concept to have only one definition, but it can simply be defined as an individual success that promotes positive behaviors while boosting achievements and self-esteem (Herrald & Tomaka, 2002). Mascolo and Fischer (1995) define pride as an emotion caused by judgments that an individual is responsible for a socially valued outcome or for being socially valued. Webster, Duval, Gaines, and Smith (2003) stated that pride would be most likely to be evoked in situations of publicly praised accomplishment. According to Brosi et al. (2008), pride is related to the

achievement of socially- or personally-valued outcomes, and is reported as one of the most positive emotions within an organization. Williams and DeStano (2008) looked at pride as a motivational tool. They stated these emotions have been shown to shape behaviors and decisions related to intra and interpersonal social goals. Pride expression can lend itself to quite a few positive outcomes, including developing valued skills, which can lead to opportunities for admiration and elevated status (Williams & DeStano, 2008).

Pride as an expression is recognizable across cultures and can be recognized by children as young as 4 years old, according to Tracey, Zhao, Shariff, and Henrich (2012). Tracey and Prehn (2012) posed the idea of pride being composed of facets of hubristic and authentic pride. The distinction between the two facets of pride is useful and should be addressed as these facets can determine what individuals perceive when targets express pride. Authentic or beta pride, according to Tracey and Robins (2004), is described as being proud of what you did, which “might result from attributions to internal, unstable, controllable causes (*I won because I practiced*)” (Tracey & Robins, 2004, p.507). They describe hubristic pride as “the global self (*I’m proud of who I am*).” *Hubristic* price is also referred to as *alpha* pride (Lewis, 2000; Tangney, Wagner, & Gramzow, 1989). This type of pride “might result from attributions to internal, stable, uncontrollable causes (*I won because I’m always great*)” (Tracey & Robins, 2004, p. 507). In a later study, Tracey and Prehn (2012) focused on two other facets of pride that can be expressed, which are prestige and dominance. Prestige is viewed as higher status earned through hard work, and demonstrating and sharing socially-valued skills, thus gaining respect from others. Dominance is higher status forcibly taken through tactics of

intimidation and aggression, resulting in fear in others (Tracey & Prehn, 2012). Both facets can be conveyed when there is a nonverbal expression of pride. The nonverbal expression of pride that is cross-culturally recognized is described by Tracey and Prehn (2012) as a small smile, head tilted slightly back, and arms extended out in front of the body with hands on the hips or raised above the head with hands in fists. They concluded that the type of pride expression and the way it is interpreted as either dominance- or prestige-based depends on the situation. The idea is that a person who displays pride modestly would be viewed as a prestigious person, as opposed to an individual who displays pride arrogantly, and would therefore be viewed as a dominant person.

Agency and pride expression. The display of agency through expression of pride is important to women specifically (Brosi et al., 2016). Previous research states agency and gender stereotypes ascribe women as being less agentic than men and even more specifically black women and men are viewed as less agentic overall when expressing pride. This view of women and people of color being less agentic often gives way to the idea of women and people of color being less competent. Since (white) men are considered agentic already, pride expression will only strengthen and not alter perceptions unlike it will for white women, black women and black men.

Communality and pride expression. According to Heilman (2012), women are typically thought to be more communal than men, which is one of the few advantages women have in work settings. The thought of pride expression having a negative effect on perceptions of communality is then more likely to have a more pronounced effect on women than on men because it refutes an attribute considered to be a strength. This weighs against the other advantage women have over men in the workplace, which is

being seen as less interpersonally hostile than men. When women are thought to be more agentic, there tends to be a lack in perceptions of that same woman being communal, something that Brosi et al. assumes to be the cause of pride expression. This argument does not hold when race is introduced into the mix; specifically, African American people have the “angry black person” stereotype. If this comes into play, then regardless of gender, African Americans target will be seen as less communal and more interpersonally hostile than Caucasian targets.

Pride expression and interpersonal hostility. Previous research provided explanations about penalties women may experience when they violate gender norms. Those non-stereotypical prescribed attribute displays made by women have been shown to be viewed as less psychologically healthy than more feminine displays by women (Costrich, Feinstein, Kidder, Marecek, & Pascale, 1975). As negative views of “feminists” show, women thought to be nontraditional are often judged harshly, and such women are indeed evaluated less favorably than other women, according to Haddock and Zanna (1994). Women who do not satisfy those gender prescriptions have continually been derogated – they are considered cold (Porter & Geis, 1981), interpersonally hostile (Heilman, 2001), and are disliked (Heilman & Okimoto, 2007). This research supports the idea that because women are seen as less agentic when they express pride, they may be viewed as more hostile relative to a smiling woman, unlike for men.

HYPOTHESES

My first hypothesis follows Brosi et al.'s (2016) results, I expect white targets will be rated as more agentic and as having greater task-oriented leadership competence when pride is expressed than when happiness is expressed. I expect similar findings for ratings of black targets; that is, black targets will be rated as more agentic and having greater task-oriented leadership competence when expressing pride than when expressing happiness. Because black individuals often experience a “backlash” effect (Livingston et al., 2012) when expressing pride, however, I expect ratings of black targets in the pride-display condition will be lower than ratings for white targets in that condition.

In my second hypothesis, I focus on stereotypes about black men and how they are perceived as threatening. I expect black men will be rated as less competent in task-oriented leadership when expressing pride than when expressing happiness, as opposed to black women, who will be rated as being *more* competent in task-oriented leadership when expressing pride than when expressing happiness.

There will be an interaction between emotion expression and the expresser's race. Regardless of gender, white targets will benefit more than black targets in terms of task-oriented leadership competence when they express pride rather than happiness.

My third hypothesis falls in line with Brosi et al. (2016), I expect that individuals will be seen as less communal when they express pride than when they express happiness. I also expect an interaction between emotion expression and the target on perceptions of communality, such that the effect of pride expression (compared to

happiness expression) on perceived communality will be stronger when the expresser is a white woman than a black woman and a white man than a black man.

In my fourth hypothesis, I expect that individuals will be rated as less competent in people-oriented leadership when they express pride than when they express happiness. I expect to find an interaction between emotional expression and target race on perceptions of competence in people-oriented leadership, such that the effect of happiness expression compared to the pride expression will be stronger when the expresser is a white woman than a black woman and white man than a black man.

My fifth hypothesis follows Brosi et al.'s (2016) findings, I expect that greater interpersonal hostility will be ascribed to the target when he or she expresses pride than when he or she expresses happiness.

In my sixth hypothesis, I expect an interaction between emotional expression and the target on ascriptions of interpersonal hostility, such that the effect of pride expression, compared to happiness expression, will be stronger when the expresser is a black target than a white target.

METHOD

Participants

The participants of this study were eight hundred and forty-two individuals located in the United States recruited via Amazon's Mechanical Turk (MTURK). There were 549 males, 293 females, 1 non-binary, and 3 who preferred not to answer. They ranged in age from 18 to 84 ($M = 33.97$, $SD = 10.90$). The sample consisted of 39.1% ($n = 356$) Asian, 38.3% ($n = 349$) White Non-Hispanic or Latino, 5.8% ($n = 53$), Hispanic or Latino, 4.3% ($n = 39$) African American, 3.7% ($n = 34$) American Indian or Native Alaskan, 1.5% ($n = 14$) Multi-racial, and 0.2% ($n = 2$) Native Hawaiian. I was granted approval to use human participants by the Institutional Review Board at Missouri State University (see Appendix A).

Procedures

After agreeing to participate in the study, participants were asked to complete an online survey questionnaire about a student awarded a scholarship. The questionnaire presented a picture and a scenario used in Brosi et al.'s (2016) original study. After reading the scenario, participants were presented with scales that assessed their perceptions of the target's agency, communality, task-oriented leadership competence, people-oriented leadership competence, and interpersonal hostility. Participants first read a scenario in which a student had just been awarded an important and highly coveted scholarship for studying abroad. The scenario was accompanied by a photo, which was reportedly taken immediately after the student received the news of his or her

accomplishment. Participants then completed a brief questionnaire with the study measures. MTURK participants were compensated for their participation (\$0.30). The study took each participant about twenty minutes to complete.

Experimental Manipulation

Emotion expression. Emotional expression was manipulated using four pictures and two written scenarios. Pictures of each race and gender displaying pride and happiness were retrieved from the University of California Davis Set of Emotion Expression (UCDSEE) picture set (Tracy, Robins, & Schriber, 2009). Tracy et al. (2009) constructed two different positions of pride. One position depicts arms “akimbo” and the other picture depicts arms raised above the head. Because I wanted to replicate Brosi’s study as closely as possible, I used the same picture the authors used in their study showing the pride expression pictures with arms “akimbo.” The pictures depicting happiness expression showed a male or female individual smiling broadly with arms at their side. The pictures chosen were designed to be as neutral as possible, providing only the information I wanted participants to focus on, in this case emotional expression, race, and gender. Brosi et al. (2016) tested the photos of the white male and female from the same population of participants used for the study and found all targets to be rated comparably on age, intelligence, and attractiveness; for these reasons we used the same photos, and for the black individuals kept this in mind when selecting photos.

Scenarios. Two different scenarios were presented to participants. These scenarios were identical to the ones used in Brosi et al., (2016) study except the proper names of the target were changed to more typical “American” names. (see Appendices B

through I). The names assigned to targets (Ava or William) were different from the names in the original study (Katrin or Andreas) to better fit the predominantly American participant sample.

In the pride condition, the target was described expressing pride as smiling slightly while swelling with pride. In the happiness condition, the target was described as expressing happiness and looks as if unable to contain his or her happiness.

Sex and race of target. Target sex and target race were manipulated by the pictures showing a male target, either black or white, or a female target, either black or white see Appendix B - E.

Dependent Measures

Upon being presented with the scenario and picture, participants were asked to describe what they thought the target was like on a series of 9-point bipolar adjective scales. I used the same scales as Brosi et al. (2016), albeit with slight revisions. Brosi et al.'s original study was a two part study. They made slight changes to the items within scales from the first study to the second study, but they did not mention the reason for doing so. In my study, I used the items from both studies combined in the respective composite scales.

Agency-related measures. Agency was assessed with two scales. One scale measured perceived agency of the target. This was a five-item scale using a 9-point bipolar adjective scale (not self- confident - self-confident, strong- weak, not forceful- forceful, not assertive- assertive, not authoritative- authoritative) see Appendix F.

Respondents were asked to “*Select the circle between the adjectives which best*

represents what you think <the target> is like.” Higher scores indicated higher agency. Internal consistency (Cronbach’s alpha) was .78.

The second scale assessed perceptions of task-oriented leadership competence. This scale consisted of three items (being competitive, letting subordinates know what work is expected from them, being assertive) see Appendix G. Respondents were asked “*How competent do you think <target name> would be in carrying out each of these leadership behaviors?*” Ratings were made on a 7-point scale of 1 (*not competent*) to 7 (*very competent*). Internal consistency was .74.

Communality-related measures. Two scales were used to assess communality. One scale measured perceived communality. This was a four item 9-point bi-polar adjective scale (not understanding - understanding, not supportive – supportive, insensitive - sensitive, not warm - warm) see Appendix F. Respondents were asked to “*Select the circle between the adjectives which best represents what you think <the target> is like.*” Higher scores indicate higher communality. Internal consistency was .89.

The other communality-related scale measured perceptions of people-oriented leadership competence. This scale consisted of four items (being concerned for subordinates’ welfare, facilitating employee development, acknowledging contributions of those working for him/her). Respondents were asked “*How competent do you think <target name> would be in carrying out each of these leadership behaviors?*” Ratings were made on a 7-point scale of 1 (*not competent*) to 7 (*very competent*). Internal consistency was .74.

Interpersonal hostility. Interpersonal hostility was measured with five items (pushy, egotistic, self-serving, aggressive, and threatening). Instructions requested that

“For each descriptor, rate the extent you think it describes <target>.” Ratings were made on a 7-point scale of 1 (*To no extent*) to 7 (*To a very great extent*) see Appendix H.

Internal consistency was .82.

Happiness and pride. Two items were included as manipulation checks (Happy, Proudful). Respondents were asked to rate the extent they thought the descriptors described the target using a 7-point scale of 1 (*To no extent*) to 7 (*To a very great extent*).

The happiness rating was also used as a covariate in the analyses of covariance (ANCOVAs) conducted to test hypotheses.

Research Design

The study was a $2 \times 2 \times 2$ between-groups factorial design, with emotion expression (pride, happy), target sex (male, female), and target race (black, white) as the three independent variables. Brosi et al. (2016) used happiness ratings as a covariate because the pride expression manipulation displayed the target person with “a slight smile;” I controlled for happiness in the same way as Brosi et al. (2016). That is, I conducted ANCOVAs using happiness rating as the covariate to test the hypotheses about the effects of the expression of pride as compared to happiness on both communality and agency related measures. Tabachnick and Fidell (2013) wrote that a useful covariate should be related to the dependent variable and should not be related to the independent variable(s). As shown below, the covariate was related to only one of the three independent variables and was related to all three dependent variables.

I conducted analyses to determine how happiness ratings were related to the independent variables and dependent variables. Ratings of happiness were related to the

emotion expression manipulation, $t(848) = -2.37, p = .018, 95\% CI [-.33, -.03], d = .16$.

However, happiness ratings were not related to sex of target, $t(848) = -.22, p < .830, 95\% CI [-.17, .13], d = .02$, and race of target, $t(848) = -.89, p = .375, 95\% CI [-.22, .08], d = .05$.

Happiness ratings were correlated with all the dependent variables as follows:

agency, $r = .29, p < .001$; communality, $r = .48, p < .001$; task-oriented leadership, $r = .43, p < .001$; people-oriented leadership, $r = .43, p < .001$; and interpersonal hostility, $r = -.20, p < .001$.

RESULTS

All analyses were performed using Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) version 20. The data were screened for multivariate assumptions (normality, linearity, homogeneity, and homoscedasticity). The analyses indicated all multivariate assumptions were met. Data were screened for multivariate outliers using Mahalanobis distance of $p < .001$. Seventeen cases were deleted as outliers.

Composite scores for agency, communality, task-oriented leadership, people-oriented leadership, and interpersonal hostility measures were calculated. Descriptive statistics for all dependent variables are shown in Table 1. Means and standard deviations for each experimental condition are shown in Table 2. Internal consistency reliabilities (Cronbach's alphas) for all composite scales were adequate and are presented in Table 1. Correlations among dependent variables in all conditions are presented in Table 3.

Table 1. Descriptive Statistics for Dependent Variables

Variable	N	Mean	SD	α	Potential		Actual		Skewness	Kurtosis
					Min	Max	Min	Max		
Agency	857	6.67	1.25	.78	1	9	2.40	9.00	-.31	-.24
Communality	857	6.97	1.40	.89	1	9	2.25	9.00	-.56	-.06
TO leadership competence	854	5.55	.95	.74	1	9	2.00	7.00	-.51	-.02
PO leadership competence	854	5.36	1.09	.83	1	9	1.33	7.00	-.55	-.02
Interpersonal hostility	852	3.68	1.27	.82	1	9	1.00	7.00	-.00	-.37

Note. TO = Task- oriented leadership competence, PO = People-oriented leadership competence

Table 2. Means (and Standard Deviations) for Each Experimental Condition

Variable	Happy	Pride
	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>
Perceived agency		
White female targets	6.45 (1.32)	6.67 (1.26)
White male targets	6.72 (1.15)	6.83(1.17)
Black female targets	6.47 (1.22)	6.82 (1.21)
Black male targets	6.26 (1.39)	6.86 (1.18)
All targets	6.55 (1.28)	6.80 (1.20)
Perceived Communality		
White female targets	7.18 (1.36)	6.67 (1.43)
White male targets	7.16 (1.30)	6.76 (1.32)
Black female targets	7.34 (1.30)	7.06 (1.51)
Black male targets	6.74 (1.58)	6.88 (1.26)
All targets	7.11 (1.40)	6.84 (1.39)
Inferred Task - Oriented Leadership Competence		
White female targets	5.49 (.94)	5.55 (.92)
White male targets	5.58 (.87)	5.62 (.96)
Black female targets	5.61 (.95)	5.64 (.88)
Black male targets	5.33 (1.16)	5.55 (.90)
All targets	5.50 (.99)	5.59 (.91)

Note. The table shows estimated marginal means at happiness = 5.05. Standard deviations are depicted in parentheses. Ratings of agency and communality were on 9-point scales, while ratings about leadership competence were on 7-point scales.

Table 2 continued. Means (and Standard Deviations) for Each Experimental Condition

Variables	Happy	Pride
	<i>M (SD)</i>	<i>M (SD)</i>
Inferred People - Oriented Leadership Competence		
White female targets	5.58 (.90)	5.11 (1.21)
White male targets	5.55 (.87)	5.08 (1.21)
Black female targets	5.55 (.88)	5.41 (1.1)
Black male targets	5.30 (1.17)	5.30 (1.08)
All targets	5.50 (.99)	5.23 (1.16)
Ascribed Interpersonal Hostility		
White female targets	3.42 (1.24)	3.89 (1.19)
White male targets	3.59 (1.21)	3.94 (1.27)
Black female targets	3.49 (1.31)	3.66 (1.22)
Black male targets	3.57 (1.39)	3.87 (1.22)
All targets	3.52 (1.29)	3.84 (1.23)

Note. The table shows estimated marginal means at happiness = 5.05. Standard deviations are depicted in parentheses. Ratings of agency and communality were on 9-point scales, while ratings about leadership competence were on 7-point scales.

Table 3. Correlations Among Dependent Variables for All Conditions

Variables		Male				Female			
		Happy		Pride		Happy		Pride	
		Black	White	Black	White	Black	White	Black	White
Agency & Communality		.38**	.42**	.35**	.44**	.61**	.50**	.29**	.35**
Agency & TO		.64**	.58**	.49**	.70**	.70**	.65**	.63**	.71**
Agency & PO		.35**	.28**	.25**	.32**	.44**	.43**	.31**	.31**
Agency & IH		.30**	.27**	.17	.19*	.24**	.20**	.27**	.15
Communality & TO		.50**	.52**	.42**	.52**	.60**	.65**	.42**	.39**
Communality & PO		.71**	.62**	.66**	.79**	.64**	.69**	.69**	.65**
Communality & IH		-.38**	-.05	-.28**	-.36**	-.14**	-.19*	-.39**	-.33**
TO & PO		.55**	.54**	.47**	.40**	.59**	.62**	.57**	.53**
TO & IH		.04	.16	-.09	.04	.04	-.08	-.17	-.11
PO & IH		-.30**	-.16	-.32**	-.40**	-.11	-.18	-.39**	-.25**

Note. TO = Task-oriented leadership competence. PO = People-oriented leadership competence. IH = Interpersonal Hostility.
 * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$

Preliminary Analyses

Manipulation Checks. Participants reported the targets expressed more pride in the pride conditions ($M = 5.24$) than in the happiness conditions ($M = 4.74$), $t(848) = -2.36$, $p = .018$, $d = .42$. Participants reported the targets expressed more happiness in the happiness conditions ($M = 6.08$) than in the pride conditions ($M = 5.89$), $t(850) = 4.86$, $p < .001$, $d = .15$. Although the mean differences were statistically significant, the very small effect sizes indicate the differences are also very small. The statistically significant differences are a function of the size of the sample.

Participant sex. Analyses were conducted to determine if participant sex played a role in differences in ratings of the targets. The analyses showed that participant sex was significant in all of the analyses, but the effect sizes were very small. Because participant sex was not the focus of the research and, in addition, the magnitudes of participant sex effects were negligible, participant sex was not examined in this study.

Hypothesis Tests

Hypothesis 1. Hypothesis one predicted that white targets and black targets would be rated as more agentic when pride was expressed than when happiness was expressed. I expected that black targets would be rated lower on agency compared to white targets on both emotional expression and happiness. Table 4 presents the results of the ANCOVA for perceived agency. There was no support for hypothesis one. There were no differences in ratings of agency by target race and emotional expression. There was a main effect for emotional expression. Targets were rated as more agentic ($M = 7.41$, $SD =$

1.07) when pride was expressed compared to when happiness was expressed ($M=7.11$, $SD = 1.22$).

Table 4. Summary of Analysis of Covariance: Perceived Agency

Source	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	η^2
Independent variables				
Expressed emotions (EE)	20.27	1	14.27**	.017
Target sex (TS)	.00	1	.00	.000
Target race (TR)	.07	1	.05	.000
EE \times TS	1.42	1	1.00	.001
EE \times TR	.53	1	.37	.000
TS \times TR	7.70	1	5.42*	.006
TS \times TR \times EE	2.76	1	1.94	.002
Covariate				
Perceived Happiness	109.83	1	77.31**	.084
Error	1193.36	840		

Note. $N = 842$; SS = sum of squares.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$

There was a significant interaction between target sex and target race for agency. This interaction is shown in Figure 1. White male targets were rated higher on agency ($M = 6.76$, $SD = 1.15$) than black male targets ($M = 6.59$, $SD = 1.39$). The converse was true for females, white female targets were rated lower on agency ($M = 6.57$, $SD = 1.32$) than black female targets ($M = 6.78$, $SD = 1.22$). Post hoc analysis showed no significant differences of ratings for target race by sex: black target, $t(429) = -1.70$, $p = .090$, 95% CI $[-.45, .03]$, $d = .17$, and white target $t(424) = 1.81$, $p = .071$, 95% CI $[-.02, .45]$, $d = .18$. The second post hoc test examined target sex by race: male target, $t(427) = -1.71$, $p <$

.088, 95% *CI* [-.44, .03], $d = .17$, and female target, $t(426) = 1.80$, $p = .073$, 95% *CI* [-.02, .45], $d = .18$.

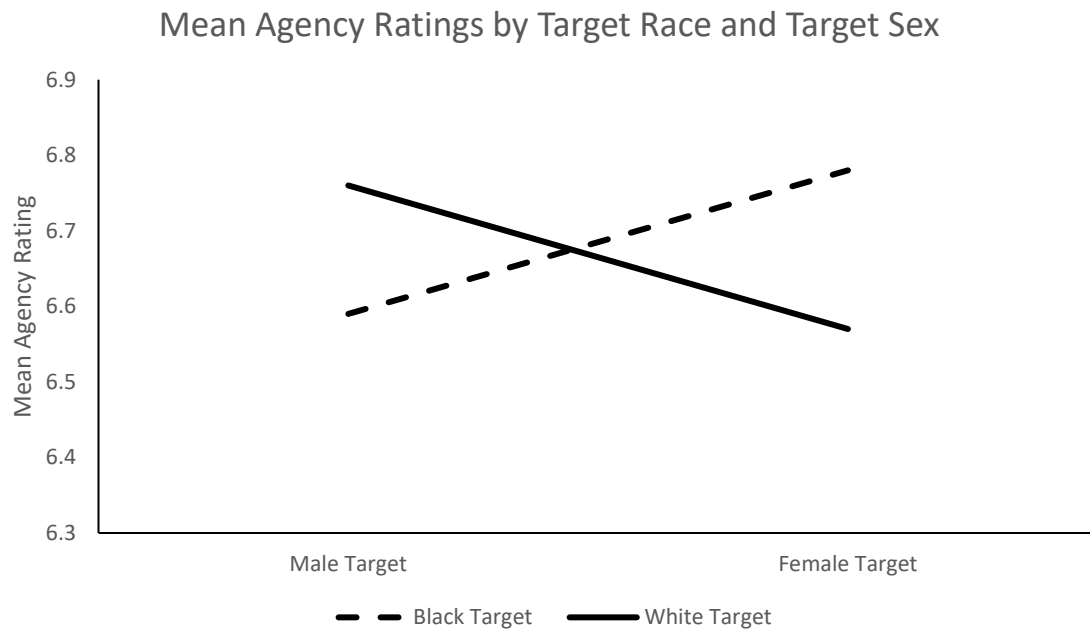


Figure 1. Mean agency ratings for male and female targets by race.

Hypothesis 2. Hypothesis two predicted a three-way interaction among expression, race, and sex. I expected that white targets would be rated as more competent in task-oriented leadership when they express pride than when they express happiness. Black men would be rated as being less competent in task-oriented leadership when expressing pride than when expressing happiness, as opposed to black women who would be rated as more competent in task-oriented leadership when expressing pride than when expressing happiness. The results of the ANCOVA for inferred task-oriented leadership competence is represented in Table 5. There was no support for this hypothesis.

Table 5. Summary of Analysis of Covariance Inferred Task-Oriented Leadership Competence

Source	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	η^2
Independent variables				
Expressed emotions (EE)	5.11	1	6.91*	.008
Target sex (TS)	.32	1	.43	.001
Target race (TR)	3.89	1	.00	.000
EE \times TS	.13	1	.18	.000
EE \times TR	.00	1	.00	.000
TS \times TR	2.10	1	2.84	.003
TS \times TR \times EE	1.08	1	.00	.000
Covariate				
Perceived Happiness	146.92	1	198.63**	.190
Error	622.06	841		

Note. $N = 842$; *SS* = sum of squares.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$

There was a main effect for emotional expression. After controlling for happiness, ratings for targets in the pride condition ($M = 5.53$, $SD = 0.92$) were higher than ratings for targets in the happy condition ($M = 5.47$, $SD = 0.99$).

Hypothesis 3. Hypothesis three predicted that white targets and black targets would be rated as less communal when pride was expressed than when happiness was express. I expected that black targets would be rated lower on communality compared to white targets on both emotional expression and happiness. Table 6 presents the results of the ANCOVA for perceived communality. There was no support for hypothesis three. There were no differences in ratings of communality by target race and emotional expression.

Table 6. Summary of Analysis of Covariance: Perceived Communal

Source	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	η^2
Independent variables				
Expressed emotions (EE)	5.42	1	3.58	.004
Target sex (TS)	5.73	1	3.78	.004
Target race (TR)	2.37	1	1.56	.002
EE \times TS	2.29	1	1.51	.002
EE \times TR	3.71	1	2.45	.003
TS \times TR	5.23	1	3.45	.004
TS \times TR \times EE	.00	1	.04	.000
Covariate				
Perceived Happiness	362.76	1	239.61*	.222
Error	1271.73	840		

Note. $N = 842$; SS = sum of squares.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$

There was a main effect for emotional expression. Targets were rated as less communal ($M = 6.90$, $SD = 1.39$) when pride was expressed compared to when happiness was expressed ($M = 7.06$, $SD = 1.40$).

Hypothesis 4. Hypothesis four predicted that white targets and black targets would be rated as less competent in people-oriented leadership tasks when pride was expressed than when happiness was expressed. I expected that black targets would be rated lower on competence in people-oriented leadership tasks compared to white targets on both emotion expression and happiness. Table 7 presents the results of the ANCOVA for inferred people-oriented leadership competence. There was no support for Hypothesis four. There were no differences in ratings of competence in people-oriented leadership by target race and emotional expression.

Table 7. Summary of Analysis of Covariance: Inferred People-Oriented Leadership Competence

Source	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	η^2
Independent variables				
Expressed emotions (EE)	8.00	1	8.37*	.010
Target sex (TS)	2.00	1	2.09	.002
Target race (TR)	1.42	1	1.48	.002
EE \times TS	.01	1	.01	.000
EE \times TR	5.24	1	5.48*	.006
TS \times TR	.31	1	.33	.000
TS \times TR \times EE	.19	1	.20	.000
Covariate				
Perceived Happiness	128.27	1	186.45*	.180
Error	804.09	841		

Note. $N = 842$; *SS* = sum of squares.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

There was a main effect for emotional expression. Targets were rated as less competent on people-oriented leadership ($M = 5.26$, $SD = 1.16$) when pride was expressed compared to when happiness was expressed ($M = 5.45$, $SD = .99$).

There was a significant interaction between emotion and target race on perceived competence in people-oriented leadership tasks. This interaction is shown in Figure 2. According to the table of means, white targets expressing pride were rated lower ($M = 5.14$, $SD = .99$) on people-oriented leadership competence than black targets expressing pride ($M = 5.38$, $SD = .99$). Conversely, white targets expressing happiness were rated higher ($M = 5.49$, $SD = 1.16$) on people-oriented leadership competence than black targets ($M = 5.42$, $SD = 1.16$). Post hoc analysis showed no significant differences on ratings of the target by sex; black target, $t(429) = -1.72$, $p = .086$, 95% *CI* [-.38, .02], $d = .16$, and

white target $t(421) = -0.28, p = .782, 95\% CI [-.24, .18], d = .04$. The second post hoc analysis examined differences by race and also yielded no significant differences; male target, $t(425) = -0.10, p < .921, 95\% CI [-.23, .20], d = .01$, and female target, $t(425) = 1.34, p = .181, 95\% CI [-.06, .34], d = .12$.

Hypothesis 5 and 6. Hypothesis five predicted that white targets and black targets would be rated as more interpersonally hostile when pride was expressed than when happiness was expressed. Hypothesis six predicted that there would be an interaction between emotional expression and the target on ascriptions of interpersonal hostility, such that the effect of pride expression, compared to happiness expression, would be stronger when the expresser was a black target than a white target. Table 8 presents the results of the ANCOVA for ascribed interpersonal hostility. There was no support for Hypotheses five and six. There were no differences in ascriptions of interpersonal hostility by target race and emotional expression.

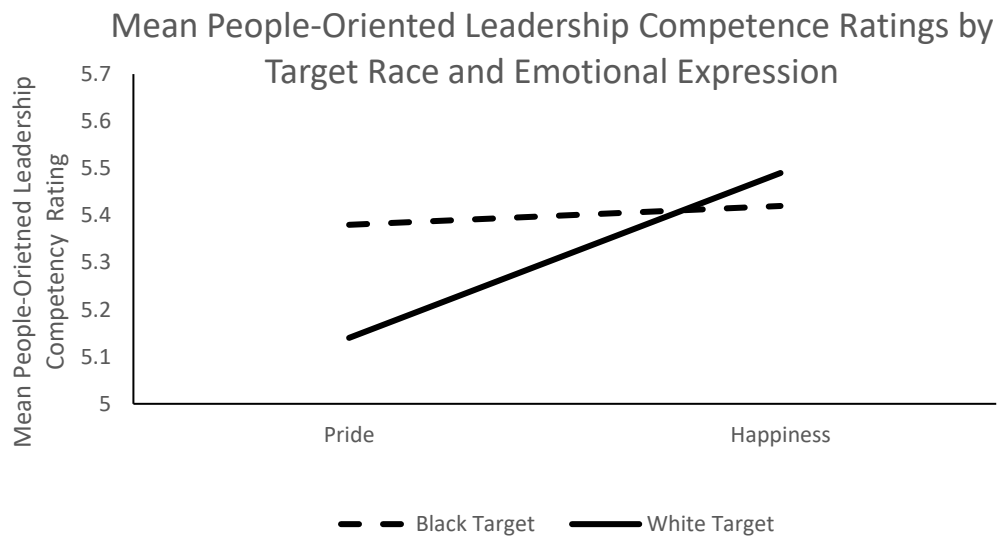


Figure 2. Means for ratings of people-oriented leadership task competence.

There was a main effect for emotional expression. Targets were rated as more interpersonally hostile ($M = 3.82$, $SD = 1.23$) when pride was expressed compared to when happiness was expressed ($M = 3.54$, $SD = 1.29$).

Table 8. Summary of Analysis of Covariance: Ascribed Interpersonal Hostility

Source	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	η^2
Independent variables				
Expressed emotions (EE)	15.78	1	10.26**	.012
Target sex (TS)	3.00	1	1.95	.002
Target race (TR)	1.18	1	.76	.001
EE \times TS	.07	1	.04	.000
EE \times TR	1.16	1	.75	.001
TS \times TR	.01	1	.00	.000
TS \times TR \times EE	1.81	1	1.17	.001
Covariate				
Perceived Happiness	51.57	1	33.52*	.003
Error	1293.63	841		

Note. $N = 842$; *SS* = sum of squares.

* $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$

DISCUSSION

This study intended to replicate a study conducted by Brosi et al. (2016); however, this study aimed to extend that research by examining both race and gender effects on perceived agency and communality. The only consistent finding in this study was the main effect of emotional expression for each of the dependent variables. This was similar to the findings from Brosi et al. (2016). The effects of the expression of emotion on the dependent variables were the most reliable finding in their study as well.

In this research, little evidence was found for an influence of sex on the ratings of the targets, in contrast with Brosi et al. (2016), who found that women showing pride were not seen as less agentic or less competent in task-oriented leadership.

I did not find evidence for race-based effects on the ratings of the targets. I expected to find a backlash effect against all women, but especially black women. Although ratings of agency for black women were higher than for white women, this difference was not significant. White men were rated higher than black men for perceptions of agency, but, again, the difference was not significant.

I expected to find a backlash effect for all women in ratings of task-oriented leadership, but no support was found for my hypothesis. These backlash effects, that I expected to find are based on gender stereotypes mentioned in previous research. For instance, in a laboratory and assessment settings, there was a stronger tendency for more gender stereotypic styles to occur—men being more task-oriented and women being more interpersonally oriented, leading them to approach leadership styles with ‘gender-

congruent-shading, per Eagly et al.(2001) by which men behaved agentically and women communally.

According to Rudman and Glick (1999), women tend to be communal and the attributes associated with this tend to have advantages for women in the workplace. Referring back to the Brosi et al. (2016) study, I concluded that there would be lower ratings for perceptions of communality for males and higher ratings for perceptions of communality for females. Because of information found in previous research on communality, and stereotypes, it also led me to speculate that black individuals (both men and women) would be viewed as less communal than their white counterparts. Within this study, there was no evidence to back this up, although there was a main effect showing the expression of pride leading to lower ratings of communality than the expression of happiness.

Rudman and Glick (1999) posit that communal attributes consist of being kind, caring, warm, considerate, friendly, respectful, and having a concern for others over self. Rossette and Tost (2010) shared the belief that communal traits and behaviors tend to overlap with that of people-oriented leadership attributes, and are valued leadership characteristics. This led me to believe that ratings for white women would be high for competency in people-oriented leadership. Based on Wingfield's (2007) "angry black man and angry black woman" stereotype, I expected lower ratings for black men and women on competency of people-oriented leadership. Within this study, there was no evidence to support this, although there was a main effect showing the expression of pride leading to lower ratings of people-oriented leadership than the expression of happiness. Still, results indicated a significant emotion expression X race interaction,

whereby white targets expressing pride were rated *lower* than black targets expressing pride on people-oriented leadership. On the other hand, the reverse of this was found when white targets expressed happiness, such that they were rated higher than black individuals expressing happiness on people oriented leadership. Although interesting, this interaction pattern was not predicted, and further research will be needed to both replicate and explain the observed interaction.

Sidanius and Pratto's (2001) research examined the idea of black men not being as employable or controllable within the workplace as black women, thus being classified as a "threat." It is pertinent to mention Wingfield's (2007) stereotype research again, because the "angry black man and angry black woman" attribute led me to believe greater interpersonal hostility would be ascribed to black individuals than white individuals. My results, however, yielded no significant findings on interpersonal hostility, except for a main effect of expressed emotion, such that when pride was expressed ratings for interpersonal hostility were higher than when happiness was expressed. That finding was not surprising, as pride is sometimes an expression of social dominance (Tracey & Phren, 2012).

The use of an online marketplace to recruit participants is a limitation of this study. I used a sample of participants recruited from MTurk, which is a crowdsourcing internet marketplace. Participants from MTurk are considered workers. Because I was a requester asking for labor, I can also refuse to pay anyone who provides inaccurate work. I did not find evidence of such, but my screening technique may not have uncovered participants who did not carefully attend to the manipulation and, thus, gave inaccurate responses to the manipulation.

The method of utilizing pictures and written descriptions to depict target emotions may limit the generalizability of my results. It would be interesting to use videos to communicate pride reactions and to have variations among the targets who display pride, and to vary the pride-inducing accomplishment. Although happiness was used as a control condition, it would be useful to test these ideas about pride expression by using a different control condition other than happiness, perhaps using the emotional expression of surprise.

These findings raise numerous questions that need to be addressed in future research. Though the initial expression of pride was considered universally understood, and universally expressed, there is additional information that is conveyed about pride expressers, for instance, their arrogance or demeanor of superiority (Tracey & Phren, 2012) that can lead to decisive differences in reactions to those pride expressers. Clearly, reactions to pride expressions are context-specific.

Additional questions concern the preconceived or underlying thoughts and feelings about people of different races and genders. Specifically, if there are any negative perceptions or any underlying prejudices of a certain gender or race and if there are how do these compare to perceptions. Race effects will be more pronounced among people higher in implicit prejudice, and so a future iteration of this study might combine the IAT and scenarios to see if implicit prejudice is associated with explicit reactions to black vs. white pride/happiness expressers.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A

IRB APPROVAL SHEET



To:
Michelle Visio
Psychology

RE: Notice of IRB Approval

Submission Type: Initial

Study #: IRB-FY2017-255

Study Title: Self-esteem and envy: Do these feelings lead to behaviors of gender-specific harassment from female supervisors?

Decision: Approved

Approval Date: Oct 5, 2016

Expiration Date: Oct 4, 2017

This submission has been approved by the Missouri State University Institutional Review Board (IRB) for the period indicated.

Federal regulations require that all research be reviewed at least annually. It is the Principal Investigator's responsibility to submit for renewal and obtain approval before the expiration date. You may not continue any research activity beyond the expiration date without IRB approval. Failure to receive approval for continuation before the expiration date will result in automatic termination of the approval for this study on the expiration date.

You are required to obtain IRB approval for any changes to any aspect of this study before they can be implemented. Should any adverse event or unanticipated problem involving risks to subjects or others occur it must be reported immediately to the IRB.

This study was reviewed in accordance with federal regulations governing human subjects research, including those found at 45 CFR 46 (Common Rule), 45 CFR 164 (HIPAA), 21 CFR 50 & 56 (FDA), and 40 CFR 26 (EPA), where applicable.

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Appendix B

Condition: Black Female Happy

Good leadership is composed of many types of behavior—different ones are required in different situations, and leaders typically handle some of these leadership behaviors better than others. Indicators of what type of leader an individual is going to be can be very subtle. Sometimes information from a single instance can provide a sense of what a person is like and the aspects of leadership for which they will excel and the aspects of leadership for which they will not. We are interested in these indicators and how universal they are in producing leadership expectations.

In the following paragraph you will find such a potential instance in form of a scenario, which describes an experience in a management student's life.

This semester Ava has applied for a scholarship to study abroad at a very well-known business school. The scholarship has a very good endowment and therefore, a lot of other students have applied for the scholarship. But, overall only three scholarships are granted.

The application procedure consisted of a written application and a very intensive interview, which took place about one month ago—since then, the probability that the names of the scholarship receivers are published, has risen with every day. When the list is finally published, Ava is sitting in a big lecture. After one student has noticed the list, all students, who applied for the scholarship, begin to retrieve the list.



When Ava sees the list, she realizes that she received the highly sought-after scholarship. She has to take a second look at the list before she turns to the other students to tell them the news.

In this moment Ava is very happy about her achievement. Ava expresses a big smile and looks as if not being able to contain her happiness.

Please try to visualize the situation as detailed as possible.

Appendix C

Condition: White Male Pride

Good leadership is composed of many types of behavior—different ones are required in different situations, and leaders typically handle some of these leadership behaviors better than others. Indicators of what type of leader an individual is going to be can be very subtle. Sometimes information from a single instance can provide a sense of what a person is like and the aspects of leadership for which they will excel and the aspects of leadership for which they will not. We are interested in these indicators and how universal they are in producing leadership expectations.

In the following paragraph you will find such a potential instance in form of a scenario, which describes an experience in a management student's life.

This semester William has applied for a scholarship to study abroad at a very well-known business school. The scholarship has a very good endowment and therefore, a lot of other students have applied for the scholarship. But, overall only three scholarships are granted.

The application procedure consisted of a written application and a very intensive interview, which took place about one month ago—since then, the probability that the names of the scholarship receivers are published, has risen with every day. When the list is finally published, William is sitting in a big lecture. After one student has noticed the list, all students, who applied for the scholarship, begin to retrieve the list.



When William sees the list, he realizes that he received the highly sought-after scholarship. He has to take a second look at the list before he turns to the other students to tell them the news. .

In this moment William is very proud of himself and his achievement. William expresses a small smile and looks as if swelling with pride.

Please try to visualize the situation as detailed as possible.

Appendix D

Condition: Pride



Appendix E

Condition: Happy



Appendix F

Agency and Communality Scale

Questions are rated on a 9-point bi-polar adjective scale. Ratings from (1) disagree strongly to (9) agree strongly.

Directions: On the scales below, please indicate your feelings about (Ava/William). Circle the number between the adjectives which best represents your feelings about (her/him). Numbers "1" and "7" indicate a very strong feeling. Numbers "2" and "6" indicate a strong feeling. Numbers "3" and "5" indicate a fairly weak feeling. Number "4" indicates you are undecided or do not understand the adjectives themselves. There are no right or wrong answers.

Not self-confident	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Self-confident
Not Forceful	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Forceful
Weak	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Strong
Not Authorative	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Authorative

Not understanding	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Understanding
Not supportive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Supportive
Insensitive	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Sensitive
Not warm	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	Warm

Appendix G

Leadership Competence Scale

Questions are rated on a 7 point scale, with ratings from (1) not competent (7) very competent.

Directions: How competent do you think (Ava/William) would be in carrying out each of these leadership behaviors? (1- not competent, 7 – very competent)

Being competitive

Not competent 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very Competent

Letting subordinates know what work is expected from them

Not competent 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very Competent

Being assertive

Not competent 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very Competent

Being concerned for subordinates welfare

Not competent 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very Competent

Facilitating employee development

Not competent 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very Competent

Acknowledging contributions of those working for him/her

Not competent 1 2 3 4 5 6 7 Very Competent

Appendix H

Interpersonal Hostility Scale

Questions are rated on a 7 point scale, with ratings from (1) to no extent (7) to a very great extent.

Directions: For each descriptor, rate the extent you think it describes (Ava/ William).

Pushy

To no extent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	To a very great extent
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Egotistic

To no extent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	To a very great extent
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Self-serving

To no extent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	To a very great extent
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Aggressive

To no extent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	To a very great extent
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Threatening

To no extent	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	To a very great extent
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