Perceived Ambivalent Sexism and Ambivalence Towards Men in China

—The Effects of Ambivalent Sexism on Individuals and

on the Perception of Gender Roles—

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A Dissertation Presented to

the Graduate School of Arts and Sciences,

International Christian University,

for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

国際基督教大学 大学院

アーツ・サイエンス研究科提出博士論文

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Abstract

This dissertation investigates the recognition and implications of ambivalent sexism and ambivalence toward men on individuals and perceptions of gender roles among young adults in China. The study is grounded in the Ambivalent Sexism Theory (Glick & Fiske, 1996) and the Ambivalence Toward Men Inventory (Glick & Fiske, 1999), which posit the simultaneous existence of two contradictory attitudes—hostility and benevolence—towards both men and women. Hostile sexism (HS) involves overt hostility and negative views towards women, while benevolent sexism (BS) encompasses seemingly positive emotions and protective attitudes that reinforce traditional gender roles by portraying women as weak and in need of protection. Similarly, hostility toward men (HM) comprises explicitly negative attitudes towards men, often arising from gender-based power disparities, whereas benevolence toward men (BM) embodies ostensibly positive or affectionate attitudes, predicated on the perception of men as guardians of women, whom they view as 'pure' and necessitating male protection. Although the concept of ambivalent sexism has been extensively developed and studied in Western nations, research on this topic in China remains limited. Particularly, there is a critical gap in the investigation of men's ambivalent attitudes, which has only recently begun to receive attention in China at the beginning of the 21st century.

This dissertation comprises three studies and their discussions. Study 1 investigates how young adults in China recognize hostility and benevolence toward both females and males and examines whether BS and BM are more challenging to identify as sexist compared to HS and HM. Study 2 explores the implications of HS and BS on individuals, particularly in terms of aggression, achievement motivation, and academic performance. Study 3 develops a

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new scale for measuring ambivalence toward men, the Chinese version of the AMI, tailored to the modern Chinese cultural context. Additionally, Study 3 examines gender differences in sexist attitudes and how HS, BS, HM, and BM influence perceptions of traditional and non-traditional gender roles. Each study was conducted using questionnaires, resulting in sample sizes of 207, 269, and 523 participants, respectively.

In Study 1, benevolent sexist attitudes toward both sexes (BS and BM) were perceived as significantly less sexist compared to hostile sexist attitudes (HS and HM). Moreover, male participants perceived benevolent sexist attitudes toward women (BS) as sexism toward men, while female participants also perceived BM as sexism toward women. In Study 2, hostile sexism exhibited varied effects on aggression, achievement motivation, and academic performance based on participants' sex. Hostile sexism (HS) mediated aggression and increased fear of failure among males, while benevolent sexism towards women (BS) directly impacted achievement motivation among females. Study 3's factor analysis led to the development of a new Ambivalence Toward Men Scale reflecting unique ambivalent sexist attitudes toward men in contemporary Chinese culture. Male participants scored higher in HS, BS, BM, and lower in HM compared to female participants. Among male participants, hostile sexism towards women (HS) correlated with negative evaluations of both traditional and non-traditional female gender roles, whereas such associations were not significant among female participants.

The general discussion integrates findings from all three studies, illuminating the recognition of sexism in contemporary China and the mechanisms behind the psychological impacts of individual sexist attitudes on men and women.

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要旨

本論文は，中国の若年成人における性差別的態度の認知と個人への影響を明らかにすることを目的とするものである。アンビバレント・セクシズム理論（Ambivalent Sexism Theory）とアンビバレンス・トワーズ・メン（Glick & Fiske,1996; Glick & Fiske,1999）を基づいて男女に対する好意的性差別態度と敵意的性差別態度を研究する。敵対的性差別態度(HS)とは，女性に対する明確な敵意や否定的な見解を含み，一方，好意的性差別態度(BS)は，女性を弱く保護が必要な存在として描き，伝統的な性別役割を強化する一見ポジティブな感情や保護的態度を含む。同様に，男性に対する敵意(HM)は，しばしば性別に基づく権力の不均衡から生じた明確に否定的な態度である。男性に対する好意(BM)は，女性を純粋で保護が必要な存在と見なす男性を守護者として捉えた，一見ポジティブまたは愛情深い態度を体現する。アンビバレント・セクシズムの概念は西洋諸国で広く発展・研究されてきたが，このテーマに関する中国での研究はまだ限られている。これまで中国本土の若年成人を対象として，性差別的態度について検討した研究はほとんど行われておらず、その実態と心理的影響については明らかになっていない。

BS および BM が HS および HM と比較してセクシズムとして認識されにくいかどうかを検証した。研究 2 は，個人に対する HS および BS の影響，特に攻撃性，達成動機，および学業成績に関する影響を探求した。研究 3 では，中国の現代文化に適応した，男性に対する両価的態度を測定する新しい尺度（中国版 AMI）を開発した。さらに，研究 3 では，性差別的態度の性差および HS, BS, HM, BM が伝統的および非伝統的な性別役割の認識にどの

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ように影響するかを検討した。各研究は質問票を用いて実施され，それぞれ 207, 269, および 523 人のサンプルサイズが得られた。

　　本論文は 3 つの研究とその総合考察から構成され，研究 1 では，中国の若年成人の性差別的態度の認知について，男女両方の性に対する敵意的・好意的性差別態度について、どの程度性差別と認知されいるかを検討し，BS および BM が HS および HM と比較してセクシズムとして認識されにくいかどうかを検証した。研究2おいては，中国の若者の女性への性差別的度（HS と BS）が個人にどのような影響を与えるかについて，攻弊性，達成動機および学業達成との関連を検討した。さらに，研究3おいては，中国の現代文化に適応される男性に対する性差別態度の評価尺度（中国語版 AMI）を開発した。中国の若者女両方の性への性差別的態度（HS, BS,HM, および BM）が，典型的・非典型的な性別役割の評価とように関連するかを検討した。研究 1 は 207 名，研究 2 は 269 名，研究 3 は 523 名の参加者を対象に，全てオンラインによる質問紙によって実施された。

　　研究 1 において，女性と男性に対する好意的性差別度（BS と BM）は，それぞれの性に対する敵意的性差別態度（HS と HM）と比較して有意に性差別として認知されないことが示された。さらに，男性参加者において女性への好意的性差別態度が男性への性差別と認知されることが示されたが，女性参加者において男性への好意的態度が女性への性差別と認知されることが示された。研究 2 においては，敵意的性差別態度は，参加者の性別に応じて攻撃性，達成動機，および学業達成に異なる影響を及ぼすことが示された。男性参加者において女性への敵意的性差別態度（HS）は攻撃性を媒介し失敗への恐怖を増大させた。一方，女性参加者においては，女性への好意的性差別態度（BS）は達成動機に直接的にネガ

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ティブな影響を及ぼしたが，敵意的性差別態度(HS)は達成動機を低下させなかった。さらに，研究 3 において，因子分析を用いて中国版の新しいアンビバレント・セクシズム尺度を開発した。その結果，中国文化に特有と考えられる男性へのアンビバレントな性差別態度が明らかになった。また，男性参加者において，女性に対する敵意的性差別態度(HS)は，非伝統的な女性の性別役割(主な稼ぎ手)に対する否定的評価だけでなく，伝統的な女性の性別役割(子どもの世話をする者)に対する否定的評価とも関連していた。一方，女性参加者にはそのような有意な関連性は見られなかった。総合考察においては三つの研究の知見が総合的に考察された。現代の中国における性差別の認の実態を明らかにし，個人の性差別的態度が与える心理的影響について男女それぞれの機序について察を行った。今後，中国におけるジェンダーのコンフリクトの増大について，より全面的に探究し分析するためには，両性に対するアンビバレントな態度を理解することが不可欠だと思われる。

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Chapter 1. Introduction

1.1 Background Introduction

Since the reform and opening up in China, the social status of Chinese women has improved dramatically, and the gender gap in politics, economy, health and education has been narrowing, reaching its peak in 2008, when it was ranked 57th in the world (World Economic Forum, 2008). Such a growth curve is consistent with the explanation that two main root causes affecting gender inequality are the lack of economic development and the sexist perception presented by the society brought about the social culture. This confirms that economic development has brought about significant progress in gender equality in China. However, the report of Global Gender Gap in 2021 from the World Economic Forum (2021) showed that China now ranks 107th out of 155 countries for the gender gap, falling for 12 consecutive years since 2008. Despite the swift economic progress witnessed during the reform era, the equitable distribution of these advancements remains elusive. Rather, the economic reforms implemented have entrenched gender disparities. These disparities are underpinned by socio-biologically ingrained divergent perceptions of gender, a phenomenon that has been articulated in various forms since the nascent years of the People's Republic of China and has exhibited minimal fundamental changes over time (Greehalgh, 2010). According to the above information, it is not difficult to understand that in addition to the reasons for the lack of economic development, the role of sexism affecting gender inequality must be considered. Socialism in China advocated for the increased participation of women in

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the workforce and, at least in theory, emphasized gender equality as a mechanism for societal modernization. However, China is still a rather traditional, patriarchal society, that is sexism is a pervasive issue in China, where traditional gender roles and cultural norms continue to influence societal attitudes towards women.

During the one-child policy, which was in effect from 1979 to 2015, sexism in China led to a preference for male children, mainly because that many Chinese people thought they must have a boy as a successor and some of them used abortion to choose the babies' sex, resulting that the female birth rate is much lower than the male birth rate (Loh & Remick,2015). According to the National Bureau of Statistics (2020) in China, currently, there are 34.9 million more males than females, showing a gender imbalance compared to other countries. During adolescence and adulthood, males exhibit a higher propensity for criminal behavior, and societies characterized by a disproportionate male population often experience elevated crime rates, thus exerting a more pronounced detrimental influence on societal security (Denno, 1994). Jiang & Li (2011) found that every time the gender ratio of the population increases by 0.01 (the normal ratio is 1.06), the crime rate increases by 3.03% from 1990 to 2005 in China. The gender imbalance in China caused by sexism has largely contributed to the increase in crime rates, posing a threat to social security.

The phenomenon of many young men in rural areas having difficulty in choosing a spouse and getting married, as well as the problem of "leftover women" in metropolitan areas, which could also be understood as one of the consequences of gender imbalance has become a hot topic of discussion in China in the past decade (Liu & Guo, 1999; Zhang & Zhong, 2005). Previous research studying on leftover women and men in China has shown that the differences between the two groups is that most men have a need to get married, while a large percentage of women no longer have a need to get married (Li, 2003). Moreover, the increase

in men who are unable to get married, as opposed to the increase in leftover women, causing more harm to society, such as women trafficking, sexual crimes, consanguineous marriages, high-priced marriages, etc (Li & Du, 2009). Based on the above information, we infer that the reason for the social conflict of different expectation between gender and not being able to get married male is not only due to the gender imbalance, but that the gender consciousness, marriage perception, and gender attitudes of Chinese men and women are no longer in sync. In summary, while much research has been conducted on the practical aspects of gender inequality in China (He, 2015; Zhou, 2007), the current research will be conducted on sexism, which is the psychological aspects of gender inequality.

1.2 Research Purposes

The issues of sexism and gender equality are significant concerns across numerous disciplines, including sociology, psychology, management, and political science. Scholars from these varied academic backgrounds have conducted theoretical analyses, empirical studies, and developed countermeasures from their distinct perspectives. Given the complexity and importance of these issues, conducting a comprehensive and in-depth study can be challenging. This study aims to investigate, analyze, and explore the manifestations of sexism and the mechanisms through which it impacts individuals and society, specifically from the perspective of ambivalent sexism, as measured by the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (ASI), which includes hostile sexism (HS) and benevolent sexism (BS), within the field of social psychology.

Research examining individual and cultural variances in sexism reveals notable consistencies alongside specific disparities in HS and BS across various cultural, religious, and societal strata. The gender-specific nature of divergent perceptions of sexism has engendered

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numerous contentious issues in China, embodying varying degrees of gender opposition. For instance, disputes regarding relationships often stem from differing expectations surrounding marriage and interpersonal dynamics. Debates concerning gendered perspectives on sexist advertising slogans, the roles of full-time mothers versus working women, and even fundamental inquiries such as "Does China afford women a higher status than men?" have sparked contentious discussions about gender relations. Given the premise that prejudice must be recognized before it can be effectively addressed as an underlying cause of societal inequality (Jost & Major, 2001), this study aims to probe Chinese individuals' perceptions of sexism by assessing their capacity to discern both hostile and benevolent forms of sexism.

Gender discrimination plays a negative role at the individual level and at the societal level. At the individual level, sexist environments or sexist culture affect the personal traits (Barreto & Ellemers, 2005), mental health, values of marriage, and women's development etc. Sexism stands apart from other forms of inequality due to the intricate and pervasive nature of interactions between men and women within familial, household, and other societal roles (Ridgeway & Smith-Lovin, 1999), led to different effects on male and female. Perceived sexism harms psychological well-being among women but not among men (Schmitt et al., 2002). Traditional environment with sexist value hinders girls' academic goals, and women's achievement motivation in the major of science, engineer etc. (Spears & Leaper, 2010). Brandt (2011) has shown that the more sexist culture was exposed to the more sexist behaviors and sexist attitudes they performed. Individuals' sexist attitudes affect men and women in different ways. For example, mothers' gender attitudes are more likely to shape the gender perspectives of the next generation (Dhar et al., 2018). On the other hand, in developing country households, fathers' sexist attitudes affect children in a way that fathers have more decision-making power in the distribution of household inputs (e.g., education).

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In summary, the current study will investigate the impact of sexism on individuals in two ways: how exposure to different sexist environments affects men and women in terms of their self-perception and how individually held sexist attitudes affect psychological variables. There are many studies that have been done in the past on the harm caused to women, and this study will test whether the same theories from the past are applicable to modern China with its unique eastern culture. Similarly, using the model inferred from previous studies as a basis, this study will also test whether sexist attitudes are equally harmful to men, affecting their academic achievement and achievement motivation mediated by aggression.

Moreover, sexism affects the tendency of social value, and the formation of the concept of gender roles and values in the whole society (Glick & Fiske, 2000). Sexism is intricately linked to gender dynamics, as it incentivizes women who conform to traditional feminine traits, such as nurturing and passivity, through the mechanism of sexism (Toller et al., 2004). Moreover, female assertiveness and autonomy are often viewed as conflicting with conventional sexual norms, as they are seen to challenge traditional sexual scripts, particularly in heterosexual relationships (Rudman & Fairchild, 2007).

At a time when gender conflicts and gender issues are being hotly debated more and more frequently in life and on the internet, there are increasing incidents of gender confrontation in Chinese society. Men's misunderstanding and prejudice against women are getting deeper and deeper. On Weibo, the most extensive social media platform in China, a multitude of prejudiced comments directed towards women and instances of conflict between genders are observed on a regular basis. Similarly, following repeated occurrences of marital discord and reports of gender-based violence, women's misconceptions and biases against men are becoming more pronounced. In response to these misogynistic attitudes, discussions surrounding male-misogynistic themes are also gaining traction in China. As proposed by

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Glick and Fiske (1999), women may harbor resentment towards men's exploitation of power, yet simultaneously, their reliance on men fosters an environment that perpetuates and accommodates such behaviors.

Considering that the role of ambivalent attitudes toward men has begun to play an important role of gender view for Chinese people, it is necessary to investigate the perceptions of ambivalent attitudes toward men and their effects. Thus we will recreate the scale of ambivalent attitudes toward men taking into account the chronological changes and the differences between eastern and western cultures based on Glick and Fiske's (1999) Ambivalent Attitudes Toward Men Inventory (AMI) in the current research.

This study has three purposes. The first one is to figure out how Chinese people perceive and experience different types of sexism, which means we will examine whether hostile sexism and benevolent sexism are perceived as sexist, both by men and by women. The second one is to examine what kind of sexist attitudes Chinese people have and explain how sexism affects individuals in China, that is, how sexism harms both men and women. The last purpose of this study is to clarify how sexism affects gender equality in society by influencing perceptions of gender.

1.3 Research Problems

In light of the principle that prejudice must be recognized before it can be effectively contested as an unjustifiable source of social disparities (Tajfel & Turner, 1979), examineing how women and men perceive and experience ambivalence towards both women and men will significantly advance our understanding of the processes that contribute to the promotion and maintenance of gender inequalities. Therefore, at first, the current study will address this important gap in existing knowledge by directly examining how Chinese people judge sexism,

as well as consider the impact of types on perceptions of sexist attitudes, their own emotional responses, and self-perceptions on the basis of the model conducted by Barreto and Ellemers (2005). Second, this research will focus on the effects of sexism on individuals. Not only the impacts of sexist environment, the sexist attitudes held by individuals should also be examined as to how it negatively affects individuals. Most previous research on sexism has examined negative effects and it harms women. This study argues that sexism negatively affects men as well as women in the respect of aggression, academic achievement, and achievement motivation.

At the Fourth World Conference on Women in 1995, the United Nations identified "gender mainstreaming in all facets of social development" as a global strategy aimed at fostering gender equality. This strategy entails countries conducting gender impact assessments of legislation, public policies, and project plans. China was among the 49 countries that pledged to integrate gender mainstreaming and enshrine gender equality as a core national policy. The adoption of a gender perspective plays a pivotal role in shaping the landscape of gender equality within a country or region.

After the founding of the People's Republic of China, the nation embarked on a campaign aimed at eliminating gender discrimination. Mao Zedong's proclamation that "Women hold up half the sky" became a catalyst for the reformation of gender perspectives and awareness among the Chinese population. While the Chinese people have made strides in transitioning from traditional to modern values, this shift has not been uniformed across all segments of society, with disparities evident between rural and urban populations and in levels of educational attainment. The ongoing interaction and close proximity between genders has resulted in some tension and conflict stemming from varying degrees of adherence to traditional and modern beliefs. Thus, to gain a deeper comprehension of gender inequality

within the distinct cultural context of China, it would be advantageous to assess perceptions of gender roles.

1.4 Significance of the Study

The theoretical and practical significance of this study is primarily reflected in the following aspects:

Exploration of Contradictory ASI and AMI in Chinese Culture This study lays the foundation for domestic research on gender discrimination by exploring the contradictory nature of ambivalent sexism among Chinese people. Through theoretical analyses and empirical discussions, we reveal two seemingly different but essentially consistent forms of sexism: benevolent sexism (BS) and hostile sexism (HS), and two forms of ambivalence toward men: benevolence toward men (BM) and hostility toward men (HM). We also revise the AMI within the Chinese cultural context, providing a basis for further related studies. Although the study of ambivalent sexism has attracted the attention of Chinese scholars, research on ambivalence toward men remains superficial. This study aims to encourage more researchers to investigate ambivalent sexism within the social psychology community in China, thereby advancing the study of gender issues to a deeper level.

Revealing Perceptions of Ambivalent Gender Bias This study examines the perceptions of ambivalent sexism and ambivalence toward men among both female and male, aiming to promote the understanding and identification of gender bias. According to cross-cultural studies of Ambivalent Sexism Theory, hostile sexism is more readily recognized as prejudice compared to benevolent sexism. The acceptance levels of hostile and benevolent sexism, as well as the gender gap in different countries, can reflect the degree of gender

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equality in those countries. Therefore, examining Chinese people's perceptions of ambivalent sexism is essential for expanding the concept of national gender equality.

Impact of Contradictory Gender Bias on Women and Men This study verifies the effect of contradictory gender bias on women's achievement motivation, and also reveals the harmful effects of gender bias on men. Women tend to internalize traditional gender role positioning alongside men during socialization, leading to gender bias and developmental blocking that originate both externally and internally. While past studies have primarily focused on the harm of gender bias on women, this study asserts that sexism also negatively impacts men. Thus, studying the correlation between gender bias and factors such as achievement motivation and aggression will help dismantle self-imposed barriers to female development, enhance men's understanding of the harms of gender bias, and help both genders establish appropriate self-roles, thereby increasing gender equality ideologies for all.

Relationship Between ASI, AMI, and Gender Roles This study reveals the relationship between ambivalent sexism, ambivalence toward men, and perceptions of traditional and non-traditional gender roles, providing a better understanding of how ambivalent sexism influences stereotypes of different gender roles. Reducing or eliminating gender bias against various gender roles becomes possible with this understanding. According to the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (ASI), benevolent sexism (BS) primarily targets traditional female roles within the family, is particularly prominent in intimate relationships, and is directly related to societal values regarding marriage and interpersonal relationships. In contrast, hostile sexism (HS) primarily targets professional women who challenge traditional gender roles and has significant implications in environments such as the workplace. Therefore, further research on the relationship between benevolent sexism and gender role perceptions is crucial for understanding the nature of gender bias. This research can help

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Chinese society establish equitable views of marriage between the sexes and foster a fair workplace environment.

1.5 Research Gap

Ambivalent sexism is still a new concept in China, especially benevolent sexism. There are few related studies in this country, and almost all of them simply adopt the research results of other countries without exploring the applicability of cultural differences. On the one hand, compared with developed countries, China's gender equality level ranks low globally (The World Economic Forum, 2018). Research on women's career development and promotion of gender equality awareness has long been lagging behind, and the academic community should actively pay attention to the social reality and provide theoretical guidance. The "Third Survey Report on the Social Status of Chinese Women" and the "2018 Women and Children Hotspot Public Opinion Observation and Analysis" both warned of the resurgence of traditional gender concepts in China's social discourse in recent years (The Third Survey Team on the Social Status of Chinese Women, 2011).

The study and dissemination of benevolent sexist theory will help counter gender stereotypes such as "men should work outside, women should work inside" and "marrying well is better than doing well" and encourage women to overcome self-imposed limitations and pursue career development. On the other hand, China's gender culture has its own uniqueness. Although traditional Confucian culture emphasizes gender differences and male superiority, research shows that, unlike Western individualistic cultures that favor masculine traits, individuals with gender role duality are more popular in China's collectivist cultural background. This reflects different social and cultural values placed on gender traits,

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indicating that China's local sexism has its unique characteristics and requires more culturally specific research.

Previous research has also examined the issue of gender discrimination, albeit through the utilization of a single inquiry: "Have you experienced discrimination in your life?" This type of survey presents a challenge as sexism is a complex area of study, and individuals who have been socialized within patriarchal systems and have not received education on gender may lack a comprehensive understanding of what constitutes sexism. Additionally, they may be unaware of the sexist beliefs and attitudes they possess. There is a dearth of research that examines the correlation between sexist attitudes and gender role attitudes in China. Just like research on benevolent sexism, there are few studies on the conflicting attitudes toward men in China. Discriminatory attitudes towards women always treat women as objects. Nowadays, women's voices are increasingly impossible to ignore. With women participating in work and taking on economic responsibilities, more and more professional women have not only changed their self-awareness and self-worth but also their demands and needs for men. Women's attitudes towards men are also affecting gender relations and social structures. Women's demands and requirements for men are no longer traditional in the traditional sense. However, men's needs for women are still traditional and stereotypical, and this discordant change has led to various conflicts and discussions between the sexes in social interactions and intersections, forming the so-called "male-female opposition" and "gender conflict".

To gain deeper insights into the gender binary dynamics in China, this study sought to reconstruct the contemporary gender perspectives of young Chinese men and women. This included an examination of their self-perceptions regarding gender identity, as well as their perceptions of the opposite gender. To achieve this objective, a comprehensive series of surveys and research activities were conducted.

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       The current thesis will reorganize to commence with a fundamental inquiry into the perceptions of sexist attitudes among the Chinese populace. The predictions reveal that sexism has detrimental effects on both men and women, thereby strengthening the argument for its eradication. The investigation into the influence of sexist attitudes on societal perceptions of gender roles is approached from a social psychology perspective, leading to a deeper understanding of how sexism perpetuates traditional social frameworks and hinders progress for individuals of both female and male Chinese people

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Chapter 2. Literature Review

2.1. Theoretical Framework

The proposed models for this project were developed utilizing the available empirical research and is grounded within the framework of ambivalent sexism theory and ambivalent attitude toward men theory. This study aimed to identify how Chinese people perceived different dimensions of ambivalent sexism and what kind of ambivalent sexist attitudes they held. The ultimate goal was to establish a new, comprehensive and clear understanding of how the different sexist stimulus and sexist attitudes affected young Chinese individuals and society at different levels.

The pervasive negative attitudinal attributes of gender bias are entrenched within the domain of social psychology, a discipline that has historically espoused Allport's (1954) seminal postulation that prejudice fundamentally constitutes an aversive attitude (Glick & Fiske, 1996; Glick et al., 2000). However, it is readily apparent that sexism constitutes a distinct form of inequality, one that is intricately connected to the extensive interactions between men and women within familial, household, and societal roles (Ridgeway & Smith-Lovin, 1999). Owing to the multifaceted nature of relationships between men and women—encompassing both familial formation and affective dimensions—sexism's manifestation is not limited to the overt negative appraisals by the prevailing group. It also encompasses ostensibly positive appraisals, which may manifest through paternalistic chivalry and romantic idealizations.

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Glick and Fiske (1996) reviewed historical research and found that objective devaluation and subjective favoritism toward women usually coexist: within the dynamics of gender relations, there is a paradoxical tendency whereby individuals may simultaneously negate women's competencies and entitlements while pursuing emotional closeness and demonstrating an increased propensity for communicative outreach. This dichotomy gives rise to a spectrum of cognitive evaluations and emotional responses that encompass both negative and positive dimensions for women.

In brief, Glick and Fiske (1996) posit that sexist attitude is not solely comprised of derogatory attitudes towards women who defy traditional gender roles, but also includes positive attitudes towards women who conform to them, in order to maintain both patriarchal and reproductive needs. This ambivalent attitude is characterized by two distinct but complementary ideologies: hostile sexism (HS) and benevolent sexism (BS). Hostile sexism (HS) denotes the negative attitudinal bias against women who deviate from traditional gender norms, whereas benevolent sexism (BS) describes the ostensibly positive attitudes toward women who adhere to these prescribed roles (Glick & Fiske, 1996; Glick et al., 1997). These two ideologies coexist within individuals and work together to uphold patriarchal social structures (Glick et al., 1997). The ambivalent sexism theory expands the dimension of sexism and has garnered significant attention from researchers, particularly with regards to the construct of benevolent sexism within the framework of gender studies.

A plethora of theoretical frameworks posit that the perceptions held about dominant social groups tend to be more favorable in comparison to those directed towards subordinate groups, thereby insinuating an inherent entitlement to their elevated hierarchical status. The origins of sexist perceptions are complex and can be attributed to biological characteristics and social cultural conditions. Some researchers have suggested that women's reliance on men

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may contribute to the development and reinforcement of ambivalent sexist attitudes towards women, resulting in women's resentment of men's abuse of power while simultaneously depending on their support and accommodations. In light of this, Glick and Fiske (1999) proposed that ambivalent attitudes towards men should also include dual dimensions of hostility and benevolence in line with the ambivalent attitudes of hostility and benevolence toward women. To this end, the Ambivalence Toward Men Inventory (AMI) was developed by Glick and Fiske (1999) based on ambivalent sexism theory. The AMI revealed that women may harbor both hostile attitudes towards men (HM) due to male abuse of power, as well as benevolent attitudes towards men (BM) because of their desire for protection.

Scholarly perspectives, as evidenced by Jost & Banaji (1994), Ridgeway (2001), and Tajfel (1981), assert that societal attitudes toward dominant groups typically reflect a more affirmative portrayal than those towards subordinate cohorts, which implies an underlying belief in the legitimacy of the dominant groups' hierarchical position. Notwithstanding, assessments by men present a notable divergence from this pattern, with male-favoring attitudes not invariably being more favorable than those of women—indicative of a complex dynamic of ambivalence that can be characterized as a "love and hate" phenomenon in the attitudes of women towards men (Nosek & Banaji, 2002). In terms of different cultural backgrounds, a cross-cultural study of 8,360 subjects from 16 countries conducted by Glick et al. (2004) showed that there was significant consistency between male and female samples from different cultural backgrounds on four dimensions of ambivalences toward men and ambivalent attitudes toward women. Both hostile and benevolent sexist attitudes toward men were negatively correlated with perceptions of gender equality. Moreover, men were rated as having relatively fewer positive qualities than women, while women are rated as having significantly less powerful traits than men. Glick et al. (2004) expand Eagly and Mladinic's

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(1994) maxim "women are beautiful" to the more inclusive "men are bad but brave, women are beautiful but weak" to describe ambivalences toward women and men. Ambivalent sexism and ambivalent attitudes towards men both reflect and support real-life gender inequalities by assigning innate superiority to men. These attitudes are not contradictory but rather two sides of the same coin.

The mutual assessments between genders have implications for both the macro and micro levels of female and male interaction. At the individual micro level, exposure to a sexist environment or stimuli can impact one's emotional state and self-perception. A noteworthy investigation conducted in the Netherlands revealed that individuals interpret distinct classifications of sexism in varying ways, and that sexist stimuli have an impact on individual personal traits. Moreover, individual's identification with sexist attitudes could negatively affect the individual's social cognition. Previous studies (Connor et al., 2018) examined the effects of benevolent gender bias on women's rights in various settings, including both private and public domains. Additionally, the study aims to elucidate the underlying mechanisms of action of this bias on the psychology of individual women. Many investigations have been conducted internationally to scrutinize the ramifications of ambivalent sexism upon women. However, there is a dearth of research conducted in the Chinese context. Additionally, there are a few paucities of studies that explore the impact of ambivalent sexism on men.

At a larger societal level, the presence of sexist attitudes can contribute to the perpetuation of existing gender norms and reinforce traditional gender roles, ultimately leading to increased gender inequality (Glick et al., 2004). Gaunt (2013) discovered that different types of sexist attitudes have varying impacts on perceptions of gender roles. Hostile sexism (HS) was linked to negative perceptions of women as breadwinners, while benevolent sexism (BS) was associated with positive perceptions of women as caregivers. Additionally,

individuals who held hostile attitudes towards men were more accepting of non-traditional male caregivers, whereas those with benevolent attitudes towards men were less accepting. Such a vicious circle of individual-society interaction can influence the perception and recognition of contradictory sexist stimuli by individuals in more gender-unequal societies, which also affects the extent to which individuals identify with the held sexist attitudes.

Addressing the ramifications of such attitudes at the individual level necessitates an initial acknowledgment of prejudice as a prerequisite to its subsequent contestation as an unjustified contributor to social inequities (Tajfel & Turner, 1979; Jost & Major, 2001), examining the perceptions and experiences of ambivalence between genders will substantially enrich the scholarly comprehension of the mechanisms that perpetuate and exacerbate gender inequalities. Consequently, this study endeavors to bridge the noted lacuna within the extant literature by meticulously investigating the modalities through which sexism is recognized and conceptualized within Chinese society. We also consider the impact of types on perceptions of sexist attitudes, their own emotional responses, and self-perceptions on the basis of the model conducted by Barreto and Ellemers (2005). Second, we examined the effects of sexist attitudes held by individuals on individuals' aggression, academic achievement, and achievement motivation, which were considered as important factors to individuals' life development progress. Given the large body of previous research that has addressed the negative effects on females, this study here focused on exploring and hypothesizing that sexist attitudes can be equally harmful to male individuals.

Referring to the consequences of these attitudes on a social level, this study recreated the scale of ambivalent attitudes toward men taking into account the chronological changes and the differences between Eastern and Western cultures. Using the ambivalent sexism inventory and the new scale of ambivalent attitudes toward men to measure the perceptions

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and evaluations of sexist attitudes on different gender roles on the basis of the research model conducted by Gaunt (2013), as well as the extent to which Chinese people identify with sexist attitudes, to gain a general understanding of the sexist attitudes held by Chinese people.

2.2. Prejudice, Discrimination, and Mechanism

Prejudice and discrimination are prevalent psychosocial phenomenon in our social life. When an individual harbors prejudice against a social group, they are inclined to evaluate its members in a particular, often negative manner, while paying little or only selective attention to the specific behaviors and characteristics of the group's members. Generally speaking, prejudice is a combination of unjust and incorrect attitudes (Zhang & Song, 2007) — encompassing feelings, perceptions, and behavioral tendencies—towards a social group and its members, representing a pre-existing judgment (Allport, 1954; Bourne & Allenson, 2007). A concept closely related to prejudice is discrimination, with prejudice primarily referring to attitudes and discrimination to behaviors. Early researchers typically explained why individuals hold prejudices through socialization, intergroup conflicts of interest, and personal psychological factors (e.g., frustration, authoritarian personalities). As cognitive psychologists have become more prominent within the field of psychology, the formation of prejudice has increasingly been viewed from an information-processing perspective.

Social psychologists found that people typically divide society into two parts—"us" and "them." This means it is common to categorize individuals into ingroups ("us" or "our people") and outgroups ("them"). Members of the outgroup are often perceived as more similar to each other and are frequently viewed as undesirable, possessing negative qualities. Social Identity Theory (Tajfel et ac., 1971), suggests that individuals seek specific social identities to enhance their self-esteem. Consequently, a person will exhibit positive attitudes

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towards other groups only if they can confidently respect their own group; otherwise, they will develop prejudice against outgroups. Empirical research by Hogg and Abrams supports this theory.

Cognitive psychologists Fiske and Taylor (1991) propose that humans are "cognitive misers". Living in an information-intensive and unavoidable environment, people simplify their cognitive processes to conserve resources, one method being categorization. For instance, individuals are classified according to different criteria, with each category possessing certain characteristics. Knowing that an individual belongs to a specific category allows for predictions about their behavior. Thus, categorization conserves cognitive resources and simplifies understanding the world. The perception of certain groups is, in fact, a stereotype. While stereotypes are fundamentally different from prejudices—stereotypes being purely cognitive and prejudice having a more complex structure as an attitude—stereotypes can be part of prejudice. Since stereotypes are often incorrect, attitudes incorporating stereotypes as a basic component are also incorrect, leading to the generation of prejudice.

Moreover, most people believe in a just world, where "good is rewarded and evil is punished," and that one's current rewards and punishments are determined by past actions (Lerner, 1980). Numerous studies and observations have shown that people often overlook social injustices. This is not because they do not care about justice, but because they believe that unfair treatment of a group or its members is due to the group's or its members' own responsibility or wrongdoing. The just world phenomenon leads people to be content with the status quo, and the resulting prejudice allows them to feel justified about social injustices.

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2.3 Previous Studies of Sexism

In the historical research of gender bias, early social psychologists primarily focused on hostile attitudes toward women (Spence & Helmreich, 1972; Swim et al., 1995; McHugh & Frieze, 1997). Allport (1954) conceptualized gender bias as an attitude characterized by disdain for women and the relegation of women to subordinate roles in society.

Gender bias is the prejudicial treatment of cognitive objects based solely on gender differences. An example of this can be seen in the traditional gender roles assigned to men and women in the Chinese marriage and family system, which has evolved into a gender system in human society. This division of labor has been deeply ingrained in traditional gender culture throughout civilization and continues to perpetuate the affirmation of traditional roles for women and the denial of traditional roles for men. Empirical studies have shown that this prejudice or discrimination against women is not limited to Chinese culture but is consistent across various cultures. Furthermore, it is not uncommon for women to be viewed as lacking talent, which is considered a virtue.

Sexism is entrenched in patriarchal frameworks that perpetuate conventional gender stereotypes, prejudice, and discrimination — a vestige that persists in contemporary society. This term historically denotes the negative gender-based assessments that exacerbate disparities between men and women, as identified by pioneering scholars in the field. In today's Chinese society, sexism is common among Chinese people, for example sexism in Chinese language has been very serious (Zhang, 2006), which Tan (1990) posited that the Chinese language shares comparable sexist tendencies with English, particularly in terms of defining, deprecating, and marginalizing women, as evidenced by terms like "woman doctor" and "woman engineer". Some relevant empirical studies have shown that this kind of

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prejudice or discrimination against women has significant cross-cultural consistencies (Menegatti & Rubini, 2017; Rosen, 1992).

This overtly hostile attitude towards women continues to exist and evolve asymmetrically in various ways across different regions of the world. On the one hand, more explicit and discriminatory attitudes towards women remain prevalent; on the other hand, this prejudice has manifested in more subtle and abstract forms. While the latter reflects the increasing intolerance of overtly radical attitudes against women in contemporary society, it is important to note that this covert gender bias does not significantly contribute to gender equality (Fernandez et al., 2004). Tougas et al. (1995) and Swim et al. (1995) proposed the theory of 'modern gender bias,' based on Sears' (1988) concept of 'symbolic racism.' This gender bias encompasses both traditional negative attitudes towards women and liberal attitudes that have evolved to align more closely with egalitarian societal perspectives. This new theory of gender bias is rooted in a social dimension that includes barriers to women's advancement in the public sphere and condescending attitudes that superficially appear to support women's advancement (Fernandez et al., 2004). Such condescending attitudes are exemplified in Tougas et al.'s (1995) questionnaire, with items like "some companies are forced by social pressure to hire unqualified women."

2.4 Ambivalent Sexism Theory

2.4.1 Hostile Sexism and Benevolent Sexism

In the initial stages of research, gender bias or discrimination against women was predominantly perceived as being characterized by antagonistic attitudes towards women (Spence & Helmreich, 1972). Glick & Fiske (1996) pointed out that a sexist attitude is not only hostility towards women, but also includes both benevolent gender prejudice (Benevolent

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Sexism) and hostile gender prejudice (Hostile Sexism), named ambivalent sexism theory, whose roots are traced back to long existing male-female relations and related to other traditional ideologies (Christopher & Mull, 2006; Glick et al., 2004).

Benevolent sexism is a form of positive emotion and attitude that is rooted in a subjective sense of caring for women. It is characterized by gender-biased attitudes towards women that are reinforced through specific role restrictions. This type of sexism is often associated with a desire to protect women and is characterized by a more positive affective tone, which can lead to male behaviors being viewed as prosocial. In contrast, hostile sexism is a negative form of prejudice that is based on hostile feelings towards women and maintains a negative affective view of women. It often reinforces the rights of men by denigrating women. Hostile sexism manifests as an overt animosity directed at women, whereas benevolent sexism is characterized by ostensibly affirmative yet ultimately condescending attitudes towards women.

In terms of the status relationship between men and women, women are perceived as superior only in dimensions that are either insignificant or indicate their reliance on men (Fiske et al., 2002). Benevolent sexism bears resemblance to hostile sexism in its reliance on gender stereotypes, such as the presumption of female dependence on men. However, it distinctly diverges from hostile sexism in its articulation of these stereotypes through a seemingly positive discourse, which nonetheless carries detrimental implications. Moreover, both benevolent and hostile attitudes encompass the same tripartite domain structure: a) paternalism, which entails elements of both dominance and protective affection; b) gender differentiation, characterized by dynamics that may be either competitive or complementary; and c) heterosexuality, inclusive of a sincere quest for intimate connection (termed heterosexual intimacy) as well as a drive to exert control over others (referred to as

heterosexual hostility) (Glick & Fiske, 1996). Benevolent sexism (BS) is often perceived as promoting a positive attitude towards women, but in reality, it reinforces stereotypical beliefs about them. This prejudice is rooted in the traditional notion that women are a disadvantaged gender and require the protection of men to survive, and are therefore best suited for conventional gender roles. Despite its harmful effects, benevolent sexism is not always recognized as a form of prejudice, making it more challenging to address than overtly hostile attitudes. Empirical evidence suggests that the ramifications of benevolent sexism, an ostensibly positive yet patronizing view of women, may indeed be more insidious and pernicious than the manifestations of overt hostility. This form of sexism is insidiously linked with the reinforcement of both old-fashioned and modern sexist ideologies and gender stereotypes (Glick & Fiske, 1996; 2001).

Regarding the evaluation of people who performed sexist behaviors, Kilianski and Rudman's (1998) study in the United States showed that benevolent sexist behaviors are much more positively evaluated than hostile sexist behaviors. In their empirical investigation involving Dutch university students, Barreto and Ellemers (2005) observed that participants were less likely to identify benevolent sexism as sexist compared to hostile sexism, and they were also reluctant to deem it prejudicial. Given that recognition of prejudice is a precondition for social stigma and subsequent challenges to its legitimacy as a source of inequality (Jost & Major, 2001), Barreto and Ellemers (2005) posited that benevolent sexism constitutes a significant factor in the perpetuation of gender discrimination and warrants critical attention.

According to primary research, there may be a discrepancy in the perception of benevolent sexism between men and women. Research undertaken by Greenwood and Isbell (2002) established a correlation between benevolent sexism and the propensity of men to appreciate sexist humor and joke, a link that was not observed in women. While the authors

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suggest that this finding indicates a potential difference in the meaning of benevolent sexism

for men and women, no empirical evidence has yet been presented to confirm this hypothesis.

Some research suggests that men are more likely than women to agree with hostile

sexist remarks (Glick & Fiske, 2001). This discovery is consistent with the overt expression of

hostile sexism directed towards women and the intergroup bias that suggests men are more

likely to hold such prejudices. The benevolent guise of sexism manifests as ostensibly

positive attitudes toward women, leading some to inadvertently endorse these perspectives.

Consequently, benevolent sexism is not readily recognized as a form of gender bias, rendering

it more challenging to confront than overtly hostile attitudes (Barreto & Ellemers, 2005). It is

generally challenging for both genders to recognize BS as a form of sexism, as evidenced by

several previous studies (Connor et al., 2018; Moya et al., 2007).

Prior research (Guan & Chai, 2011) has elucidated the mechanism through which

ambivalent sexism impacts women via the phenomenon of stereotype threat. Stereotype threat

refers to the cognitive process whereby an individual or collective discerns the existence of

unfavorable stereotypes pertaining to their group in a given context, and subsequently, owing

to apprehension and distress, endorses their own negative stereotypes or those of their group.

The promotion of benevolent sexism perpetuates the stereotype of women as gentle and

virtuous, as noted by Connor et al. (2018). This implicit assumption of female frailty may

elicit feelings of threat among women who are subjected to this stereotype. In a mock

recruitment experiment conducted by Dardenne et al. (2007) in a chemical plant setting,

female participants did not consciously recognize the gender-biased implications of the job

posting in the context of benevolent sexism. However, they experienced the same emotional

distress as in the context of hostile sexism, which the researchers attributed to the participants'

implicit perception of the stereotype threat associated with benevolent sexism. This, in turn, negatively impacted their performance of the task at hand.

According to Glick and Fiske (1996), the sub-dimension of benevolent views, known as gender difference complementarity, asserts that women possess admirable qualities that men do not possess. However, these qualities are limited to emotional traits rather than rational competencies. The possession of these traits by women is believed to compensate for the absence of patriarchal dominance in men, with the aim of reinforcing gender stereotypes and justifying the subordination of women. The ultimate objective is to perpetuate gender differences and legitimize the subjugation of women. The argument under scrutiny implicitly assumes a hierarchy of social worth, wherein characteristics traditionally ascribed to femininity are deemed to possess diminished societal esteem relative to those affiliated with masculinity. As a result, a potential solution for women seeking to combat benevolent sexism may involve distancing themselves from femininity and instead embracing traits associated with masculinity. Interestingly, the utilization of social recategorization strategies by women has been observed in research (Wang et al., 2017). However, this behavior may result in the violation of traditional gender role norms and subsequent punishment in the form of hostile sexism (Good & Rudman, 2010). This perspective suggests a gender equality framework that is rooted in male role models, which is concerning as it perpetuates patriarchal cultural values. Previous research has also examined the perception of gender discrimination among the Chinese populace; however, the majority of these studies have solely assessed the occurrence of sexist behavior. A more comprehensive understanding of this phenomenon could be achieved by considering the variations in how individuals perceive gender discrimination.

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2.4.2 Individual and Cultural Differences in Ambivalent Sexism

Previous research has found that several factors such as cultural background, education, age, and personality traits can influence women's levels of benevolent sexism. Earlier cross-cultural studies that employed the ambivalent sexism inventory scale have revealed that men generally exhibit higher levels of hostile sexism (HS) and benevolent sexism (BS) than women. However, in regions with lower levels of gender equality in the political economy, such as many developing countries, women tend to hold higher levels of BS than men (Glick et al., 2000).

A cross-cultural study conducted by Chen et al. (2009) suggested that Chinese female college students held higher levels of BS than American female college students. The reason for this kind of phenomenon seems to be that in societies with lower levels of gender equality, women tend to seek the "advantages" of benevolent sexism, such as protection and financial assistance from men (Glick et al., 2000). Furthermore, various studies have demonstrated a significant and negative correlation between women's educational achievements and levels of benevolent sexism (Glick et al., 2002; Lipowska et al., 2016). A study conducted in New Zealand, which involved a significant sample size of tens of thousands of individuals, revealed that the levels of BS exhibited a linear and consistent increase over the lifespan of men. Conversely, women's BS levels followed a U-shaped curve model and tended to decrease in cross-sectional comparisons across most age groups (Hammond et al., 2018). Additionally, individual differences, such as personality traits, can also impact the recognition of BS. For instance, psychological entitlement, which surpasses other established predictors of gender bias, such as low openness and related covariates like impression management, can effectively predict women's BS levels. (Grubb et al., 2014).

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Research on individual and cultural differences in ambivalent sexism confirms both significant consistency and some specific differences in benevolent versus hostile gender bias among males and females, individuals with varying levels of education, those with or without religious affiliation, and across different cultural backgrounds. Fernandez et al.'s (2004) study of 1,003 Spanish subjects aged 18-65, using the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (ASI) and the Ambivalence toward Men Inventory (AMI), revealed significant differences in gender bias perceptions by gender and age. Women exhibited higher levels of hostile attitudes towards the opposite sex than men, while men maintained similar levels of favorable attitudes towards both genders. Furthermore, there was consistency in male and female attitudes towards men.

Glick and Fiske's research also indicated that women were more likely than men to reject hostile gender bias while accepting benevolent gender bias, particularly when the average local level of gender bias was high. Meanwhile, Fernandez et al. (2004) found that younger individuals exhibited less gender bias than middle-aged individuals, reflecting generational differences in socio-cultural development. Glick et al.'s (2002) study of 1,003 Spanish adults demonstrated a significant negative correlation between education level and perceptions of both hostile and benevolent gender bias. Additionally, Catholicism significantly predicted perceptions of benevolent gender bias but not hostile gender bias.

In terms of different cultural backgrounds, Glick et al.'s 2004 cross-cultural study of 8,360 subjects from 16 countries showed significant agreement between males and females and among samples from various cultural backgrounds on the four dimensions of hostile and benevolent attitudes toward males and females. Both hostile and benevolent gender-biased attitudes toward men were negatively correlated with perceptions of gender equality. Subjects rated men as possessing relatively fewer positive qualities than women but were significantly more likely to attribute more powerful traits to men. This suggests an intrinsic relationship

between benevolent and hostile gender biases against men, indicating that both types of bias reflect and support gender inequality in real life. These biases do not contradict each other but rather represent two sides of the same coin.

Forbes et al.'s (2004) study of 111 Polish and 83 American female college students also showed that the Polish sample had relatively higher scores on both the hostility and benevolent gender bias scales compared to the American sample. There was a significant correlation between benevolent gender bias and the acceptance and use of cosmetic products among Polish female college students, whereas this correlation was not significant among American female college students.

2.4.3 Impacts of Ambivalent Sexism

Rollero and Fedi (2014) conducted a study to investigate the influence of ambivalent gender bias on the career aspirations of college students. Participants were presented with a social survey that described their gender, with the distribution of hostile sexist and benevolent sexist contexts being randomized. They were then asked to evaluate their probability of becoming leaders in the future. The results showed that college students had evaluated the possibility of holding a leadership role as higher for men; however, there was decreased possibility for women in the context of benevolent sexism. Dardenne et al. (2007) similarly discovered that a strong female gender identity mitigated the impact of stereotypes in a hostile sexist context, but not in a benevolent sexist context.

According to the findings of Leicht et al. (2017), women's gender identity was identified as a significant and positive predictor of their leadership aspirations in the anti-stereotype context. However, in the gender stereotype context, this association was moderated by feminist identity, indicating that it was only sustained in high-feminist identity groups. Considering these results, it is suggested that future research should explore the potential of

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the interaction between women's gender identity and feminist identity in mitigating the impact of biased stereotypes.

Cai (2008) conducted a study on the correlation between genuine gender bias and achievement motivation among female college students in China. The results indicated that the scores of the "complementarity of gender differences" dimension were positively associated with success motivation scores, while the overall scores of benevolent gender bias were not significantly correlated with total achievement motivation scores. This finding suggests that the patriarchal protection of benevolent sexism counteracts the confidence that the "gender complementarity" brings to women. Additionally, the study revealed that female students in non-traditional occupations, such as computer science and technology, exhibited a higher fear of success compared to those in traditional female occupations, such as English language and literature. This fear of success is linked to the backlash avoidance model, which posits that women are afraid of facing resistance from society when they behave in ways that are inconsistent with traditional gender roles (Kosakowska-Berezecka et al., 2017). Ultimately, this fear of the "price of success" manifests as self-inhibition among women.

Contemporary scholarship has been exploring the repercussions of benevolent sexism on individuals' self-perception and self-esteem. A study conducted in Belgium with both adult and university student cohorts has elucidated that benevolent sexist attitudes engender intrusive thought patterns, which consequentially impede cognitive response times and augment autobiographical recollections of incompetence among female subjects (Dardenne et al., 2007). In a parallel vein, Ellemers et al. (2010) observed that Dutch university students subjected to experimental conditions of benevolent sexism were inclined to prioritize their relational identities over their individual task-oriented competencies, thus substantiating the foundational elements of benevolent sexism. Moreover, in a study participated by American

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female college students, Sinclair et al. (2005) have found that women's self-descriptions and behaviors tended to align more closely with gender stereotypes when their interaction partner exhibited such stereotypes. Conversely, when the interaction partner expressed views that were inconsistent with gender stereotypes, women's self-descriptions and behaviors were less likely to align with the stereotypes.

While benevolent sexism ostensibly propagates the notion that women necessitate male guardianship, empirical evidence suggests it correlates with adverse attitudes towards women. Research has substantiated the connection between benevolent sexism and a propensity to justify domestic violence (Glick et al., 2002), to rationalize sexual harassment (Pryor et al., 1995), and to harbor disparaging reactions to rape victims (Abrams et al., 2003). Research conducted in Spain has revealed that the implementation of protective parenting styles can result in women, particularly those with elevated levels of benevolent sexism, being more inclined to comply with reasonable protective restrictions (Moya et al., 2007). Furthermore, Glick et al. (2000) have demonstrated that, similar to hostile sexism, benevolent sexism is linked to gender inequality across various nations. Glick and his colleges (1997) demonstrated that benevolent sexism often targets women adhering to conventional gender roles, such as those of mothers and wives, and is typified by ostensibly positive appraisals. Conversely, hostile sexism is typically reserved for women who diverge from these traditional roles, such as feminists, career women, and professionals, and is characterized by negative evaluations.

Several scholars have noted that the presence of benevolent sexist attitudes does not necessarily indicate a form of ideological liberation or political advancement (Fraser, 2015). Rather, it serves as a reflection of a universal gender dynamic that exists across cultures. In fact, such attitudes may serve to legitimize the current gender hierarchy in a seemingly well-intentioned and socially acceptable manner (Chen & Chen, 2006). Additionally, it is crucial to

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acknowledge the intertwined nature of benevolent and hostile sexism, both of which emanate from the same underlying issue: the systematic reinforcement of women's subordinate status within the established gender role hierarchy. This conceptualization has received empirical support from the research conducted by Glick et al. (1997).

2.5 Ambivalence Towards Men

In concordance with Ambivalent Sexism Theory, Glick and Fiske (1999) posited parallel constructs with respect to men: hostile attitudes toward men (HM) and benevolent attitudes toward men (BM), which together constitute the Ambivalence Toward Men Inventory (AMI). HM encompasses explicitly negative attitudes toward men, often arising from gender-based power disparities, while BM embodies ostensibly positive or affectionate attitudes, predicated on the perception of men as guardians of women, whom they view as 'pure' and necessitating male guardianship (Glick & Fiske, 1999). Research into male stereotypes has been comparatively sparse relative to the ambivalent sexism towards women. The studies that do explore this domain regard the development of the AMI as foundational (Glick & Fiske, 1999).

The results of the AMI have been consistently stable across different studies and countries, as evidenced by the findings of Silván-Ferrero and Bustillo-López (2007) with Spanish high school students and Yakushko's (2005) research with Ukrainian college students and young professionals. These studies revealed a significant correlation between ASI and AMI, illuminating the role of benevolent sexism (BS) and benevolence toward men (BM) in perpetuating gender inequalities and endorsing discrimination. In addition, Chapleau et al. (2007), through interviews with 420 U.S. college students, found a positive correlation between benevolent attitudes toward men and acceptance of rape myths. This phenomenon

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may be attributed to higher scores in heterosexual intimacy toward men, which could lead participants to perceive an aggressor as a potential romantic partner rather than a rapist, paralleling the effects of hostile sexism toward women. Recently, Glick and Whitehead (2010) explored the connection between ambivalent gender ideologies and the perceived stability and legitimacy of the gender hierarchy. Their research indicated a significant correlation between each subscale of ASI and AMI and the perceived legitimacy of male dominance. Notably, the endorsement of BM consistently predicted legitimacy assessments for participants of all genders, while HM was a significant predictor of perceived stability

These findings appear to confirm the significant role that reciprocal perceptions and ambivalent attitudes play in upholding men's structural power and conventional gender relations. Indeed, the power held by men to reward women who conform to traditional roles and penalize those who do not may naturally lead women to endorse benevolent attitudes towards men as a rationalization of this power dynamic. This, in turn, may increase their dependence on men, while simultaneously cultivating their resentment towards them (Glick & Fiske, 1999).

It is a great pity that there has not been any investigation and research on the ambivalent attitudes towards men in China. The previous study, conducted in the Netherlands and Italy, countries that ranked highly by gender equality, found that although previous research had shown that ambivalent sexism towards men was common across countries, it was reflected differently in different cultures. Therefore, it is necessary to conduct relevant research in China.

2.6 Research Questions

1.   Examine the gender differences in perceived ambivalent sexism and ambivalence toward men.

2.   Examine whether benevolent sexist be less likely to be viewed as sexist compared to hostile sexist, and whether benevolent attitudes toward men be less likely to be viewed as sexist compared to hostile attitudes toward men.

3.   Examine the gender differences in the emotions that arise when stimulated by 4 kinds of ambivalent attitudes (hostile and benevolent sexism, hostile and benevolent attitudes toward men).

4.   Examine how sexist attitudes affect females' academic achievement and achievement motivation.

5.   Examine the effects of ambivalent sexist attitude on males' aggression, academic achievement, and achievement motivation.

6.   Based on the original ambivalent attitudes toward men inventory (AMI), recreate a Chinese-appropriate AMI scale considering the chronological differences and the cultural differences between China and western countries.

7.   Measure and examine what kind of ambivalent sexist attitudes and ambivalent attitudes towards men are held by Chinese people.

8.   Examine how ambivalent sexists toward women and ambivalence toward men held by Chinese people influence their perceptions on traditional and non-traditional gender roles.

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Chapter 3. Study 1

3.1 Background and Introduction

Although ambivalent sexist attitudes manifest differently across cultures, most previous studies have demonstrated a cross-cultural consistency in the greater acceptance of benevolent sexism (BS) compared to hostile sexism (HS). In light of the benevolent sexist scales, such as the belief that women should be rescued before men in a fire, as proposed by Glick and Fiske (1996), and the common critique of feminism that they reject hostile sexists but desire benevolent sexists, as argued by Kilianski and Rudman (1998), it can be inferred that women who possess high levels of psychological entitlement are more inclined to view benevolent sexism as a privilege reserved for their in-group. Consequently, benevolent sexism is more likely to be perceived as an in-group privilege rather than a form of prejudice (Barreto & Ellemers, 2005). Despite variations in individual levels of benevolent sexism among women, it is generally challenging for both genders to recognize it as a form of sexism, as evidenced by several previous studies (Connor et al., 2018; Moya et al., 2007).

It is relevant to elaborate on the findings of Barreto and Ellemers (2005), who have shown that individuals exhibiting benevolent sexism are less likely to be identified as possessing sexist convictions in comparison to those who manifest hostile sexism. This phenomenon is attributed to the discrepancy between the typical mental prototype of a sexist perpetrator and the origin of benevolent sexism, resulting in a more favorable evaluation of the latter. As Glick and Fiske (1996) contend, discrimination was traditionally perceived as a

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negative attitude, whereas the affective properties of benevolent sexists are subjective and benign, making it challenging to associate with discrimination against women. This evaluative process occurs similarly for both genders and is relatively unaffected by emotional reactions. In the context of emotional reactions, it has been observed that women tend to experience greater levels of anger when confronted with HS as compared to BS. In contrast, the research conducted by Barreto and Ellemers (2005) suggests that men exhibit comparable levels of anger in both assessed scenarios. The perception of benevolent sexism is undergoing a gradual shift as society becomes more cognizant of gender equality (Rollero & Fedi, 2014). The evaluation of benevolent sexism by women is subject to situational factors, including the identity and motivation of the communicator. For example, Moya et al. (2007) found benevolent sexism expressed by husbands was not perceived as sexist, whereas the same behavior exhibited by colleagues was. Women are more likely to consider benevolent sexism based on identity reasons, such as "because you're a woman," as sexist compared to personalized reasons, such as "because I'm worried about you." This judgment is not influenced by women's own level of benevolent sexism. Furthermore, women's rational cognitive judgments of benevolent sexism may differ from their emotional experiences, leading to biased assessments of benevolent sexism (Bosson et al., 2010). Collectively, the determinants that impact women's interpretations of benevolent gender partiality are multifaceted and intricate, fluctuating in accordance with personal distinctions, cultural environments, and societal circumstances. This implies that it is imperative to examine the diversity within the female demographic and the mechanisms by which individuals engage with their surroundings to shape gender partiality.

To explore the potential adverse effects of exposure to benevolent sexism, Barreto et al. (2010) conducted a recent study examining its impact on women's self-perception. The

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results indicated that exposure to benevolent sexism led to a greater emphasis on relational aspects of self-definition and a decreased emphasis on task-related characteristics, as compared to exposure to hostile sexism. Notably, both studies were conducted among undergraduate students in the Netherlands. According to our comprehensive review of the extant literature, the delineation, and consequent effects of benevolent and hostile attitudes toward men remain inadequately explored. While existing literature has extensively examined the ramifications of ambivalent sexism towards women, the issue of ambivalence towards men has received comparatively less attention. Nevertheless, it is crucial to explore this topic as men also encounter ambivalent attitudes (Lee et al., 2010**).**

Considering that prejudice first needs to be perceived before it can be challenged as an illegitimate cause of social inequalities (Tajfel & Turner, 1979; see also Jost & Major, 2001, for reviews), examining how women and men perceive and experience ambivalence towards both women and men will significantly advance our understanding of the processes that contribute to the promotion and maintenance of gender inequalities. Therefore, in study 1 we address this important gap in existing knowledge by directly examining how Chinese people identify sexism, as well as consider the impact of types on perceptions of sexist attitudes, their own emotional responses, and self-perceptions on the basis of the model conducted by Barreto and Ellemers (2005).

As mentioned previously, previous research suggests that benevolent sexism may be perceived differently by men and women (Greenwood & Isbell, 2002), which has not been proofed by direct evidence yet, men are more likely to agree with hostile sexist statements than benevolent sexist statements (Glick & Fiske, 2001). Based on the above and our personal experiences in daily life, it is not uncommon for men to show disdain, contempt, dislike, and anger towards benevolent sexist views. We venture to presuppose that one of the perceptions

men have about benevolent sexist view is that they feel the benevolent sexist perspective is discriminating against men. Thus, we conducted a pre-survey to verify whether people would perceive that the benevolent sexist viewpoint is discrimination against men. Likewise, to verify whether people would perceive that benevolent attitude toward men is discriminating against women.

3.2 Pre-Survey

Fifty undergraduate students with an average age of 21.43, including 26 females and 24 males, were recruited to participate in this pre-survey through social media. All participants were requested to read that people in the sample agree with several opinions based on Glick & Fiske's (1996) subscale of BS (benevolent sexist) (e.g., many women have a quality of purity that few men possess; women should be cherished and protected by men; women, compared to men, tend to have a superior moral sensibility; men should be willing to sacrifice their own well-being in order to provide financially for the women in their lives; a good woman should be set on a pedestal by her man; every man ought to have a woman whom he adores). And then, as to the perception of sexism, participants were asked to what extent they think that people who hold those opinions are discrimination against both women and men. Then participants were requested to read that people in the sample agree with several opinions based on Glick & Fiske's (1996) subscale of BM (benevolent attitude toward men) (e.g., men are less likely to fall apart in emergencies than women are; one of the advantages of men is that they provide financial security for their women; women should take care of their men at home, for men are not able to look after themselves if they have to; women are incomplete without men; even if both members of a couple work, the woman ought to be more attentive to taking care of her man at home; every woman needs a male partner who will cherish her.). After

reading the sample, participants were asked to what extent they think that people who hold those opinions are discrimination against both women and men. All the four questions were conducted by using a 5-point scale ranging from (1) completely not to (5) extremely.

The results showed that the mean score of perceived sexists toward women by BS is 2.25 ($SD = 1.08$), the mean score of perceived sexists toward men by BS is 2.68 ($SD = 1.13$). In BM condition, perceived sexists toward women ($M = 2.21$, $SD = 0.96$) were more than perceived sexists toward men ($M = 1.57$, $SD = 0.84$). The results showed that participants perceived discrimination against men for BS viewpoint, while perceived discrimination against women for BM viewpoint, which were consistent with our expectations.

Therefore, in the next formal survey, we set two questions about percieved sexist in each sexist view condition. One was "Do you think this interviewee's opinion is discriminatory against women? ", and the other one was "Do you think this interviewee's opinion is discriminating against men? "

3.3 Hypotheses

1. We hypothesize that among Chinese people benevolent sexists are less likely to be seen as sexist toward women than people endorsing hostile sexist views.

2. BM is less likely to be seen as discrimination against men than HM, in line with results concerning HS and BS.

3. Female participants perceive more discrimination against women than male participants in HS condition, while male participants perceive more discrimination against men than female participants in HM conditions.

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4. We hypothesize that perceived discrimination against women in HS (hostile sexist) condition would be more than perceived discrimination against men in HM (hostile attitude toward men) condition.

5. In respect to the consequences of sexist attitudes, we hypothesize that for women exposure to benevolent sexism can increase the extent to which they self-define in communal terms and decrease the perception of their agentic qualities.

6. Concerning ambivalent attitudes toward men, in the benevolence condition men are supposed to increase the extent to which they self-define in agentic terms and to decrease the perception of their communal traits.

3.4 Methodology

3.4.1 Participants

Two hundred and seven Chinese students (except those from Taiwan, Hong Kong, and Macao) from mainland universities were recruited to participate in this research through social media such as WeChat and email, and randomly distributing flyers to students at different college campus. There were 13 technical college students, 159 undergraduate students, 31 graduate students in master course, and 4 graduate students in doctoral course. The total mean age was 23.51 (SD = 3.23, Range: 17 - 30), with 115 participants being female and 92 males. No statistically significant differences emerged for age with respect to participant gender t (206) = 0.95, p = .25.

The students were recruited from different colleges and universities across China. 180 of the participants categorized themselves as never married. 66 participants came from rural areas, and 141 participants came from urban.

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3.4.2 Procedure

Participants for this study were recruited through social media. They were offered the link to take the survey on their phone or computer. Participants are informed of that the survey would take approximately 15-20 minutes to complete. The questionnaire consisted of 78 items. All the questions were presented in Chinese. It was necessary to collect data from different universities to reduce bias. Participants were instructed to complete the entire survey but that there is no penalty for not completing the survey in its entirety. The questionnaire was administered in an online format using Wenjuanxing, which is a mature and professional official website for conducting questionnaires survey in China.

Face Sheet The face sheet contained personal information such as age, gender, educational background (specialized school, undergraduate school, or graduate school), status of marriage, participants' origin (town or city).

Manipulations Previous study Barreto & Ellemers (2005) randomly divided the participants into four groups based on four different sexist conditions which are HS, BS, HM, and BM. Each of these four groups of participants would read one paragraph of the sexist perspective statement. And then they were requested to answer the questions about measuring their perceived sexists, perceived emotion, and self-perception.

Considering that the methods and process used to collect the data for the current study, which include randomly distributing flyers to students at different college campus and sending the web survey URLs via social media, random grouping may introduce some bias due to differences in the participants' schools of origin or majors. To reduce the possibility of such bias, the survey of the current research was conducted without randomly grouping participants. Moreover, this ungrouped approach allows visualization of effects and changed

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of different sexist stimuli on the same individual's self-perception, making our results more convincing.

The first part of the questionnaire was conducted that, all participants are supposed to read that people in the sample agree with 6 opinions based on Glick & Fiske's (1996) subscale of HS (hostile sexist) (e.g., women are too easily offended; feminists were not seeking for women to have more power than men; women seek to gain power by getting control over men; most women fail to appreciate fully all that men do for them; women exaggerate problems they have at work; most women interpret innocent remarks or acts as being sexist). And then, participants were asked to indicate the extent to which they expect that they would like people of the sample. As to the perception of sexism, participants were asked to what extent they think that people who hold those opinions are discrimination against women, and what extent they think that people who hold those opinions are discrimination against men. Concerning anger, participants are asked to indicate to what extent they experience different negative emotions (angry, indignant, irritated, disappointed, and frustrated) after reading the description. Subsequently, the effect of manipulations on self -perception was assessed. Participants were asked to rate themselves on 6 expressive/communal traits (sensitive, sympathetic, kind, emotional, loyal, understanding) and on 6 instrumental/agentic traits (independent, decisive, ambitious, self -confident, assertive, efficient). Items were based on Space & Buckner's (2000) study on gender trait stereotypes. All measures were scored on 7-point rating scales ranging from (1) "not at all" to (7) "very much".

The second part of the questionnaire was a sample that people agree with several opinions based on Glick & Fiske's (1996) subscale of BS (benevolent sexist) (e.g., many women have a quality of purity that few men possess; women should be cherished and protected by men; women, compared to men, tend to have a superior moral sensibility; men

should be willing to sacrifice their own well-being in order to provide financially for the women in their lives; a good woman should be set on a pedestal by her man; every man ought to have a woman whom he adores). As to the perception of sexism, participants were asked to what extent they think that people who hold those opinions are discrimination against women, and what extent they think that people who hold those opinions are discrimination against men. Concerning anger, participants are asked to indicate to what extent they experience different negative emotions (angry, indignant, irritated, disappointed, and frustrated) after reading the description. Subsequently, the effect of manipulations on self-perception was assessed. Participants were asked to rate themselves on 6 expressive/communal traits (sensitive, sympathetic, kind, emotional, loyal, understanding) and on 6 instrumental/agentic traits (independent, decisive, ambitious, self-confident, assertive, efficient). Items were based on Space & Buckner's (2000) study on gender trait stereotypes. All measures were scored on 7-point rating scales ranging from (1) "not at all" to (7) "very much".

The third part of the questionnaire was a sample that people agree with several opinions based on Glick & Fiske's (1999) subscale of HM (Hostile attitude toward men) (e.g., men usually try to dominate conversations when talking to women; a man typically has no ethical value in terms of doing anything to get a woman he finds sexually attractive to bed; most men sexually harass women, even if only in subtle ways, once they are in a position of power over them; when men act to "help" women, they are often trying to prove they are better than women; men will always fight for greater control in society; even men who claim to be sensitive to women's rights really want a traditional relationship at home, with the woman performing most of the housekeeping and childcare). As to the perception of sexism, participants were asked to what extent they think that people who hold those opinions are discrimination against women, and what extent they think that people who hold those opinions

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are discrimination against men. Concerning anger, participants are asked to indicate to what

extent they experience different negative emotions (angry, indignant, irritated, disappointed,

and frustrated) after reading the description. Subsequently, the effect of manipulations on self

-perception was assessed. Participants were asked to rate themselves on 6

expressive/communal traits (sensitive, sympathetic, kind, emotional, loyal, understanding) and

on 6 instrumental/agentic traits (independent, decisive, ambitious, self -confident, assertive,

efficient). Items were based on Space & Buckner's (2000) study on gender trait stereotypes.

All measures were scored on 7- point rating scales ranging from (1) "not at all" to (7) "very

much".

The fourth part of the questionnaire was a sample that people agree with several

opinions based on Glick & Fiske's (1999) subscale of BM (benevolent attitude toward men)

(e.g., men are less likely to fall apart in emergencies than women are; one of the advantages of

men is that they provide financial security for their women; women should take care of their

men at home, for men are not able to look after themselves if they have to; women are

incomplete without men; even if both members of a couple work, the woman ought to be more

attentive to taking care of her man at home; every woman needs a male partner who will

cherish her.). As to the perception of sexism, participants were asked to what extent they think

that people who hold those opinions are discrimination against women, and what extent they

think that people who hold those opinions are discrimination against men. Concerning anger,

participants are asked to indicate to what extent they experience different negative emotions

(angry, indignant, irritated, disappointed, and frustrated) after reading the description.

Subsequently, the effect of manipulations on self -perception was assessed. Participants were

asked to rate themselves on 6 expressive/communal traits (sensitive, sympathetic, kind,

emotional, loyal, understanding) and on 6 instrumental/agentic traits (independent, decisive,

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ambitious, self -confident, assertive, efficient). Items were based on Space & Buckner's
(2000) study on gender trait stereotypes. All measures were scored on 7- point rating scales
ranging from (1) "not at all" to (7) "very much".

3.5 Results

3.5.1 Pre-Processing

The 207 participants who participated in the survey completed the questionnaire quite
well. There was no outlier in each item. Thus, no data were excluded from the current study.

3.5.2. Descriptive Statistics

The range, means, and standard deviations for each primary variable in HS condition is
reported in Table 1. The range, means, and standard deviations for each primary variable in
BS condition is reported in Table 2. The range, means, and standard deviations for each
primary variable in HM condition is reported in Table 3. The range, means, and standard
deviations for each primary variable in BM condition is reported in Table 4. According to
these results of descriptive statistics, we could find that the score of perceived sexists toward
men in BS condition was not lower than the score of perceived sexists toward women, while
the score of perceived sexists toward women in BM condition was not lower than the score of
perceived sexists toward men

Table 1

Descriptive Statistics for the Variables for HS Condition

	Min	Max	*M*	*SD*	N
HS Condition					207
Sexists Toward Women	1.00	5.00	3.78	1.21	
Sexists Toward Men	1.00	2.00	1.1	0.30	
Preference	1.00	5.00	1.92	0.93	
Anger	1.00	5.00	3.13	1.36	
Frustration	1.00	5.00	2.57	1.26	
Offended	1.00	5.00	2.91	1.46	
Communal	1.00	7.00	5.46	0.93	
Agentic	1.00	7.00	4.44	1.29	

Table 2

Descriptive Statistics for the Variables for BS Condition

	Range	Max	*M*	*SD*	N
BS Condition					207
Sexists Toward Women	1.00	5.00	2.04	1.19	
Sexists Toward Men	1.00	5.00	2.60	1.19	
Preference	1.00	5.00	2.66	1.11	
Anger	1.00	5.00	2.07	1.10	
Frustration	1.00	5.00	2.00	1.10	
Offended	1.00	5.00	2.20	1.20	
Communal	1.00	7.00	5.49	1.00	
Agentic	1.00	7.00	4.35	1.41	

Table 3

Descriptive Statistics for the Variables for HM Condition

	Range		*M*	*SD*	N
HM Condition					207
Sexists Toward Women	1.00	2.00	1.11	0.31	
Sexists Toward Men	1.00	5.00	2.89	1.46	
Preference	1.00	5.00	2.52	1.10	
Anger	1.00	5.00	2.33	1.28	
Frustration	1.00	5.00	2.32	1.19	
Offended	1.00	5.00	2.32	1.32	
Communal	1.00	7.00	5.52	1.00	
Agentic	1.00	7.00	4.38	1.44	

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics for the Variables for BM Condition

	Range		*M*	*SD*	N
BM Condition					207
Sexists Toward Women	1.00	5.00	2.15	1.10	
Sexists Toward Men	1.00	5.00	1.56	0.90	
Preference	1.00	5.00	2.86	1.03	
Anger	1.00	5.00	1.89	1.08	
Frustration	1.00	5.00	1.80	1.01	
Offended	1.00	5.00	1.99	1.16	
Communal	1.00	7.00	5.50	1.03	
Agentic	1.00	7.00	4.38	1.29	

3.5.3 Perceived Sexists to Ambivalent Sexists Toward Women and Ambivalent Attitudes Toward Men

A three-way ANOVA was conducted to examine the hypothesis 1 – 4. All variables were entered in a 4 types of sexist conditions (HS, BS, HM, and BM) * 2 gender of participant (Female, Male) * 2 gender of the target (Sexists toward Female, Sexists toward Male) mixed factorial ANOVA with two within-subjects factors (type of sexists and gender of the target) and one between-subjects factor (gender of participant) to evaluate the effects of sexists, gender of participants and gender of the target on perceived sexists. Mauchly's test indicated that the assumption of sphericity wasn't met ($p < .001$). There was homogeneity of variances (*n.s.*) as assessed by Levene's test of homogeneity of variances. The means and standard deviations for the perceived sexists measure as a function of the three factors are presented in Table 5.

Table 5

Descriptive Statistics of Perceived Sexists in Four Sexist Conditions

Gender of Participant	Female Participant					Male Participant			
	Sexists Toward Women		Sexists Toward Men			Sexists Toward Women		Sexists Toward Men	
	M	SD	M	SD		M	SD	M	SD
HS	4.27	0.08	1.14	0.05		3.23	0.14	1.15	0.05
BS	2.09	0.11	2.33	0.09		2.05	0.14	3.02	0.14
HM	1.13	0.06	2.36	0.12		1.02	0.04	3.44	0.13
BM	2.48	0.11	1.57	0.08		1.88	0.11	1.73	0.11

Figure 1

Perceived Sexists toward Women Performed by Female and Male Participants in Four
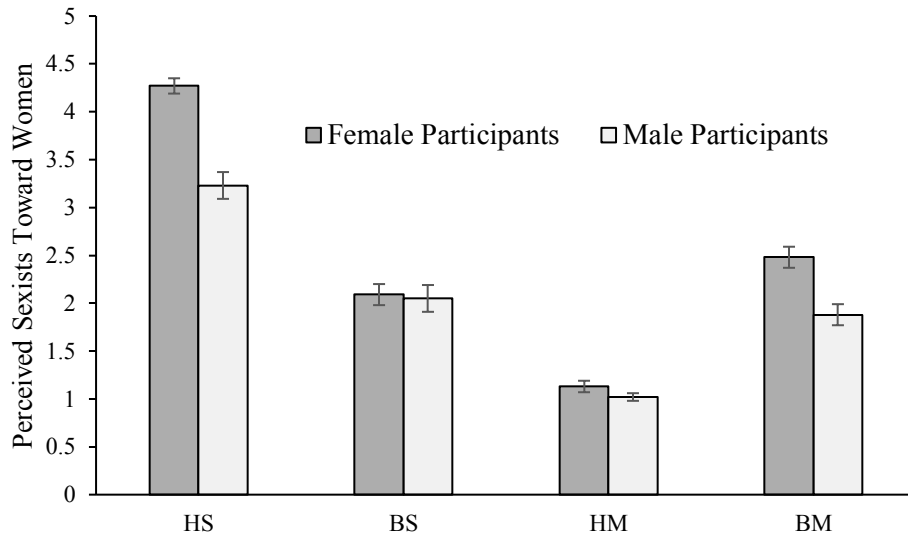
Conditions

Figure 2

Perceived Sexists toward Men Performed by Female and Male Participants in Four

Conditions
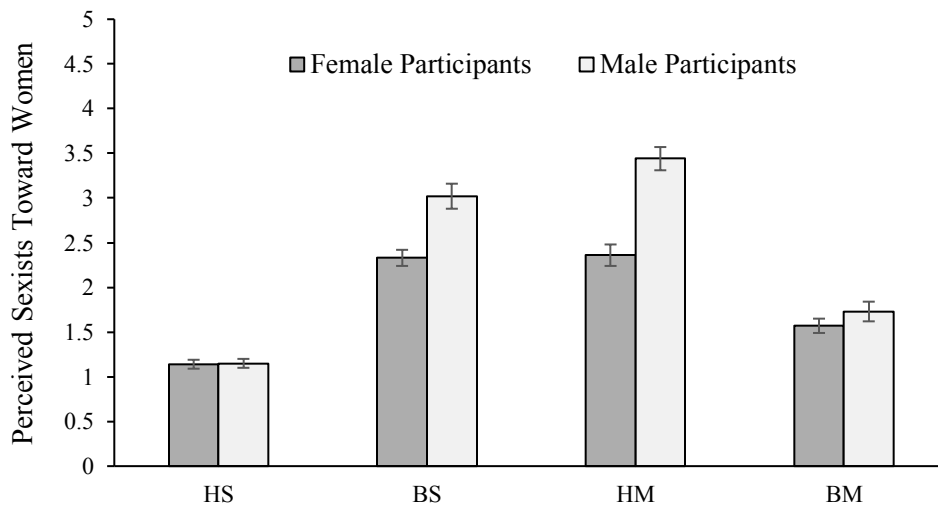
The result of three-way ANOVA test revealed a significant main effect of Target Gender, $F(1, 206) = 13.01$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .06$. No significant main effect of Participant Gender, $F(1, 206) = .01$, $p = .91$. The main effect of Sexists was significant, $F(2.63, 542.10) = 27.95$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .12$.

For the interaction between Sexists and Target Gender. The interaction between Sexism and Target Gender was significant, $F(2.89, 596.21) = 489.94$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .70$, indicating that if we ignore whether the participants were female or male, there are significant differences of perceived sexist between female and male target in all sexist conditions (HS: $p < .001$; BS: $p < .001$; HM: $p < .001$; BM: $p < .001$).

The two-way interaction between Sexists and Participant Gender was significant, $F(2.63, 542.11) = 21.03$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .09$, indicating that if we ignore whether the target was female or male, female and male participants significantly differed in their perceived sexism among the 4 types of sexist conditions.

There was a significant interaction between Target Gender and Participant Gender, $F(1, 206) = 90.48$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .31$. Pairwise comparisons indicated that if we ignore which type of the sexism is, female and male participants significantly differed in their perceived sexism for female target ($p < .001$) and male target ($p < .001$). Both female and male participants performed significantly different perceived sexists between female ($p < .001$) and male target ($p < .001$).

The results of three-way interaction showed that Mauchly's test of sphericity indicated that the assumption of sphericity wasn't met ($p < .001$). The three-way interaction among types of sexism, gender of the participant, and gender of the target was not significant, $F(2.89, 596.21) = 1.65$, $p = .18$, $\eta^2 = .01$, indicating that the relationship between Target Gender

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and Sexism (HS, BS, HM, or BM) was not significantly different in female and male participants.

Generally, both female ($p < .001$) and male ($p < .001$) participants performed higher score of perceived sexists toward women in HS condition compared to the score of perceived sexists toward women in BS condition. This supports the prediction of the author: benevolent sexists (BM) are less likely to be seen as sexist towards women than people endorsing hostile sexist views among Chinese people.

The score of perceived sexists toward men in HM condition was higher than in BM condition ($p < .001$), both in female participants ($p < .001$), and male participants ($p < .001$). This supports the prediction of the author that benevolent attitudes toward men is less likely to be seen as sexists than hostile attitudes.

Pairwise comparisons analyses were conducted to examine simple main effects (see Figure 1 and Figure 2). In HS condition, female participants significantly perceived more discrimination against women than male participants, $p < .001$. There is no difference in the discrimination against men by female and male, $p = .90$. In BS condition, male participants significantly perceived more discrimination against men than female participants, $p < .001$. There was no difference in the sexist toward women by female and male, $p = .68$. In HM condition, although male (1.02) participants significantly perceived less sexists toward women than female (1.13) perceived sexists toward women ($p < .01$), considering that the difference was only .1, it can be assumed that neither males nor females perceived too many sexists toward women. Male participants significantly perceived more discrimination against men than female participants, $p < .001$. In BM condition, female participants significantly perceived more sexists toward women than male participants, $p < .001$. There was no difference between perceived sexists toward men by both female and male participants.

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For female participant perceived sexists toward women, there were significant differences in each pair of all conditions, HS and BS ($p < .001$), HS and HM ($p < .001$), HS and BM ($p < .001$), BS and HM ($p < .001$), BS and HM ($p < .001$), BS and BM ($p < .001$), HM and BM ($p < .001$).

For female participant perceived sexists toward women, there was no significant difference between BS and HB conditions, $p = 1.00$. The remaining pairs of the sexist conditions performed significantly differently in perceived sexists, $p < .001$.

For male participants perceived sexists toward women, there were significant differences in all pairs of the 4 sexist conditions (HS, BS, HM and BM), $p < .001$.

For male participants perceived sexists toward men, there is a marginally significant difference between HS and HM condition ($p = .08$), the remaining pairs of the conditions performed significantly differently ($p < .001$).

In these three sexist conditions of HS, HM and BM, female participants differed significantly in their assessment of the perceived sexists toward women and men, $p < .001$. There was marginally significant difference between perceived sexists toward women and men in BS condition, $p = .06$.

In the sexist conditions of HS, male participant performed significantly higher score of perceived sexists toward women than score of perceived sexists toward men.

Male participants significantly felt more sexist toward men than women in BS and HM condition ($p < .001$). In the BM condition, male participant didn't show significant difference in the performance of perceived sexists toward women and men, $p = .26$.

3.5.4 Perceived Emotions to Ambivalent Sexists Toward Women and Ambivalent Attitudes Toward Men

Perceived Anger A repeated measures mixed two-way ANOVA was conducted. All variables were entered in with 4 types of sexists (HS, BS, HM, and BM) * 2 gender of participant (Female, Male) mixed factorial ANOVA with one within-subjects factor (type of sexists) and one between-subjects factor (gender of participant) to evaluate the effects of sexists, gender of participant on perceived anger. There was homogeneity of variances ($p > .05$) as assessed by Levene's test of homogeneity of variances. The means and standard deviations for the perceived sexists measure as a function of the two factors are presented in Table 6.

Table 6

Descriptive Statistics of Perceived Anger in HS, BS, HM, and BM Condition

	Female		Male	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
HS	3.74	0.09	2.34	0.09
BS	1.93	0.08	2.28	0.08
HM	2.11	0.08	2.67	0.11
BM	2.23	0.11	1.57	0.09

Figure 3

Anger Score Performed by Gender in four Sexist Conditions
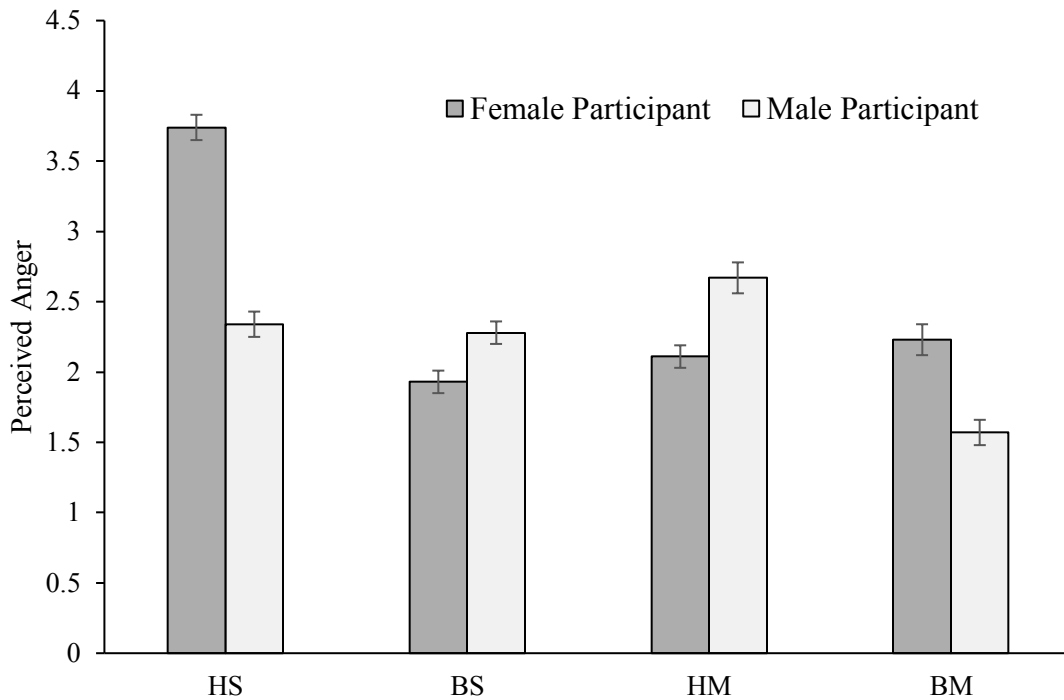
The results of two-way ANOVA revealed a significant main effect of Participant Gender, $F(1, 206) = 7.56$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .04$. For the main effect of Sexists, Mauchly's test of sphericity indicated that the assumption of sphericity wasn't met, $p < .001$. The main effect of Sexists was significant, $F(2.83, 583.23) = 48.20$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .19$. The interaction between sexists and participant gender was significant, $F(2.83, 583.23) = 39.36$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .16$.

Gender differences significantly existed in HS condition ($p < .001$), in BS condition ($p = .04$), in HM condition ($p < .001$), and in BM condition ($p < .001$).

For male participants, there was no difference in the anger scores of these three conditions of HS, BS, and HM. The score of anger in BM condition was significantly lower than the scores in the other 3 conditions ($p < .01$).

For female participants, there was no difference in the anger scores of these three conditions of BS, HM, and BM. The score of anger in HS condition was significantly higher than the scores in the other 3 conditions ($p < .01$).

Perceived Frustration A repeated measures mixed two-way ANOVA was conducted. All variables were entered in 4 types of sexist conditions (HS, BS, HM, and BM) * 2 gender of participant (Female, Male) mixed factorial ANOVA with one within-subjects factor (type of sexist's conditions) and one between-subjects factor (gender of participant) to evaluate the effects of sexists, gender of participant on perceived frustration. There was homogeneity of variances ($p > .05$) as assessed by Levene's test of homogeneity of variances. The means and standard deviations for the perceived sexists measure as a function of the three factors are presented in Table 7.

Table 7

Descriptive Statistics of Perceived Frustration in HS, BS, HM, and BM Conditions

	Female		Male	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
HS	2.87	0.12	2.34	0.13
BS	1.79	0.09	2.31	0.14
HM	2.20	0.10	2.5	0.14
BM	2.03	0.10	1.65	0.10

The results of two-way ANOVA revealed a no significant main effect of Particitipant Gender, $F(1, 206) = .17$, $p = .67$, $\eta^2 = .001$. For the main effect of Sexists, Mauchly's test of sphericity indicated that the assumption of sphericity was met, $p = .13$. The main effect of Sexists was significant, $F(3, 618) = 24.39$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .11$. The interaction between sexists and participant gender is not significant, $F(3, 618) = 15.53$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .07$.

For male participant, there was no difference in the frustration scores of these three conditions of HS, BS, and HM. The score of frustration in BM condition was significantly lower than the scores in the other 3 conditions, $p < .001$.

For female participant, the score of frustration in BS condition was significantly lower than the score of frustration in HM condition, $p < .01$. The score of frustration in HS condition was significantly higher than the scores in the other 3 conditions, $p < .001$. There was no difference in the scores of these three conditions of BS, HM, and BM.

Figure 4

Frustration Score Performed by Gender in Sexist Conditions

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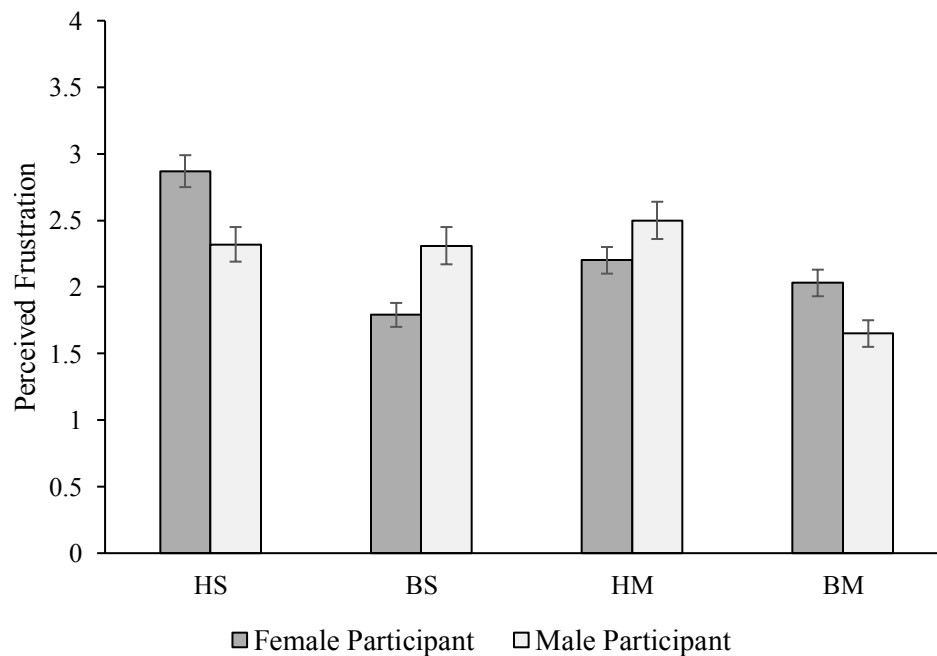
Perceived Offence A repeated measures mixed two-way ANOVA was conducted. All variables were entered in a 4 types of sexists (HS, BS, HM, and BM) X 2 gender of participant (Female, Male) mixed factorial ANOVA with one within-subjects factor (type of sexists) and one between-subjects factor (gender of participant) to evaluate the effects of sexists, gender of participant on perceived offence. There was homogeneity of variances ($p > .05$) as assessed by Levene's test of homogeneity of variances. The means and standard deviations for the perceived offense measure as a function of the two factors are presented in Table 8.

The results of two-way ANOVA revealed a no significant main effect of Participant Gender, $F (1, 206) = .17$, $p = .67$, $\eta^2 = .001$. For the main effect of Sexists, Mauchly's test of sphericity indicated that the assumption of sphericity wasn't met, $p < .001$. Main effect of Sexists was significant, $F (2.83, 582.41) = 22.35$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .10$. The interaction between sexists and participant gender was not significant, $F (2.83, 582.41) = 43.24$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .17$.

Table 8

Descriptive Statistics of Perceived Offence in HS, BS, HM, and BM Conditions

	Female		Male	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
HS	2.73	0.10	1.91	0.12
BS	2.10	0.10	2.44	0.15
HM	1.93	0.11	2.93	0.14
BM	2.39	0.11	1.58	0.09

Figure 5

Offence Score Performed by Gender in Four Sexist Conditions and Gender
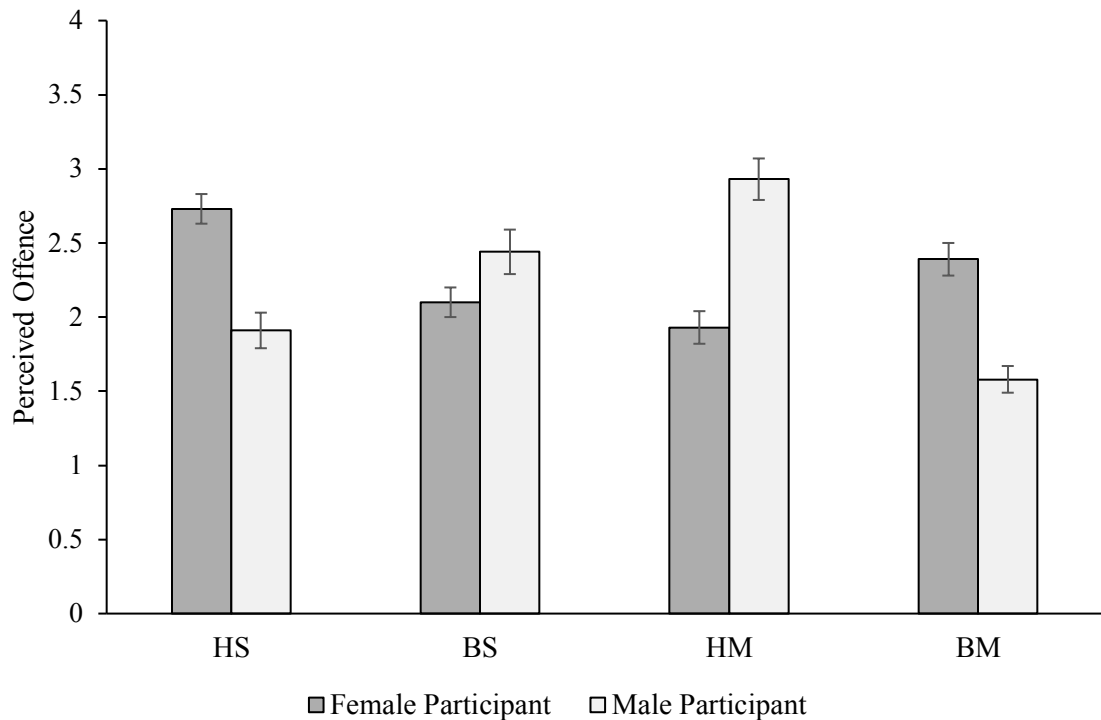
Gender differences significantly existed in each type of sexist conditions (HS, p < .001; BS, p < .01; HM, p < .001; BM, p < .001).

3.5.5 Self-Perception to Ambivalent Sexists Toward Women and Ambivalent Attitudes Toward Men

For the next analysis, considering the effects of age, marriage, etc. on people's self-perceptions, we did some processing of the data that we kept the data of participants under 30 years old.

Communal Traits To examine the hypothesis 5 and 6, a two-way ANOVA was conducted. All variables were entered in 4 types of sexists (HS, BS, HM, and BM) * 2 gender of participant (Female, Male) mixed factorial ANOVA with one within-subjects factors (type of sexists) and one between-subjects factor (gender of participant) to evaluate the effects of

sexists, gender of participant on self-perception of communal traits. There was homogeneity of variances ($p > .05$) as assessed by Levene's test of homogeneity of variances. The means and standard deviations for the communal measure as a function of the two factors are presented in Table 9.

Table 9

Descriptive Statistics of Communal Performed by Sexist Conditions

	Female		Male	
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
HS	5.39	0.09	5.45	0.10
BS	5.46	0.10	5.44	0.11
HM	5.46	0.10	5.52	0.11
BM	5.38	0.10	5.59	0.11

The result of two-way ANOVA test revealed that there is no significant main effect of Participant Gender, $F (1, 190) = .31$, $p = .58$. For the main effect of Sexists, Mauchly's test of sphericity indicated that the assumption of sphericity wasn't met ($p = .01$). The main effect of Sexists was significant, $F (2.87, 545.17) = 2.80$, $p = .04$, $\eta^2 = .12$. For the interaction between Sexists and Gender of Participant, Mauchly's test of sphericity indicated that the assumption of the sphericity wasn't met ($p = .01$). The interaction between Sexism and Target Gender was significant, $F (2.87, 545.17) = 6.07$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .40$.

Figure 6

Communal Score performed by Four Sexist Conditions and Gender
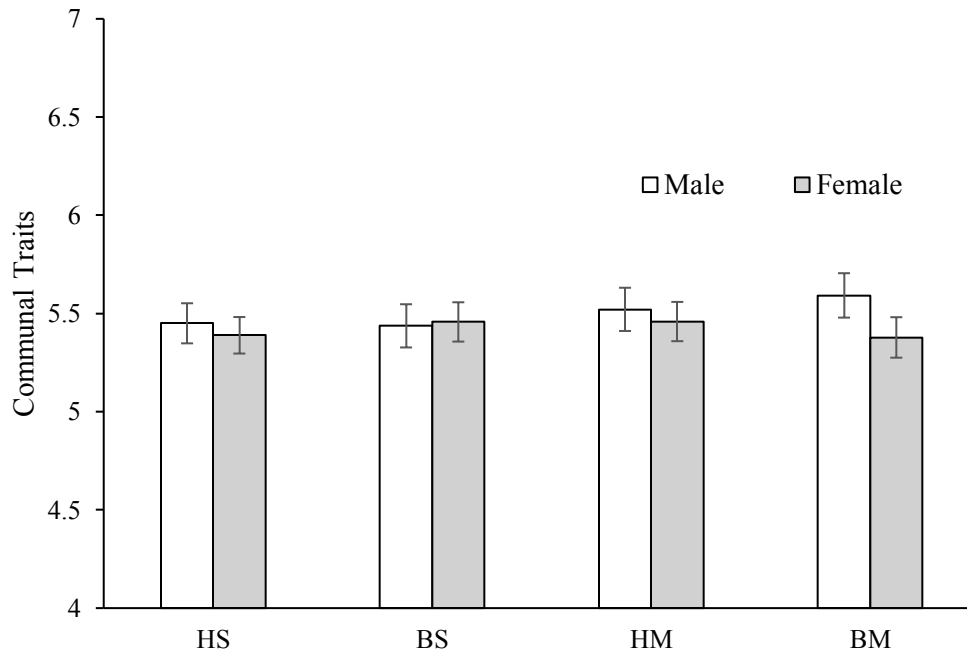
The results of simple main effect showed that, there is no significant gender differences in each sexist condition for the self-perception of communal traits.

For male participants, the score of communal traits in BM condition was higher than that in both HS ($p = .01$) and BS ($p < .01$) conditions. Scores of communal traits performed by male participants didn't differ among HS, BS, HM conditions.

For female participants, there is no difference of the communal score in each pair among all conditions.

Agentic Traits A two-way ANOVA was conducted. All variables were entered in 4 types of sexists (HS, BS, HM, and BM) * 2 gender of participant (Female, Male) mixed factorial ANOVA with one within-subjects factors (type of sexists) and one between-subjects factor (gender of participant) to evaluate the effects of sexists, gender of participant on self-

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perception of agentic traits. There was homogeneity of variances ($p > .05$) as assessed by Levene's test of homogeneity of variances. The means and standard deviations for the agentic scores measure as a function of the two factors are presented in Table 10.

The result of two-way ANOVA test revealed that there is no significant main effect of Participant Gender, $F (1, 190) = .10, p = .75$. For the main effect of Sexists, Mauchly's test of sphericity indicated that the assumption of sphericity wasn't met ($p < .001$). The main effect of Sexists was marginally significant, $F (2.67, 507.52) = 2.21, p = .09, \eta^2 = .10$. For the interaction between Sexists and Gender of Participant, Mauchly's test of sphericity indicated that the assumption of the sphericity wasn't met ($p = .01$). The interaction between Sexism and Target Gender was not significant, $F (2.67, 507.52) = 1.27, p = .29$. The results of simple main effect showed that, only for female participants, agentic score in HS condition was higher than that in BS condition ($p < .01$).

Table 10

Descriptive Statistics of Agentic Traits Performed by Sexist Conditions

Gender of Participant	Female		Male	
Agentic	*M*	*SD*	*M*	*SD*
HS	4.45	0.13	4.35	0.14
BS	4.31	0.14	4.32	0.15
HM	4.37	0.14	4.32	0.16
BM	4.39	0.13	4.28	0.14

Figure 7

Agentic Score Performed by Four Sexist Conditions and Gender
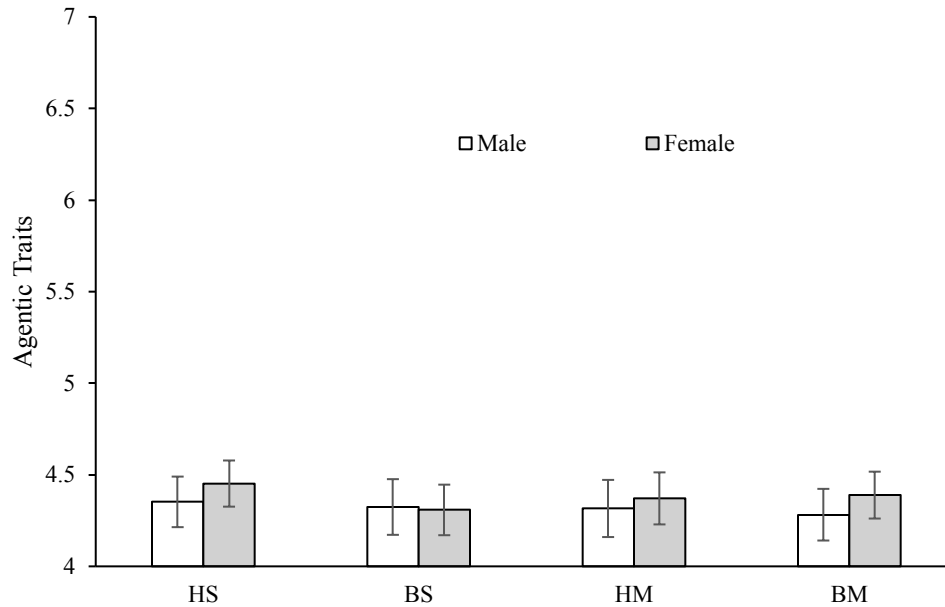
3.6 Discussion

Concerning recognition of ambivalent sexist attitudes, results reveal several differences between attitudes toward women and those toward men. Generally, the score of perceived sexism against women in HS condition was higher than the score of perceived sexist attitudes against women in BS condition, both in female participants and male participants. This supports the prediction of the author: benevolent sexists are less likely to be seen as sexist towards women than people endorsing hostile sexist views among Chinese people. The score of perceived sexists toward men in HM condition was higher than in BM condition, both in female participants and male participants. This supports the prediction of the author that benevolent attitudes toward men is less likely to be seen as sexists than hostile attitudes. Hypothesis 1 was supported.

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      The above results are consistent with the findings of previous studies, as benevolence of sexism seems to shape a positive attitude toward women, and women are likely to gain advantages through this view value, benevolent sexism is not clearly identified as a prejudice, it is more difficult to deal with than hostile attitudes. It is generally challenging for both genders to recognize BS as a form of sexism, as evidenced by several previous studies (Connor et al., 2018; Barreto & Ellemers, 2005; Moya et al., 2007).   However, results of comparisons showed that, men and women seemed to perceive benevolent sexism in a different way. The scores of perceived sexisms against women and the scores of perceived sexists against men were not statistically differently evaluated by female participants. But the scores of perceived sexists against women and the scores of perceived sexists against men were statistically differently evaluated by male participants, while male participants perceived more discrimination against men than discrimination against women.

      Primary research (Greenwood & Isbell, 2002) suggested that benevolent sexism may be perceived differently by men and women. Although the authors' interpretation of this finding is that benevolent sexism may mean different things to men and women, no research to date has provided direct evidence to support this. The above results of the current study could be strong evidence that benevolent sexism means different things to men and women, while men have a viewpoint of benevolent sexism be seen as more discrimination against men than against women. When considering these results within the framework of commonly heard phrases in Chinese culture, such as "men are obligated to provide for their families and earn a living, while women are expected to prioritize their physical appearance," or "men must exhibit strength and provide for their families, while women must embody virtue and educate their spouses and offspring," it becomes apparent that the phenomenon of BS generates stress

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and discontentment among men, while simultaneously constraining the gender roles and potential growth of women.

The scores of perceived sexists toward men in HM condition was higher than in BM condition, both in female participants and male participants. This supports the prediction of the author that benevolent attitudes toward men is less likely to be seen as sexists than hostile attitudes. Hypothesis 2 was supported.

Results of comparisons also showed that, men and women seemed to perceive BM in a different way. In the BM condition, the scores of perceived sexists against women and the score of perceived sexist against men were not statistically differently evaluated by male participants. But the scores of perceived sexists against women and the score of perceived sexist against men were statistically differently evaluated by female participants, while female participants perceived more discrimination against women than discrimination against men.

The above results of the current study suggested that women have a viewpoint of BM be seen as more discrimination against women than men. Upon reviewing the BM items, it becomes apparent that the majority of them expound upon the resilience of men and their aptitude for financial provision, thereby reinforcing the notion of male superiority over women in terms of their capabilities. In contemporary China, women's engagement in societal labor is no longer contingent on men, owing to the country's prolonged economic growth. Consequently, the perspectives and comprehension of BM differ significantly between men and women. The language that previously employed men's superiority over women to establish male supremacy, such as BM, is no longer acknowledged by women.

The results of simple main effect of three-way ANOVA showed that, in HS condition, female participants significant perceived more discrimination against women than male participant. This could be understood that men are more likely than women to agree with

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hostile sexist remarks (Glick & Fiske, 2001). This finding aligns with the explicit

manifestation of antagonistic sexism towards women and the intergroup prejudice that men are

more prone to harbor such biases, while the more sexist attitude people have, the less they

could have an awareness of sexism.

In HM conditions, Male participants significantly perceived more discrimination

against men than female participants. According to the ambivalent attitudes toward men

inventory, developed by Fiske and Glick (1999), revealed that women may harbor hostile

attitudes towards men (HM) due to male abuse of power. The concept of HM may be more

aptly characterized as a response to the historical dominance of males, rather than a simple

manifestation of animosity towards men.

The result of paired-sample t-test showed that perceived discrimination against women

in HS condition was more than perceived discrimination against men in HM (hostile attitude

toward men). Thus, hypotheses 3 and 4 were supported. In the context of group dynamics, it

has been observed that lower-level groups tend to rate higher level groups more favorably.

However, when considering gender, men are often rated lower than women. This phenomenon

can be attributed to societal perceptions of "men are bad but strong, women are beautiful but

weak" (Glick et al., 2004).

About the effects on self-perception, sexism toward women did not significantly affect

female participants' self-perception of communal, while affects female participants' agentic

self-perception. Agentic traits scored higher in HS condition by female participants. This is

partly consisting with previous studies (Barreto et al., 2010) and partly supported hypothesis 5.

Sexism toward women does not affect male participants' self-perception, in terms of

communal and agentic traits. Indeed, there was no significant gender difference in respect to

both communal and agentic traits in each sexist condition. According to the results of

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descriptive statistics, females scored higher in agentic traits and less communal traits than male participants, regardless the experimental conditions. The results we obtained seem to confirm the ambivalence toward women and men as an interesting object of study, both in terms of its recognizability and of its consequences on self-perception.

One of the noteworthy findings of our research pertains to the perception of women. Our study revealed that women rated the BM condition as more unfavorable and biased compared to the BS condition. A plausible explanation for this observation is rooted in the intricate interdependence between men and women and the complementary nature of gender stereotypes, as posited by Jost and Kay (2005). Specifically, the benevolent attitude towards men is often portrayed through certain traits that may be perceived as offensive or devaluing towards women, such as the notion that "men are mainly useful to provide financial security for women", "men are more willing to put themselves in danger to protect others", "men are less likely to fall apart in emergencies than women are" (Glick & Fiske, 1999). These beliefs, which are indicative of women's economic dependence and perceived lack of courage, are inherently derogatory towards women. In essence, benevolence towards men reinforces traditional gender power dynamics and roles and endorses beliefs that are strongly aligned with the system-justifying ideology (Glick et al., 2004).

Another noteworthy discovery that warrants discussion is the perception of male participants, the pattern of influences is more intricate. Our study revealed that men perceived BS view as more negative and sexist compared to BM condition. The ideology of BS scale emphasis on the favorable qualities of purity that women possess in comparison to men. Additionally, it positions men as the protectors of women in gender relations and as the primary economic providers for them. In light of the numerous disputes that have arisen between genders in China over financial matters in recent times, it is evident that Chinese men

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are discontent with the BS perspective on money problems. Lynn (1991) investigated sex differences in money beliefs on a very short four item scale in groups of around 300 students from 20 countries and showed a general trend for males to attach more value to money than females. Men are more competitive with money associating it with freedom and power while women feel more needy and vulnerable and therefore associate it with security and love (Mumford & Weeks, 2003). Given the distinct perspectives that men and women hold regarding financial matters, it is not surprising that men may harbor a sense of disillusionment with the notion that they bear a greater share of the financial responsibility. This sentiment is not necessarily rooted in a progressive feminist ideology that recognizes the inherent flaws in such a belief, but rather stems from a perceived sense of inequity in the realm of monetary affairs.

According to Reactance Theory (Brehm, 1966; Brehm & Weintraub, 1977), individuals may experience a negative emotional response when they perceive a restriction as unjust, which can serve as a strong motivator to circumvent the restriction. Previous research has demonstrated the significance of reactance in relation to women's performance (Dardenne et al., 2007), however, to the best of our knowledge, no study has examined this phenomenon in the context of self-perception. The present study has found evidence to support the hypothesis 5, which posits that women's agentic traits have experienced an increase from BS condition to the HS condition. This finding confirms that women counteract negative gender bias by deliberately adopting male-associated traits (Wang et al., 2017) that are characterized by agentic self-perception.

After careful consideration, it is our conviction that further exploration into the phenomenon of ambivalent attitudes towards both women and men is of great significance. The insidious nature of benevolent sexism, which often goes unrecognized as a form of

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prejudice, can be even more detrimental to a society striving for gender equality as a fundamental aspect of a complete democracy than overtly hostile forms of sexism. Additionally, given the inherent interdependence between the sexes, a more comprehensive understanding of gender stereotypes and their impact can facilitate the development of more authentic and genuine relationships between men and women.

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Chapter 4. Study 2

4.1 Introduction and Background

The patrilocality of Confucianism in China has a history of thousands of years, which has played an important role, contributing significantly to sexist attitudes, as demonstrated by the fact that upon marriage, a woman transitions from being a member of her natal family to assuming membership in her husband's family. There is a familiar saying to describe Chinese daughters, that a daughter married off is like water that has been splashed out, which could explain why most Chinese families would focus more on the education and upbringing of the sons than the daughters. Such a phenomenon exists across different classes in China, and even poverty can exacerbate the tendency of investment imbalance among children. Women encounter sexism in various forms, including both benevolent and hostile manifestations, throughout their daily lives, with many of these encounters potentially going unnoticed as they are perceived as normative, particularly in the case of benevolent sexism (Sabik & Tylka, 2006; Swim et al., 2004).

Education is a key indicator of human capital, and parental support and educational resources can influence individuals' career goal choices (Patton & Mcmahon, 2014). In a Canadian study of 164 mother-daughter dyads, mothers' BS levels positively predicted their adolescent daughters' BS levels and expectations of traditional goals (e.g., appearance and marriage), and negatively predicted their daughters' expectations of academic goals (degree attainment) and academic performance (Montañés et al., 2012). This is consistent with other studies that have found a negative correlation between female educational attainment and BS

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levels (Glick et al., 2002). This demonstrates the negative impact of bona fide gender bias in family education on daughters' academic achievement and career goals, and its intergenerational transmission.

Research has documented disparities in perceived academic achievement along gender lines, wherein female students often outperform male students. Furthermore, there exists an inverse correlation between the presence of sexist attitudes and the perception of academic achievement. Regarding the academic performance of young people of different genders, Stoet & Geary (2015) found in the PISA2009 test that girls' academic performance was significantly better than boys in 70% of countries, while boys' performance was significantly better than girls in only 4% of countries. Also, girls performed better than boys from 2008 to 2015 in China's college entrance examination scores (Shao & Pang, 2016). These results indicate that the performance of girls in middle and high schools is generally better than that of boys. However, for female aged 25 to 42 years old, empirical evidence indicates that exposure to elevated levels of sexism correlates with diminished academic achievement, attributable to the mental intrusions experienced by women that adversely affect their perceptions of academic ability (Dardenne et al., 2007). Additionally, Spears and Leaper (2010) observed that women perceiving greater benevolent sexist attitudes were less inclined to pursue educational pathways in science, technology, engineering, and mathematics, exhibited lower academic self-efficacy, and achieved lower levels of academic success. Benevolent sexism may also curtail the educational aspirations of young girls. Furthermore, a negative association has been identified between benevolent sexism and cognitive performance, a relationship explicated by the detrimental assumptions' benevolent sexism casts upon women's academic competencies.

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In examining the link between sexist attitudes and aggressive behaviors over the past decade, a body of research has identified correlations between sexist beliefs and various forms of aggression and violence, including gender-based violence (Yamazaki et al., 2009) and the endorsement of violence in the context of school bullying (Ovejero et al., 2013). Masser et al. (2010) contributed to this dialogue by exploring the broader implications of such attitudes. More recently, Cross et al. (2017) have found a marked increase in aggression towards female partners among men who hold strongly hostile sexist views. Moreover, Overall et al. (2021) found that sexist attitudes predict family-based aggression during a covid-19 lockdown in New Zealand. In addition, aggression has also been negatively linked to academic achievement (Loveland et al., 2007).

According to Ren et al. (2021), in China, academic achievement and aggressive behavior had a negative correlation among boys in high school and both boys and girls in junior high school, but boys had a much stronger negative correlation than girls. Similar results also have been found in college students. The findings indicate that aggression exerts a substantial deleterious impact on both the current academic performance and the overall cumulative academic achievement of students. There are some explanations of this phenomenon. Wentzel (2017) believes that aggressive behavior may disrupt the learning process, create an environment that is not conducive to learning, and adversely affect the academic performance of young people.

On the other hand, aggressive behavior often leads to negative social evaluations and responses, which may lead to adolescents' negative attitudes towards the school environment, leading to a decline in academic interest and academic performance (Dodge & Pettit, 2003). Thus, although few studies have addressed the effects of sexist attitudes on males, after

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reviewed previous studies, it could be approached from the perspective of aggression, academic achievement, and achievement motivation.

The impact of achievement motivation on both individual and societal development is significant. At the individual level, achievement motivation plays a crucial role in determining one's career success. It is akin to intelligence, serving as a tool that enhances the likelihood of success in any domain of life. From a societal perspective, achievement motivation holds considerable value. The achievement motivation level of the members of the group together with economic growth, social wealth accumulation, and technological progress is regarded as one of the important indicators of social prosperity and progress. In recent years, achievement motivation has been an important research topic. With the improvement of women's status, the proportion of successful women has gradually increased, which has directly attracted the attention of scholars in psychology, pedagogy, and sociology. Research on the achievement motivation and attribution characteristics of young women is also particularly important. Sexist environments modulate women's career aspirations and tend to reinforce their engagement with traditional, domestic roles (Hilton & VonHippel, 1996; Tabassum & Nayak, 2021). Wen & Jing (2007) have found that males performed better achievement motivation than females among Chinese college students. With the increase of age, the achievement motivation of young Chinese women shows a downward trend (15 ~ 35 years old) (Kong, 2005).

In this study we will focus on the effects of sexism on individuals. Most previous research on sexism has examined negative effects and harms of sexists on women. This study argues that sexism negatively affects men as well as women. As mentioned before, previous studies have already shown lots of evidence how sexism negatively affect female in many perspectives, such as expectations of having a career (Hilton & VonHippel, 1996; Tabassum

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& Nayak, 2021), perceptions of academic ability (Dardenne et al., 2007), academic self-efficacy and academic achievement (Spears & Leaper, 2010). Benevolent sexism might limit the academic goals of girls. Also, benevolent sexism might be related to a worse cognitive performance.

4.2 Hypothesis

1. Benevolent sexist attitude negatively affects achievement motivation in female participants.

Evidence showed that men's hostile sexist attitude predicts men's aggressive behavior towards their partners. In addition, previous studies reported positive relationship between different kinds of aggression and violence (Masser et al., 2010), such as gender violence (Yamazaki et al., 2009) and bullying at school and the justification of violence (Ovejero et al.,2013).

Thinking about the perspectives of academic performance and achievement motivation, many researchers have found that aggression could predict worse academic performance for boys in high school (Ren et al., 2021), and aggression also negatively correlated to achievement motivation (DeCharms et al., 1955; Bandura & Walters, 1958). Therefore, in Study 2, we hypothesize that:

2. Aggression will mediate the relationship between hostile sexist attitude and achievement motivation in male participants.

Thinking about the gender differences in achievement motivation and academic achievement and the effects of sexism on achievement motivation and academic achievement, we hypothesized that:

3. Gender moderates the effects of HS and BS on achievement motivation.

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4. Gender moderates the effects of HS and BS on academic achievement.

4.3 Methodology

4.3.1 Procedure

Participants for this study were recruited through social media. They were offered the link to take the survey on their mobile phone or computer. Participants were informed of that the survey would take approximately 15-20 minutes to complete. Participants were instructed to complete the entire survey but that there was no penalty for not completing the survey in its entirety.

The questionnaire was administered in an online format using WenJuanXing (a professional questionnaire survey official website in China). The questionnaire included three existing measures and a face sheet. All the questions were presented in Chinese.

4.3.2 Participants

Two hundred and sixty-nine Chinese students (except those from Taiwan, Hong Kong and Macao) from mainland universities were recruited to participate in this research through social media such as WeChat and email, and randomly distributing flyers to students at different college campus. There were 33 technical college students, 183 undergraduate students, 56 graduate students in master course, and 14 graduate students in doctoral course. The total mean age was 23.51 (SD = 3.23, Range: 17 - 30), with 55.56% of participants being female and 44.44% male. No statistically significant differences emerged for age with respect to participant gender t (206) = 0.95, p = .25.

The students were recruited from different colleges and universities across China. 86.96% of the participants categorized themselves as never married. 31.88% of the participants came from rural areas, and 68.12% of the participants came from urban.

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4.3.3 Measures

Benevolent and Hostile Sexism*:* Sexist attitudes are evaluated using the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (Glick & Fiske, 1996). The Chinese version of this scale was developed by Lee et al. (2010). This scale has 22 items, 11 items are used to measure hostile sexism (HS), and the other 11 items are used to measure Benevolent Sexism (BS), using a 6-point Likert-type scale ranging from (1) extremely disagree to (6) extremely agree. HS and BS respectively include three dimensions: gender power, gender differences, and heterosexual sexual behavior. These three dimensions are represented in the BS subscale as protective paternalism, complementary gender differentiation and heterosexual intimacy. A higher score of HS and BS indicates more sexist. Cronbach's alphas for HS were .79, for BS was .75.

Aggression*:* The Buss-Perry Aggression Questionnaire (BPAQ, Buss & Perry, 1992) consists of 30 self-administered items rated on a 5-point Likert scale. The BPAQ includes four subscales: Physical Aggression (items 1-9), Verbal Aggression (items 10-14), Anger (items 15-21), and Hostility (items 22-29). The score for each scale is the sum or the ratings for its items. The two items (7 and 18) worded in the direction opposite to aggression are reverse scored. The total score for aggression is the sum of these scale scores. Higher scores indicate higher tendency of aggressive behavior. Cronbach's alphas for the Buss-Perry Aggression Questionnaire were .74.

Achievement Motivation*:* The Achievement Motives Scale (AMS, Gjesme & Nygard, 1970) was conducted in this research. AMS has been conducted in China for numerous studies, it could measure two factors of achievement motivation: hope of success (items 1-15) and fear of failure (items 16-30), using a 5-point Likert-type scale ranging from 1 to 5. The Chinese version of this scale was developed by Ye and Hagtvet (1992). Cronbach's alphas for the Achievement Motives Scale were .76.

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4.4 Results of Data Analysis

4.4.1 Pre-Processing

The 269 participants who participated in the survey completed the questionnaire quite well. There was no outlier in each item. Thus, no data were excluded from the current study.

4.4.2 Descriptive Statistics

The range, means, and standard deviations for each primary variable are reported in Table 11. Descriptive statistics of all variables for each gender and gender differences are shown in Table 12.

Table 11

Descriptive Statistics for the Variables

	Range	*M*	*SD*	N
HS	1 - 6	2.99	0.64	269
BS	1 - 6	3.32	0.52	
Motivation of Success	1 - 5	3.20	0.59	
Fear of Failure	1 - 5	3.08	0.66	
Aggression	1 - 5	2.35	0.57	
Academic Achievement	1 - 5	3.56	0.80	

Table 12

Means and Standard Deviations of Variables for Female and Male Participants

	Female Participant		Male Participant		*t*	*p*	*d*
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*			
Hostile Sexism	2.72	0.50	3.62	0.57	-11.35	<.001	-1.42
Bevevolent Sexism	3.25	0.49	3.39	0.58	0.57	<.05	0.07
Motivation of Success	3.22	0.53	3.17	0.67	0.59	.28	0.08
Fear of Failure	3.10	0.57	3.04	0.78	0.64	.26	0.09
Aggression	2.21	0.50	2.57	0.61	-4.91	<.001	-0.65
Academic Achievement	3.67	0.78	3.38	0.80	3.01	<.01	0.38

4.4.3 Zero-Order Correlations

Zero-order correlations (see Table 13 – Table 15) were used to examine the strength and direction of the bivariate relationships between each independent variable and each dependent variable in the study.

Table 13

Zero-Order Correlations for the Variables

	Gender	Age	HS	BS	Motivation of Success	Fear of Failure	Aggression
Gender	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Age	.085	—	—	—	—	—	—
HS	.570**	-.012	—	—	—	—	—
BS	-.035	.212**	.229**	—	—	—	—
Motivation of Success	-.038	.09	-.226**	-.203**	—	—	—
Fear of Failure	-.042	-.097	.262**	.068	-.388**	—	—
Aggression	.301**	-.045	.365**	.250**	.001	.350**	—

Note. Values in square brackets indicate the 95% confidence interval for each correlation. The confidence interval is a plausible range of population correlations that could have caused the sample correlation (Cumming, 2014). $^{\dagger}p < .1$. $*p < .05$. $**p < .01$. $***p < .001$

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Table 14

Zero-Order Correlations for the Variables in Female Participants

Female Particpants	HS	BS	Motivation of Success	Fear of Failure	Aggression	Academic Achivement
HS	—	—	—	—	—	—
BS	. 367**	—	—	—	—	—
Motivation of Success	- .154*	- .506**	—	—	—	—
Fear of Failure	. 252**	.045	- .168**	—	—	—
Aggression	.106	.039	.081	.406**	—	—
Academic Achivement	- .033	- .216**	.067	- .030	- .051	—

Note. Values in square brackets indicate the 95% confidence interval for each correlation. The confidence interval is a plausible range of population correlations that could have caused the sample correlation (Cumming, 2014). $^{\dagger}p < .1$. $*p < .05$. $**p < .01$. $***p < .001$

Table 15

Zero-Order Correlations for the Variables in Male Participants

Male Participants	HS	BS	Motivation of Success	Fear of Failure	Aggression	Academic Achivement
HS	—	—	—	—	—	—
BS	.226**	—	—	—	—	—
Motivation of Success	- .354**	. 114	—	—	—	—
Fear of Failure	.451**	. 087	- .594**	—	—	—
Aggression	. 408**	. 128**	- .057	.358**	—	—
Academic Achivement	- .300**	- .260	. 290	- .080	- .217**	—

Note. Values in square brackets indicate the 95% confidence interval for each correlation. The confidence interval is a plausible range of population correlations that could have caused the sample correlation (Cumming, 2014). $^{\dagger}p < .1$. $*p < .05$. $**p < .01$. $***p < .001$

As anticipated, HS was significantly and positively correlated with BS. Motivation of success was significantly and negatively correlated with fear of failure. Gender was

significantly and positively correlated with HS and Aggression, which means that male performed more hostile sexist and more aggressive than female.

4.3.4. The Effect of BS on Achievement Motivation for Female Participants

To examine hypothesis 1, benevolent sexism negatively affects achievement motivation in female participants, two multiple linear regression analyses were conducted. Independent variables were HS and BS, while dependent variable was motivation of success and fear of failure.

In the respect of motivation of success, the overall regression was significant, $R^2 = .26$, $F (2, 162) = 28.12$, $p < .001$. BS negatively predicted motivation of success, $B = -0.56$, $SE = 0.08$, $\beta = -.52$, $t = -7.15$, $p < .001$, while HS didn't show significant prediction with motivation of success ($p = .61$). Hypothesis 1 was supported in the respect of motivation of success.

In the respect of fear of failure, the overall regression was significant, $R^2 = .07$, $F (2, 162) = 5.75$, $p < .001$. HS positively predicted fear of failure, $B = 0.31$, $SE = 0.09$, $\beta = .27$, $t = 3.34$, $p < .01$, while BS didn't show significant prediction with fear of failure ($p = .51$). Hypothesis 1 was not supported in the respect of fear of failure.

4.3.5 The Mediating Role of Aggression Between Hostile Sexists and Achievement Motivation

To examine hypothesis 2, aggression will mediate the relationship between Hostile sexist attitudes and achievement motivation in male participants, mediation analysis was performed to assess the mediating role of aggression in the relationship between hostile sexists and achievement motivation for male participants. As achievement motivation was measured by two factors, motivation of success and fear of failure, we conducted the process of mediation analysis twice on both of the two dimensions.

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In more explicit terms of examining the mediating role of aggression between hostile sexists and motivation of success, we followed the following four steps:

1. Confirm the significance of the relationship between the Hostile Sexist and Motivation of Success.

2. Confirm the significance of the relationship between the Hostile Sexist and the Aggression.

3. Confirm the significance of relationship between the Aggression and the Motivation of Success in the presence of the HS.

4. Confirm the significance (or the meaningful reduction in effect) of the relationship between the HS and the Motivation of Success in the presence of the mediator.

In Step 1 of the mediation model, the regression of HS on motivation of success, ignoring the mediator, was significant, $R^2 = .13$, $B = -0.42$, $SE = 0.11$, $\beta = -.35$, $t = -3.82$, $p < .001$. Step 2 showed that the regression of the HS on the mediator, aggression, was also significant, $R^2 = .17$, $B = 0.44$, $SE = 0.10$, $\beta = .41$, $t = 4.52$, $p < .001$. Step 3 of the mediation process showed that the mediator (aggression), controlling for HS, was not significant, $p = .3$. Step 4 of the analyses revealed that, controlling for the mediator (aggression), HS score was significant predictor of motivation of success, $B = -0.47$, $SE = 0.12$, $\beta = -.40$, $t = -3.91$, $p < .001$. It was found that aggression has no mediate effect on the relationship between HS and motivation of success.

In more explicit terms of examining the mediating role of aggression between hostile sexists and fear of failure, we followed the following four steps:

1. Confirm the significance of the relationship between the Hostile Sexist and Fear of Failure.

2. Confirm the significance of the relationship between the Hostile Sexist and the Aggression.

3. Confirm the significance of relationship between the Aggression and the Fear of Failure in the presence of the HS.

4. Confirm the significance (or the meaningful reduction in effect) of the relationship between the HS and the Fear of Failure in the presence of the mediator.

In Step 1 of the mediation model, the regression of HS on fear of failure, ignoring the mediator, was significant, $R^2 = .20$, $B = 0.62$, $SE = 0.12$, $\beta = .45$, $t = 5.10$, $p < .001$. Step 2 showed that the regression of the HS on the mediator, aggression, was also significant, $R^2 = .17$, $B = 0.44$, $SE = 0.10$, $\beta = .41$, $t = 4.52$, $p < .001$. Step 3 of the mediation process showed that the mediator (aggression), controlling for HS, was not significant, $B = 0.27$, $SE = 0.12$, $\beta = .32$, $t = 2.19$, $p = .03$. Step 4 of the analyses revealed that, controlling for the mediator (aggression), HS score was significant predictor of fear of failure, , $B = 0.51$, $SE = 0.13$, $\beta = .37$, $t = 3.85$, $p < .001$. It was found that aggression significantly mediated the relationship between HS and fear of failure (see Figure 8) . Hypothesis 2 was supported in the respect of fear of failure.

Figure 8

The Mediation Model of Aggression between HS and Fear of Failure for Male Participants
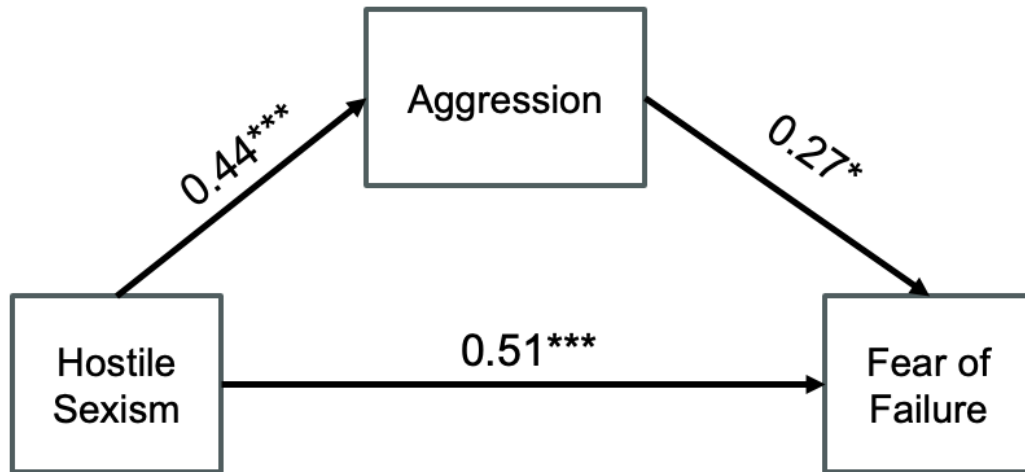
4.3.6 The Effects of Gender and Sexist Attitudes on Achievement Motivation

To examine hypothesis 3, a multiple regression model was tested to investigate the interaction between gender and hostile sexist attitude on motivation of success after centering hostile sexist attitude (HS) and computing the HS * Gender interaction term. The two predictors and the interaction were entered into a simultaneous regression model. The overall regression was not statistically significant, $R^2 = .08$, $F (3, 265) = 7.30$, $p < .001$. Results also indicated that gender negatively predicted motivation of success, $B = -0.20$, $SE = 0.09$, $\beta = -.16$, $t = -2.21$, $p = .03$, HS negatively predicted motivation of success, $B = -0.42$, $SE = 0.10$, $\beta = -.46$, $t = -4.26$, $p < .001$. The interaction between HS and gender was significant, $B = 0.26$, $SE = 0.13$, $\beta = .18$, $t = 1.95$, $p = .04$.

Simple slopes for the association between HS and motivation of success were tested for female and male of gender. Each of the simple slope tests revealed a significant negative association between HS and motivation of success, but the HS was more strongly related to motivation of success for male participants ($B = -0.42$, $SE = 0.12$, $\beta = -.35$, $t = -3.82$, $p < .001$) than for female participants ($B = -0.16$, $SE = 0.08$, $\beta = -.15$, $t = -1.99$, $p < .05$). HS affects motivation success in male participants stronger than in female participants.

We conducted a multiple regression model was tested to investigate the interaction between gender and benevolent sexist attitude on motivation of success after centering benevolent sexist attitude (BS) and computing the BS * Gender interaction term. The two predictors and the interaction were entered into a simultaneous regression model. The overall regression was not statistically significant, $R^2 = .14$, $F (3, 265) = 13.73$, $p < .001$. Results indicated no significant relationship between gender and motivation of success ($p = .46$), and no significant relationship between HS and motivation of success ($p = ,16$. The interaction between HS and gender was significant, $B = -0.68$, $SE = 0.13$, $\beta = -.44$, $t = -5.28$, $p < .001$.

Simple slopes for the association between BS and motivation of success were tested for female and male of gender. Only for female participants, slope tests revealed a significant negative association between BS and motivation of success, ($B = -0.42$, $SE = 0.12$, $\beta = -.35$, $t = -3.82$, $p < .001$). BS affects motivation success in female participants.

In the respect of fear of failure, a multiple regression model was tested to investigate the interaction between gender and hostile sexist attitude on fear of failure after centering hostile sexist attitude (HS) and computing the HS * Gender interaction term. The two predictors and the interaction were entered into a simultaneous regression model. The overall regression was not statistically significant, $R^2 = .14$, $F (3, 265) = 14.46$, $p < .001$. Results also

indicated that gender positively predicted fear of failure, $B = 0.43$, $SE = 0.10$, $\beta = .32$, $t = 4.47$,

$p < .001$, HS positively predicted fear of failure, $B = 0.62$, $SE = 0.10$, $\beta = .60$, $t = 5.82$, p

$< .001$. The interaction between HS and gender was significant, $B = -0.33$, $SE = 0.14$, $\beta =$

$-.21$, $t = -2.32$, $p = .02$.

Figure 9

The Interaction Between Hostile Sexist Attitude and Gender on Motivation of Success
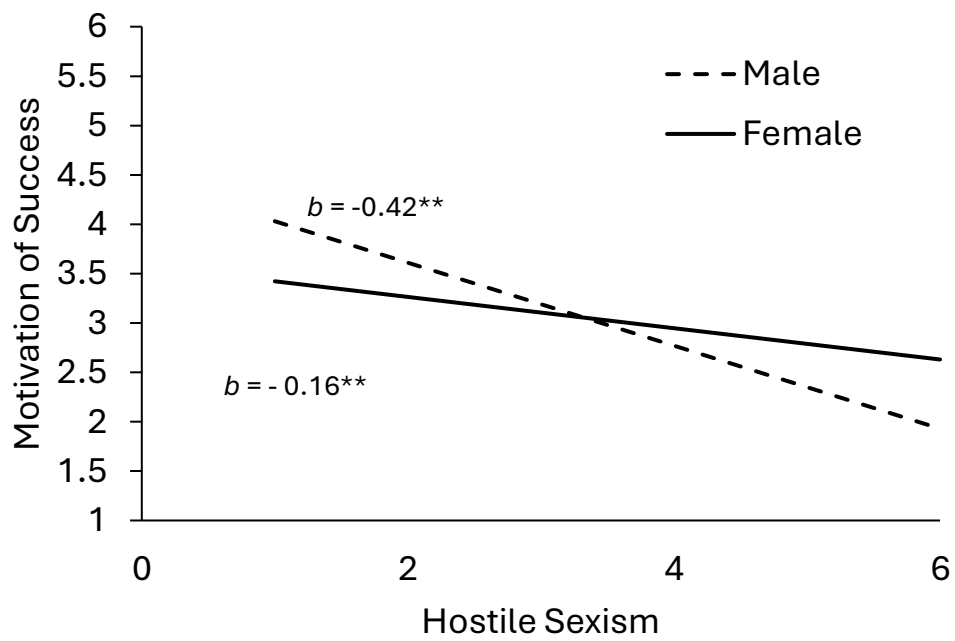
Figure 10

The Interaction Between Benevolent Sexist Attitude and Gender on Motivation of Success
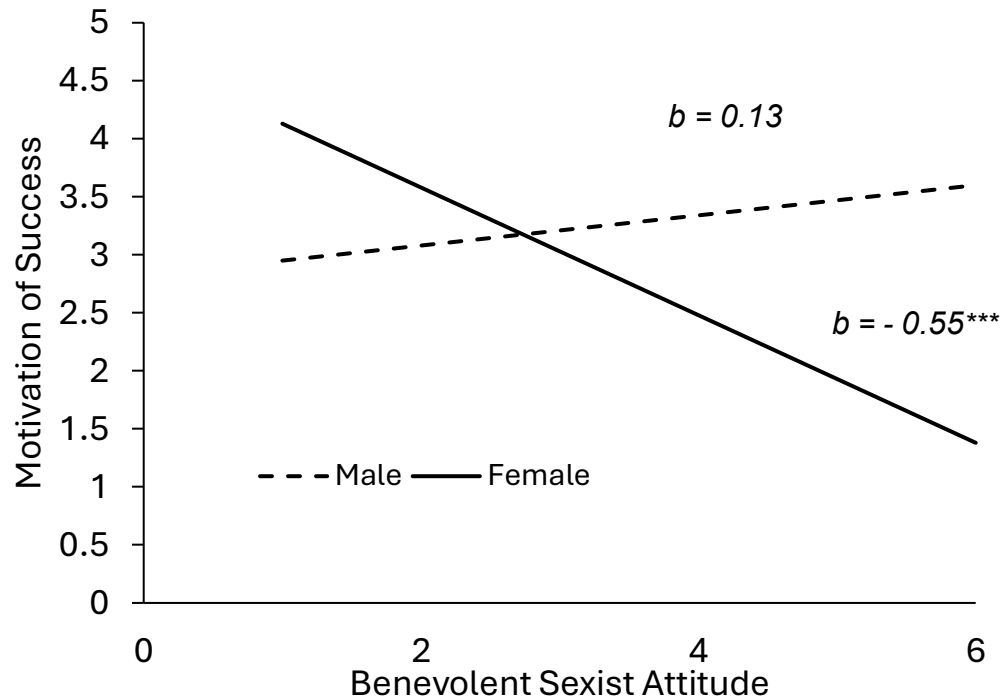
Simple slopes for the association between HS and fear of failure were tested for female and male of gender. Each of the simple slope tests revealed a significant negative association between HS and fear of failure, but the HS was more strongly related to fear of failure for male participants ($B = 0.62$, $SE = 0.12$, $\beta = .45$, $t = 5.10$, $p < .001$) than for female participants ($B = 0.28$, $SE = 0.09$, $\beta = .25$, $t = 3.33$, $p < .01$). HS affects fear of failure in male participants' stronger than in female participants.

We conducted a multiple regression model to investigate the interaction between gender and benevolent sexist attitude on fear of failure after centering benevolent sexist attitude (BS) and computing the BS * Gender interaction term. The two predictors and the interaction were entered into a simultaneous regression model. The overall regression was not

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statistically significant, $R^2 = .01$, $F (3, 265) = .61$, $p = .61$. The interaction between HS and

gender was also not significant, $p = .67$.

Hypothesis 3 was partly supported.

Figure 11

The Interaction Between Hostile Sexist Attitude and Gender on Fear of Failure
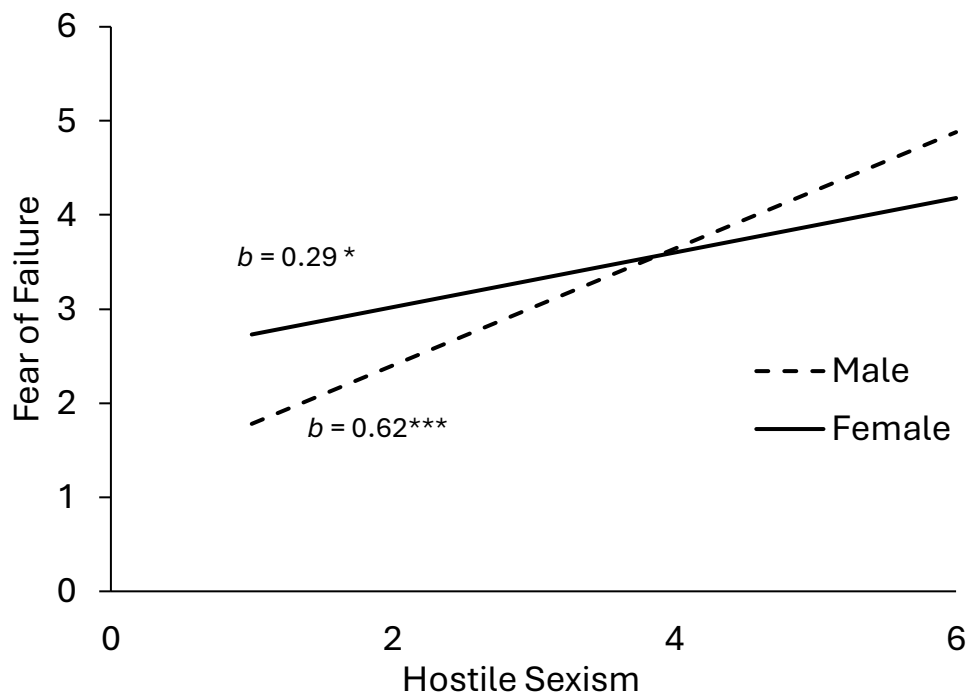
4.3.7 The Effects of Gender and Sexist Attitudes on Academic Achievement

To examine hypothesis 4, a multiple regression model was tested to investigate the

interaction between gender and hostile sexist attitude on academic achievement after centering

hostile sexist attitude (HS) and computing the HS * Gender interaction term. The two

predictors and the interaction were entered into a simultaneous regression model. The overall

regression was not statistically significant, $R^2 = .04$, $F (3, 265) = 1.95$, $p = .13$. The interaction

between HS and gender was also not significant, $p = .34$.

The next, we conducted a multiple regression model to investigate the interaction between gender and benevolent sexist attitude on academic achievement after centering benevolent sexist attitude (BS) and computing the BS * Gender interaction term. The two predictors and the interaction were entered into a simultaneous regression model. The overall regression was statistically significant $R^2 = .09$, $F(3, 265) = 9.11$, $p < .001$. Results also indicated that gender positively predicted academic achievement, $B = 0.31$, $SE = 0.10$, $\beta = .19$, $t = 3.24$, $p < .01$, suggested that female performed better than male on academic achievement. BS negatively associated with academic achievement, $B = -0.41$, $SE = 0.13$, $\beta = -.26$, $t = -3.08$, $p < .01$. The interaction between gender and HS was not significant, $p = .77$.

Hypothesis 4 was not supported. The results suggested that BS negatively affect academic achievement both on female and male participants.

4.5 Discussion

The first aim of this study was to analyze the relationships between hostile and benevolent sexist attitudes, aggression, achievement motivation, and academic achievement. The second aim was to examine how aggression in males mediated a forementioned relationships. Numerous previous studies have established that sexist attitudes pose a significant obstacle to the development of women(Hilton & VonHippel, 1996; Dardenne et al., 2007; Spears & Leaper, 2010; Tabassum & Nayak, 2021; Wen & Jing, 2007). The greater the prevalence of such attitudes, the more challenging it becomes for women to transcend conventional gender roles and pursue career success. However, scant research has been conducted on the impact of sexist attitudes on men's drive for achievement. A crucial discovery of this investigation is that sexist attitudes not only impede women's progress but

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also impede men's growth of achievement motivation and create a barrier to social advancement.

Results showed that aggression mediated the relationship between hostile attitudes and fear of failure in male participants, which supported the hypothesis. According to Ueno (2010), men's suffering can be attributed to their inability to conform to traditional gender roles as breadwinners, which results in a sense of frustration and negative emotions such as aggression. In today's highly competitive society, the prevalence of sexism exacerbates this issue, particularly in the face of increasing numbers of career women. This phenomenon is consistent with resistance theory, which suggests that individuals may exhibit negative behaviors in response to perceived unfairness and pressure to conform to societal expectations. Men may resort to aggression as a means of circumventing restrictions or compensating for their perceived lack of "breadwinning" ability, in an effort to demonstrate their masculinity.

Considering that most perceived aversive consequences of failure were diminished perception of self, no sense of achievement, and the emotional cost of failure, which are not consist with the role of masculinity. The high-level of acceptance of traditional gender roles also means that the role of the failed man is not acceptable. Moreover, according to the research findings, women are more likely to be perceived as a potential threat by men who hold prominent positions in management and during the promotion process. The study highlights that the manifestation of hostile gender bias, as opposed to benevolent gender bias, has a detrimental effect on women who are perceived as a challenge to men in the workplace.

Thus, hostile sexist attitude, aggression, fear of failure, negative effects on women, the four factors form a self-perpetuating cycle that poses a formidable challenge for individuals of both genders to overcome.

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The results also showed that HS was more strongly related to motivation of success for male participants than female participants. HS was more strongly positively related to fear of failure for male participants than female participants. BS affects motivation success in female participants. Hypotheses 3 and 4 were partly supported. Beydogan and Karau (2002) investigated the correlation between hostile sexism (HS) and benevolent sexism (BS) and the attitudes of university students towards female managers. In a similar vein, Masser and Abrams (2004) explored the relationship between benevolent and hostile gender bias and the glass ceiling phenomenon in management. Their research, which involved 307 participants and employed the ASI questionnaire, revealed that individuals with high perceptions of hostile sexism were more inclined to hold unfavorable opinions of female candidates and were less inclined to endorse women as managers. The comparable outcomes suggest that HS holds a negative disposition towards women who pursue careers, which subsequently diminishes their drive to attain success and the fear of failure, which is also defined as achievement motivation.

The relationship between male participants' Hostile Sexism (HS) and their motivation for success is a complex issue to interpret. Hostile Sexism, which has not been extensively examined in prior research, suggests that higher levels of HS, emphasizing male dominance, increase the likelihood of men dominating women (Glick & Fiske, 1996). According to Achievement Motivation Theory (Gjesme & Nygard, 1970), achievement motivation is positively correlated with the need for power. Men with higher levels of HS may derive a sense of power from the sexist process of stigmatizing and dominating women, which reduces their need for other forms of power and, consequently, their overall motivation for success, as defined by achievement motivation. Due to the limited number of studies in this area, further in-depth research is necessary to substantiate this explanation.

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The findings also indicated that male participants who exhibit hostile sexist attitudes tend to have lower academic achievement. Conversely, female participants who display benevolent sexist attitudes also tend to have lower academic achievement. However, there was no significant association between benevolent sexist attitudes and academic achievement in male participants.

The findings are consistent with prior research, as scholars have documented that the adverse association between sexism and academic performance primarily impacts female students (Spears & Leaper, 2010). Sexism poses obstacles to academic aspirations for girls, thereby impeding their educational pursuits and professional trajectories (Montanes et al., 2012). The prevailing rationale for gender-based discrimination is attributed to the impact of the social and familial milieu, which constrains the academic aspirations of girls and instills in them a predisposition to prioritize familial obligations (Spears & Leaper, 2010; Friedman & Leaper, 2010).

The presence of gender discrimination poses a hindrance for girls in accessing higher technical education, thereby limiting their opportunities to secure highly skilled technical positions. The findings of this study validate the association between benevolent sexism and conventional gender roles, wherein women are linked with communal values such as care for others, while men are associated with agentic values such as competence. This may explain why benevolent sexism did not exhibit a significant correlation with perceived academic achievement in male participants but was negatively linked to perceived academic achievement in female participants (Glick & Fiske, 1996; Kuchynka et al., 2018).

The research findings indicate that aggression is inversely related to academic achievement and positively associated with hostile sexist attitudes, but only among male participants. This suggests that overtly aggressive behavior, such as hitting and insulting

others, poses a risk to academic success, particularly when combined with hostile sexist attitudes. Male individuals who exhibit higher levels of hostile sexism and aggression are at a greater risk of experiencing academic difficulties. Previous studies have shown that externalizing behavior problems are negatively linked to academic achievement (Loveland et al., 2007). This gender-specific relationship provides strong evidence that males are more disadvantaged than females, as they tend to score higher in hostile sexism and aggressiveness. Sexism reinforces traditional gender stereotypes that associate masculinity with psychological traits such as aggression and dominance (Glick et al., 2000; Glick et al., 2004). Furthermore, the link between benevolent sexism and aggression is insignificant in girls and weak in boys. Benevolent sexism is characterized by seemingly positive attitudes that motivate protective behaviors towards women and is generally accepted by society due to its protective nature (Glick & Fiske, 1996). This may explain the lack of association between these variables.

The results presented in this study demonstrate the presence of both sexism and low perceived academic achievement in both male and female students. These findings support the notion that gender-based discrimination reinforces certain characteristics and behaviors for men and women, as previously suggested by Brandt (2011) and Shnabel et al. (2016), and influenced by patriarchal societal structures (Glilck et al., 2004). Additionally, it is noteworthy that there exists a negative correlation between hostile sexism and perceived academic achievement in both genders, although this relationship is more pronounced in females. Furthermore, the association between benevolent sexism and perceived academic achievement is weak in females and insignificant in males, as also observed in relation to aggressive behavior.

Socio-cognitive models suggest that individuals construct their self-concept by internalizing social discourse, which may include sexist attitudes (Merton, 1948; Garcia-

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Leive, 2005). Such attitudes can reinforce traditional gender roles (Glick et al., 2000), and previous research has shown that males tend to exhibit higher levels of sexism in both children (Montanes et al., 2015) and adults, which may contribute to disciplinary problems and poor academic performance. Consistent with prior studies (Glick et al., 2000), the present investigation found that male participants reported lower levels of academic achievement than females. Additionally, it is important to consider the impact of benevolent sexism, which is closely linked to hostile sexism. These findings underscore the need to promote sustainable adolescent development by addressing the harmful effects of sexist attitudes and behaviors.

While gender inequality is often viewed through the lens of its impact on women, it is crucial to recognize the detrimental effects on men as well. Addressing gender inequality requires dismantling harmful stereotypes and norms that constrain both men and women, promoting healthier, more equitable societies. Recognizing the mutual benefits of gender equality can lead to policies and cultural shifts that improve the well-being of everyone, regardless of gender.

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Chapter 5. Study 3

5.1 Introduction and Background

Following the women's liberation movement in China, there has been a significant transformation in the social roles of Chinese women. This movement was characterized by the rallying cry "Women can hold half the sky" and a range of policies aimed at safeguarding women's rights. As a result, approximately 80 percent of the female population actively participated in the labor force during the 1980s, which has the potential to engender a substantial shift in individuals' gender role attitudes.

Gender-role attitudes refer to perceptions about the social norms that men and women should follow, the division of roles in society, patterns of gender relations, and their behavior (Willianms & Best, 1990). They are important indicators of the extent to which basic state policies on gender equality have been achieved. The perception of gender among individuals has undergone a shift from traditional to modern, owing to the growing awareness of equality and democratization. Those who adhere to traditional gender perspectives tend to hold the view that there exists a clear-cut gender and social division of labor between the sexes. This perspective is characterized by a belief in a strong, responsible male gender as opposed to a gentle, dependent female gender, a division of gender roles between the public and private spheres, where men are primarily associated with the public sphere and women with the family-centered private sphere, and a male-dominated, female-dominated gender relationship. This perspective posits that men are the primary actors in gender relations, while women are

relegated to a secondary role. The concept of the division of gender roles is a fundamental

aspect of the gender perspective (Thornton & Young-DeMarco, 2001). The advent of

modernization has brought about a shift in the traditional gender perspective towards a more

contemporary outlook. The modern gender perspective places emphasis on the equitable

treatment of both men and women, dismantling the conventional gender roles, facilitating

women's participation in the public domain, and promoting shared social and familial

responsibilities between genders.

According to the framework of the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (ASI), hostile sexism

is targeted at women who challenge male supremacy, whereas benevolent sexism tends to be

directed at women adhering to conventional female roles (Glick & Fiske, 1996). Consistent

with these theoretical propositions, Glick et al. (1997) observed that men's hostile sexism was

a unique predictor of negative sentiments towards professional women, while their benevolent

sexism was a distinct predictor of favorable sentiments towards homemakers. Supporting these

findings, Becker's 2010 study with female participants elucidated that women's increased

reflection on professional women during the hostile sexism assessment correlated with

heightened hostile sexist attitudes. Conversely, increased contemplation of homemakers

during the benevolent sexism assessment was associated with stronger benevolent sexist

attitudes (Becker, 2010). There remains, however, a scarcity of research specifically

examining the relationships between sexist ideologies and perceptions of traditional and non-

traditional gender roles.

The present research endeavors to examine attitudes toward the target who diverge

from traditional gender roles and attitudes toward the target who is described as a traditional

gender role, augmenting the existing body of literature in two pivotal respects. Initially, prior

inquiries into sexism and evaluations of traditional versus non-traditional roles predominantly

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required participants to react to generalized category labels (e.g., "homemakers," "career women"), a practice which may evoke more stereotypical conceptions and reactions. This is due to the amplified impact of stereotypes on assessments pertaining to groups rather than individuals (Gill, 2003). To circumvent the inherent bias of such simplistic categorical designations, the current study employs scenarios that detail the everyday experiences of a specific man or woman, thereby facilitating a more nuanced understanding of participants' responses.

Secondly, and of greater significance, is the observation that research into ambivalent gender attitudes has predominantly focused on the relationship between ambivalent sexism and perspectives on female roles (Becker, 2010; Glick et al., 1997) or on female characteristics and conduct (Abrams et al., 2003; Fowers & Fowers, 2010). Nonetheless, there is a paucity of insight regarding the repercussions of ambivalence towards men and the manner in which hostile and benevolent attitudes inform societal perceptions of men fulfilling diverse roles. A notable departure is the inquiry by Sakalli-Ugurlu (2010), which assessed attitudes towards men within the context of academia, revealing that hostile sexism was indicative of adverse attitudes towards women in natural sciences, whereas benevolent masculinity corresponded with unfavorable views of men in social sciences (Sakalli-Ugurlu, 2010). In pursuit of a more comprehensive understanding of ambivalent attitudes towards men, the present study seeks to elucidate how such attitudes influence the perception of men in both traditional and nontraditional roles, whilst concurrently exploring the impact of sexism on the perception of women.

The goal of this study was to provide a comprehensive overview of the gender attitudes held by college students in China, and to assess the effects of ambivalent sexism and ambivalent attitudes toward men on people's perceptions of men and women who conform to

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traditional family roles or violate them. For this purpose, participants were presented with a description of a male or a female target who is a primary breadwinner married to a primary caregiver or vice versa.

5.2 Pre-survey

Considering that there has not been any investigation and research on the ambivalent attitudes towards men in China, this study aimed to address that gap. The previous study, conducted in the Netherlands and Italy, countries that ranked highly by gender equality, found that although previous research had shown that ambivalent sexism towards men was common across countries, it manefests differently in different cultures. Therefore, this study established the framework that recreate the scale of ambivalent attitudes toward men taking into account the chronological changes and the differences between Eastern and Western cultures.

Using Fiske and Glick's (1996) AMI (Ambivalent Attitudes Toward Men Inventory) scales, we gathered 20 Chinese university students to do interviews with each of them. The 20 Chinese students included 11 female and 9 male students, 5 of them were graduate students, the other 15 were undergraduate students. Based on the original AMI scale and the results of the interviews with 20 Chinese participants, we added items for using to measure Chinese ambivalent attitudes toward men.

These added items are a) now the general sense of family responsibility of men is very poor, and most of them are not loyal to marriage and relationships. Men are generally selfish; b) most men see women as sexual objects; c) Generally, men are machismo (大男子主义), even chauvinism pig (沙文主义·沙文猪) in some cases; d) men are more aggressive, impulsive, and dangerous than women. Men need a woman's gentleness and tenderness to

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tolerate men's shortcomings; e) men should spend more money between couples; f) men are stronger than women, good men should take on more physical work; g) good men should take more financial and social responsibility.

After collecting the data, we have conducted factor analysis to verify whether this new scale could accurately measures hostile attitudes and benevolent attitudes toward men. The results were reported in result part.

5.3 Hypotheses

1. Female participants perform lower HS score and higher BS score than male participants.

2. Female participants perform higher HM score and lower BM score than male participants.

3. Both male and female participants perform higher BS scores than HS scores.

4. Female participants perform higher HM scores than BM scores, while male participants perform higher BM scores than HM scores.

5. HS predicts negative perceptions of a female breadwinner, while BS predicts positive perceptions of a female caregiver.

6. HM predicts negative perceptions of a male breadwinner and positive perceptions of a male caregiver.

7. BM predicts positive perceptions of a male breadwinner and negative perceptions of a male caregiver.

8. Gender difference exists in perceived warmth, competence, positive emotion, and negative emotion among four types of gender roles.

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5.4 Methodology

5.4.1 Participants and Procedure

523 Chinese mainland university students (except those from Taiwan, Hong Kong and Macao) were recruited to participate this research. Participants were randomly assigned to one of four conditions. Four conditions are reading materials about female breadwinner, female caregiver, male breadwinner, and male caregiver.

5.4.2 Manipulations

Participants in the group primed with traditional gender role of female caregiver read a description of daily life a female caregiver in Chinese society. Participants in the primary caregiving female target condition were requested to read the following:

Wang Lili (a typical normal Chinese female name) is 34 years old, married, and a parent to Lele (age 5) and Qiqi (age 2). Wang Lili is at work until 1:00 pm, and then picks up the children from kindergarten and takes care of the housework and childcare (cooking, feeding the children, giving them a bath, doing the laundry, driving the children to social and other activities etc.). Her husband is a successful manager in a big firm. He leaves home early in the morning, and usually returns between 7 and 8 pm.

Then, participants were asked to evaluate the social judgement (warmth and competence) they perceived of the female caregiver in the material. Next, they were requested to evaluate how they perceived the female caregiver in the material was experiencing positive and negative emotions. At last, participants answered the last part of the questionnaire, which are the items of ambivalent sexist scale and ambivalent sexist attitude toward men scale, measuring the ambivalent gender attitudes they hold.

Participants in the group primed with non-traditional gender role of female breadwinner read a description of daily life a female breadwinner in Chinese society. Participants in the breadwinning female target condition were requested to read the following:

Wang Lili (a typical normal Chinese female name) is 34 years old, married, and a parent to Lele (age 5) and Qiqi (age 2). She is a successful manager in a big firm. She leaves home early in the morning, and usually returns between 7 and 8 pm. Her husband is at work until 1:00 pm, and then picks up the children from kindergarten and takes care of the housework and childcare (cooking, feeding the children, giving them a bath, doing the laundry, driving the children to social and other activities).

The subsequent operations and procedures were the same as those of the female caregiver group, measuring the perception of warmth, competence, positive and negative emotions of the female breadwinner target.

Participants in the group primed with traditional gender role of male breadwinner read a description of daily life a male breadwinner in Chinese society. Participants in the breadwinning male target condition were requested to read the following:

Wang Qiang (a typical normal Chinese male name) is 34 years old, married, and a parent to Lele (age 5) and Qiqi (age 2). He is a successful manager in a big firm. He leaves home early in the morning, and usually returns between 7 and 8 pm. His wife is at work until 1:00 pm, and then picks up the children from kindergarten and takes care of the housework and childcare (cooking, feeding the children, giving them a bath, doing the laundry, driving the children to social and other activities).

The subsequent operations and procedures were the same as those of the female caregiver group, measuring the perception of warmth, competence, positive and negative emotions of the male breadwinner target.

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Participants in the group primed with non-traditional gender role of male caregiver read a description of daily life a female caregiver in Chinese society. Participants in the primary caregiving male target condition were requested to read the following:

Wang Qiang (a typical normal Chinese male name) is 34 years old, married, and a parent to Lele (age 5) and Qiqi (age 2). Wang Qiang is at work until 1:00 pm, and then picks up the children from kindergarten and takes care of the housework and childcare (cooking, feeding the children, giving them a bath, doing the laundry, driving the children to social and other activities etc.). His wife is a successful manager in a big firm. She leaves home early in the morning, and usually returns between 7 and 8 pm.

The subsequent operations and procedures were the same as those of the female caregiver group, measuring the perception of warmth, competence, positive and negative emotions of the male caregiver target.

5.4.3 Measures

Benevolent and Hostile Sexism*:* Sexist attitudes are evaluated using the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (Glick & Fiske, 1996). The Chinese version of this scale was developed by ( ). This scale has 22 items, 11 items are used to measure hostile sexism (HS), and the other 11 items are used to measure Benevolent Sexism (BS), using a 6-point Likert-type scale ranging from (1) extremely disagree to (6) extremely agree. HS and BS respectively include three dimensions: gender power, gender differences, and heterosexual sexual behavior. These three dimensions are represented in the BS subscale as protective paternalism, complementary gender differentiation and heterosexual intimacy. A higher score of HS and BS indicates more sexist. Cronbach's alphas for HS were .82, for BS was .74.

Ambivalent Attitude Towards Men Participants' attitudes toward men were measured using the 20-item AMI (Glick & Fiske, 1999), which includes hostile attitudes toward men

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and benevolent attitudes toward men. Participants responded to the 20 items by using a six-point scale.

Attribution of Warmth and Competence Fiske et al. (2007) suggested that warmth and competence are enduring fundamental dimensions of social judgments. Participants' perceptions of the target's warmth and competence were therefore assessed, using a 12-item measure consisting of six competence-related traits, such as intelligent, hard-working, and six warmth-related traits, such as nice, selfish (Fiske, Cuddy, Glick, & Xu, 2002).

Attribution of Positive and Negative Emotions Participants' attributions of emotions to the target person are assessed using a six-item measure consisting of three positive emotions (happiness, satisfaction, and self- fulfillment) and three negative emotions (sadness, frustration, and guilty conscience). Participants will be asked to rate the extent to which they think that the target person experienced each of the six emotions on five-point Likert-type scales anchored by not at all (1) and very much (5).

5.5 Results of Data Analysis

5.5.1 Results of Factor Analysis

Based on the original AMI scale conducted by Fiske and Glick (1999), the author added several items after conducting interviews with 20 Chinese participant, considering the Chinese culture. In order to conduct new AMI scale, a factor analysis was performed using the Maximum Likelihood method of extraction to verity that the two factors hostile attitude toward men (HM) and benevolent attitude toward men (BM) were well expressed in each item. Bartlett's test of sphericity, which tests the overall significance of all the correlations within the correlation matrix, was significant ($\chi 2$ (276) = 4481.55, $p < .001$), indicating that it was appropriate to use the factor analytic model on this set of data. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin

measure of sampling adequacy indicated that the strength of the relationships among variables was high (KMO = .92), thus it was acceptable to proceed with the analysis. Initially, 5 factors with eigenvalues greater than one were extruded. A series of factor analyses were conducted which indicated that 2 factors gave the most interpretable solution, which is also consistent with the AMI scale consisting of HM and BM produced by Fiske and Glick (1999). After excluding 3 items that did not show sufficient factor loadings from the results of the factor analysis, factor analysis using the Maximum Likelihood method and Promax rotation was conducted again for the remaining 24 items. The Promax pattern matrix is displayed in Table 16. Only items with factor loadings of above .40 are shown.

The first factor was robust, with a high eigenvalue of 8.75, and it accounted for 30.32% of the variance in the data. Factor two had an eigenvalue of 6.86 and accounted for a further 21.56% of the variance. The three deleted items were: a) Men act babies when they are sick; b) When it comes down to it, most men are really like children; c) Good men should take more financial and social responsibility.

One point of in consistency with previous studies is that item "Men would be lost in this world if women weren't there to guide them", which was originally a HM item, was judged to be a BM item, while item "Men are more willing to take risks than women", which was originally a BM item, was judged to be a HM item.

Factor analysis of the AMI items used in the current study revealed two factors were sufficient to explain the ambivalent attitude toward men. The pattern matrix in Table 2 revealed factor one to consist of 12 items. This factor was labeled Hostile Attitude Toward Men and demonstrated a high internal consistency. The second factor consisted of 12 items. The correlation between factor 1 and 2 is .295.

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Table 16

Pattern Matrix for AMI Items in Current Study

Scale Items	Factor 1	Factor 2
Now the general sense of family responsibility of men is very poor, and most of them are not loyal to marriage and relationships. Men are generally selfish.	.758	
Most men see women as sexual objects.	.744	
Most men sexually harass women, even if only in subtle ways, once they are in a position of power over them.	.743	
A man typically has no ethical value in terms of doing anything to get a woman he finds sexually attractive to bed.	.738	
Men will always fight for greater control in society	.705	
Generally, men are machismo (大男子主义), even chauvinism pig (沙文主义) in some cases.	.702	
Men are more aggressive, impulsive and dangerous than women. Men need a woman's gentleness and tenderness to tolerate men's shortcomings.	.615	
Most men pay lip service to equality for women but can't handle having a woman as an equal.	.579	
HM8_Men usually try to dominate conversations when talking to women.	.566	
While men seem to be helping women, they mostly try to prove that they are better than women	.561	
Men are more willing to take risks when compared to women	.455	
Even men who claim to be sensitive to women's rights really want a traditional relationship at home, with the woman performing most of the housekeeping and childcare	.418	
A woman will never be truly fulfilled in life if she doesn't have a committed, long-term relationship with a man.		.758
Women are incomplete without men		.751
Every woman ought to have a man she adores.		.709
Every woman needs a male partner who will cherish her.		.678
Men are more willing to put themselves in danger to protect others when compared to women.		.658
Even if both members of a couple work, the woman ought to be more attentive to taking care of her man at home.		.638
Women should take care of their men at home, for men are not able to look after themselves if they have to		.622
Men would lose their way in the world if it was not for women who would show them the way.		.599
Men are less likely to fall apart in emergencies		.596
One of the advantages of men is that they provide financial security for their women.		.574
Men should spend more money between couples.		.444
Men are stronger than women, good men should take on more physical work		.423
Percentage of Variance	30.32	21.56
Eigenvalue	8.75	6.86
Croonbach's Alpha	.886	.855

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5.5.2 Descriptive Statistics

A total of 523 student participants (except those from Taiwan, Hong Kong, and Macao) from mainland universities were recruited to participate in this research through social media such as WeChat and email, and randomly distributing flyers to students at different college campus. There were 33 technical college students, 419 undergraduate students, 62 graduate students in master course, and 9 graduate students in doctoral course. 264 participants came from rural areas, and 259 participants came from urban.

The total mean age was 21.86 (SD = 1.95, Range: 18 - 29), with 284 participants being female and 239 males. No statistically significant differences emerged for age with respect to participant gender t (522) = 0.73, p = .31.

The score ranges, mean and standard deviation of the study's variables are listed in Table 17.

Table 17

Descriptive Statistics for the Primary Variables

	Range	M	SD	N
HS	1-6	2.90	0.88	523
BS	1-6	3.68	0.64	
HM	1-6	4.12	0.84	
BM	1-6	3.39	0.91	

5.5.3 Zero-Order Correlations

Zero-order correlations (see Table 18 to Table 21) were used to examine the strength and direction of the bivariate relationships between each independent variable and each dependent variable in four conditions of gender roles.

The results of the correlation analysis for male breadwinner condition showed that the HS held by Chinese university students negatively correlated with HM and positively correlated with BM and perceived negative emotion, BS positively correlated with BM, and HM negatively correlated with BM and perceived warmth (see Table 18).

Table 18

Zero-Order Correlations with Confidence Intervals for the Variables in Male Breadwinner

Condition

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Gender										
2. Age	-.15 [-.69, .49]									
3. Edu	-.03 [-.62, .58]	.47 [-.18, .84]								
4. HS	-.87** [-.97, -.57]	-.01 [-.61, .59]	-.15 [-.69, .49]							
5. BS	-.52 [-.85, .12]	.27 [-.39, .75]	-.33 [-.78, .34]	.53 [-.10, .86]						
6. HM	.88** [.59, .97]	-.33 [-.78, .33]	-.18 [-.70, .47]	-.75** [-.93, -.28]	-.45 [-.83, .20]					
7. BM	-.81** [-.95, -.41]	.19 [-.46, .71]	-.27 [-.75, .39]	.81** [.41, .95]	.89** [.64, .97]	-.71* [-.92, -.19]				
8. Warmth	-.74** [-.93, -.26]	-.03 [-.62, .58]	-.01 [-.61, .59]	.50 [-.14, .85]	.10 [-.53, .66]	-.69* [-.91, -.15]	.44 [-.21, .82]			
9. Competence	-.41 [-.81, .25]	-.19 [-.71, .46]	-.21 [-.72, .45]	.14 [-.50, .68]	.00 [-.60, .60]	-.31 [-.77, .36]	.21 [-.45, .72]	.72* [.21, .92]		
10. Positive Emotion	.11 [-.53, .66]	-.21 [-.72, .44]	-.03 [-.62, .58]	-.40 [-.81, .26]	-.44 [-.82, .22]	.15 [-.50, .69]	-.36 [-.79, .30]	.34 [-.33, .78]	.53 [-.10, .86]	
11. Negative Emotion	-.47 [-.83, .18]	.11 [-.53, .66]	-.02 [-.61, .59]	.64* [.07, .90]	.41 [-.25, .81]	-.47 [-.84, .18]	.50 [-.15, .84]	.01 [-.59, .61]	-.33 [-.78, .34]	-.81** [-.95, -.40]

Note. Values in square brackets indicate the 95% confidence interval for each correlation. The confidence interval is a plausible range of population correlations that could have caused the sample correlation (Cumming, 2014). $^{\dagger}p < .1$. $*p < .05$. $**p < .01$. $***p < .001$

The results of the correlation analysis for female breadwinner condition showed that the HS held by Chinese university students negatively correlated with perceived warmth and positive emotion, and positively correlated with BS and BM, BS positively correlated with BM (see Table 19).

Table 19

Zero-Order Correlations with Confidence Intervals for the Variables in Female Breadwinner Condition

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Gender										
2. Age	-.45 [-.83, .21]									
3. Educational Background	-.25 [-.74, .41]	.75** [.26, .93]								
4. HS	-.89** [-.97, -.64]	.15 [-.50, .69]	-.08 [-.65, .55]							
5. BS	-.61* [-.89, -.02]	.12 [-.52, .67]	-.17 [-.70, .48]	.61* [.02, .89]						
6. HM	.69* [.15, .91]	-.38 [-.80, .29]	-.24 [-.73, .42]	-.49 [-.84, .15]	-.44 [-.82, .22]					
7. BM	-.83** [-.95, -.45]	.17 [-.48, .70]	-.12 [-.67, .52]	.83** [.46, .95]	.93** [.73, .98]	-.58 [-.88, .03]				
8. Warmth	.42 [-.24, .82]	-.04 [-.62, .58]	.14 [-.50, .68]	-.68* [-.91, -.13]	-.30 [-.76, .36]	.14 [-.50, .68]	-.43 [-.82, .22]			
9. Competence	.36 [-.31, .79]	-.05 [-.63, .56]	.03 [-.58, .62]	-.53 [-.86, .11]	-.18 [-.70, .47]	.16 [-.49, .69]	-.28 [-.75, .38]	.54 [-.09, .86]		
10. Positive Emotion	.67* [.12, .91]	-.05 [-.63, .57]	.05 [-.57, .63]	-.84** [-.96, -.47]	-.37 [-.79, .30]	.25 [-.41, .74]	-.56 [-.87, .06]	.74** [.24, .93]	.61* [.02, .89]	
11. Negative Emotion	-.30 [-.76, .37]	-.45 [-.83, .20]	-.46 [-.83, .19]	.56 [-.06, .87]	.18 [-.47, .70]	-.02 [-.61, .59]	.32 [-.35, .77]	-.64* [-.90, -.06]	-.51 [-.85, .13]	-.78** [-.94, -.34]

Note. Values in square brackets indicate the 95% confidence interval for each correlation. The confidence interval is a plausible range of population correlations that could have caused the sample correlation (Cumming, 2014). $^{\dagger}p < .1$. $*p < .05$. $**p < .01$. $***p < .001$

The results of the correlation analysis for female caregiver condition showed that the BS held by Chinese university students negatively correlated with perceived negative emotion and positively correlated with BM and perceived positive emotion, HM positively correlated with perceived negative emotion and negatively correlated with BM, perceived warmth,

perceived competence, and positive emotion and, BM positively correlated with perceived

positive emotion and negatively correlated with perceived negative emotion (see Table 20).

Table 20

Zero-Order Correlations with Confidence Intervals for the Variables in Female Caregiver

Condition

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Gender										
2. Age	-.27 [-.75, .39]									
3. Edu	.02 [-.59, .61]	.79** [.35, .94]								
4. HS	-.64* [-.89, -.06]	.12 [-.52, .67]	.04 [-.58, .62]							
5. BS	-.74** [-.93, -.25]	.14 [-.50, .68]	-.18 [-.70, .47]	.38 [-.28, .80]						
6. HM	.72* [.21, .92]	-.07 [-.64, .55]	.15 [-.50, .69]	-.10 [-.66, .53]	-.49 [-.84, .16]					
7. BM	-.89** [-.97, -.62]	.13 [-.51, .68]	-.19 [-.71, .46]	.56 [-.06, .87]	.95** [.81, .99]	-.63* [-.89, -.05]				
8. Warmth	-.48 [-.84, .17]	.21 [-.45, .72]	-.12 [-.67, .52]	-.26 [-.74, .41]	.53 [-.10, .86]	-.60* [-.88, -.01]	.47 [-.18, .84]			
9. Competence	-.55 [-.86, .07]	-.04 [-.63, .57]	-.42 [-.82, .24]	-.14 [-.68, .50]	.54 [-.10, .86]	-.70* [-.92, -.18]	.56 [-.06, .87]	.80** [.39, .95]		
10. Positive Emotion	-.78** [-.94, -.34]	.02 [-.58, .62]	-.33 [-.78, .33]	.25 [-.41, .74]	.77** [.32, .94]	-.80** [-.95, -.39]	.86** [.53, .96]	.55 [-.07, .87]	.75** [.28, .93]	
11. Negative Emotion	.72* [.22, .92]	-.23 [-.73, .43]	.13 [-.51, .68]	-.18 [-.70, .47]	-.81** [-.95, -.40]	.72* [.22, .92]	-.84** [-.96, -.48]	-.66* [-.90, -.10]	-.74** [-.93, -.25]	-.94** [-.99, -.79]

Note. Values in square brackets indicate the 95% confidence interval for each correlation. The confidence interval is a plausible range of population correlations that could have caused the sample correlation (Cumming, 2014). †$p < .1$. *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$

The results of the correlation analysis for male caregiver condition showed that both

HS and BS held by Chinese university students positively correlated with BM, HM negatively

correlated with BM (see Table 21).

Table 21

Zero-Order Correlations with Confidence Intervals for the Variables in Male Caregiver

Condition

Variable	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Gender										
2. Age	-.26 [-.74, .40]									
3. Edu	-.16 [-.69, .49]	.83** [.47, .96]								
4. HS	-.79** [-.94, -.36]	-.00 [-.60, .60]	.03 [-.58, .62]							
5. BS	-.54 [-.86, .09]	-.15 [-.69, .49]	-.30 [-.76, .36]	.37 [-.30, .79]						
6. HM	.77** [.32, .94]	-.13 [-.68, .51]	.01 [-.60, .60]	-.38 [-.80, .29]	-.41 [-.81, .25]					
7. BM	-.77** [-.94, -.32]	-.12 [-.67, .52]	-.26 [-.74, .40]	.61* [.02, .89]	.93** [.76, .98]	-.61* [-.89, -.01]				
8. Warmth	-.32 [-.77, .34]	-.12 [-.67, .52]	-.37 [-.79, .30]	-.09 [-.66, .54]	.32 [-.34, .77]	-.59 [-.88, .01]	.37 [-.30, .79]			
9. Competence	.17 [-.48, .70]	.01 [-.59, .61]	-.23 [-.73, .43]	-.45 [-.83, .20]	-.17 [-.77, .34]	-.17 [-.70, .48]	-.32 [-.77, .35]	.54 [-.09, .86]		
10. Positive Emotion	.21 [-.45, .72]	.12 [-.52, .67]	-.16 [-.70, .48]	-.50 [-.84, .15]	-.27 [-.75, .39]	-.00 [-.60, .60]	-.31 [-.77, .36]	.48 [-.17, .84]	.89** [.62, .97]	
11.Negative Emotion	-.03 [-.62, .58]	-.19 [-.71, .46]	.15 [-.49, .69]	.36 [-.30, .79]	.10 [-.53, .66]	.19 [-.47, .71]	.11 [-.52, .67]	-.63* [-.89, -.05]	-.88** [-.97, -.59]	-.95** [-.99, -.80]

Note. Values in square brackets indicate the 95% confidence interval for each correlation. The confidence interval is a plausible range of population correlations that could have caused the sample correlation (Cumming, 2014). †$p < .1$. *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$

5.5.4 Gender Differences in the Score of Ambivalent Sexism and Ambivalence Toward Men

A mixed two-way ANOVA was conducted to examine the effect of gender (female, male) and sexist type (HS, BS, HM, BM) on the scores of sexisms, which means to examine the hypothesis 1 – 4. the between factor is gender, and the within factor is the conditions of sexist type. Mauchly's test of Sphericity indicated that the assumption of sphericity had been violated ($p < .001$). Therefore, the Greenhouse -Geisser correction was applied to adjust the degrees of freedom.

Descriptive statistics were performed in Table 22. The results of the mixed two-way ANOVA revealed a significant main effect of gender, $F (1, 521) = 62.35$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .11$, indicating there are significant gender differences of the sexisms scores. There was also a significant main effect of sexist type, $F (2.21, 1148.55) = 290.47$, $p < .001$. ,$\eta^2 = .36$,

indicating that there are significant differences among the scores of HS, BS, HM, and BM. The interaction effect between gender and sexist type was significant, $F(2.21, 1148.55) = 220.53$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .30$. Therefore, the simple main effects analysis was conducted by using a Bonferroni-corrected alpha level of .025.

Table 22

Mean Scores and Standard Deviations of HS, BS, HM, and BM for both Female and Male Participants

		M	*SD*	N
HS	Male	3.45	0.89	233
	Female	2.46	0.67	290
	Total	2.90	0.92	523
BS	Male	3.86	0.66	233
	Female	3.56	0.66	290
	Total	3.69	0.67	523
HM	Male	3.68	0.75	233
	Female	4.48	0.69	290
	Total	4.12	0.82	523
BM	Male	3.87	0.80	233
	Female	2.96	0.82	290
	Total	3.36	0.93	523

Gender Differences in Sexist Scores Pairwise comparisons indicated there is a significant difference of HS score between male and female participants ($p < .001$). BS scores performed by male ($M = 3.86$) was significantly higher than female participants ($p < .001$). Female participants had higher HM score than male participants ($p < .001$). BM scores performed by male was higher than female participants ($p < .001$).

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Figure 12

Gender Differences in the Score of Ambivalent Sexism and Ambivalence Toward Men
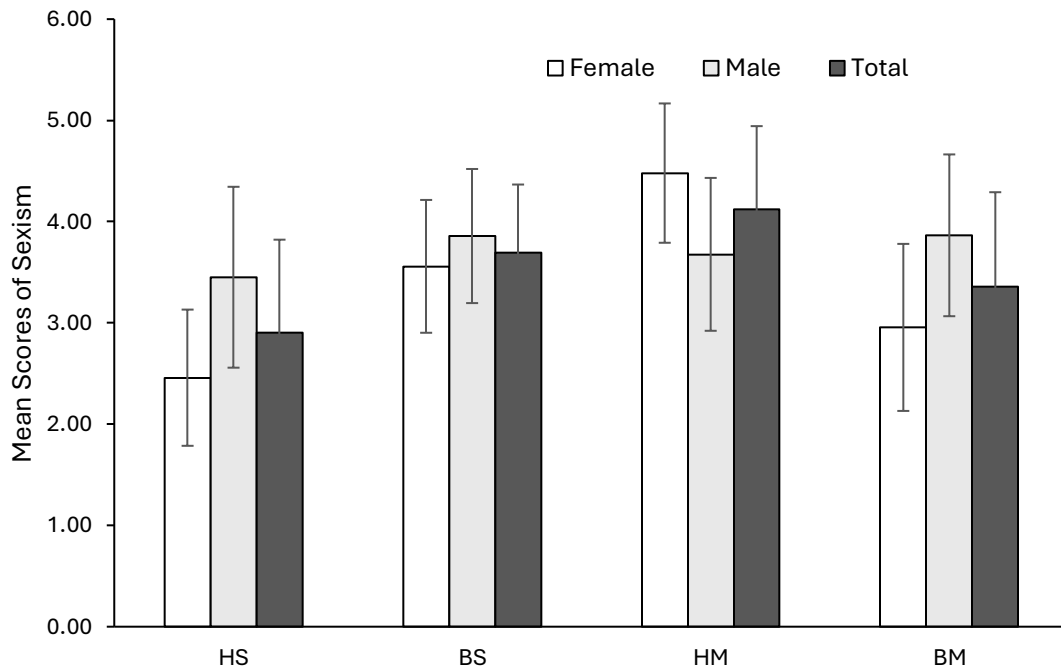
Score Variations in Four types of Sexism For male participants, HS score was lower than BS, HM and BM scores ($p < .001$). BS score was higher than both HM score ($p < .05$). BM score was higher than HM score ($p < .05$). For female participants, HS score was lower than BS, HM, BM scores ($p < .001$). BS score was lower than HM score ($p < .001$), and higher than BM score ($p < .001$). HM score was higher than BM score ($p < .001$).

5.5.5 Results of Multiple Regression Analysis for the Prediction of Sexist Attitudes on Warmth in Different Gender Roles

A multiple linear regression was conducted to examine whether sexist attitudes held by people would predict the warmth perception of a female breadwinner. Four types of sexist attitudes and personal factors were entered into a simultaneous regression model. The overall regression was statistically, $R^2 = .134$, $F(4, 118) = 4.577$, $p = .002$. HS negatively predict warmth perception of female breadwinner, $B = -0.28$, $SE = 0.07$, $\beta = -0.44$, $t = -3.96$, $p < .001$ (see Table 23).

Table 23

The Result of Multiple Linear Regression Analysis for the Prediction of Sexist Attitudes on Warmth Perception of Female Breadwinner

Predictor	b	b 95% CI [LL, UL]	beta	beta 95% CI [LL, UL]	sr^2	sr^2 95% CI [LL, UL]	r	Fit
(Intercept)	3.40***	[2.61, 4.18]						
HS	-0.28***	[-0.41, -0.14]	-0.44	[-0.66, -0.22]	.12	[.01, .22]	-.31**	
BS	-0.06	[-0.34, 0.22]	-0.06	[-0.36, 0.23]	.00	[-.01, .01]	.03	
HM	0.07	[-0.06, 0.20]	0.10	[-0.08, 0.27]	.01	[-.02, .04]	.11	
BM	0.19	[-0.05, 0.43]	0.28	[-0.07, 0.63]	.02	[-.03, .06]	-.04	
							R^2 = .134***	
							95% CI[.02,.23]	

Note. A significant *b*-weight indicates the beta-weight and semi-partial correlation are also significant. *b* represents unstandardized regression weights. *beta* indicates the standardized regression weights. sr^2 represents the semi-partial correlation squared. *r* represents the zero-order correlation. *LL* and *UL* indicate the lower and upper limits of a confidence interval, respectively.
* indicates $p < .05$. ** indicates $p < .01$. *** indicates $p < .001$

A multiple linear regression was conducted to examine whether sexist attitudes held by people would predict the warmth perception of a male breadwinner. Four types of sexist attitudes and personal factors were entered into a simultaneous regression model. The overall regression was statistically significant, $R^2 = .228$, $F(4, 125) = 6.96$, $p < .001$. BS negatively

predict warmth perception of male breadwinner, $B = -0.59$, $SE = 0.17$, $\beta = -0.48$, $t = -3.47$, $p < .001$. HM negatively predict warmth perception of male breadwinner, $B = -0.17$, $SE = 0.08$, $\beta = -0.18$, $t = 2.19$, $p = .030$. BM positively predict warmth perception of male breadwinner, $B = 0.55$, $SE = 0.14$, $\beta = 0.43$, $t = 3.91$, $p < .001$ (see Table 24).

Table 24

The Result of Multiple Linear Regression Analysis for the Prediction of Sexist Attitudes on

Warmth Perception of Male Breadwinner

Predictor	b	b 95% CI [LL, UL]	beta	beta 95% CI [LL, UL]	sr^2	sr^2 95% CI [LL, UL]	r	Fit
(Intercept)	3.85***	[2.76, 4.95]						
HS	-0.02	[-0.19, 0.16]	-0.02	[-0.23, 0.19]	.00	[-.00, .00]	.29**	
BS	-0.59***	[-0.93, -0.25]	-0.48	[-0.75, -0.20]	.07	[-.01, .15]	.03	
HM	-0.17*	[-0.33, -0.02]	-0.18	[-0.35, -0.02]	.03	[-.02, .08]	-.30**	
BM	0.55***	[0.27, 0.83]	0.63	[0.31, 0.96]	.09	[.01, .18]	.30**	
								R^2 = .228*** 95% CI[.09,.33]

Note. A significant *b*-weight indicates the beta-weight and semi-partial correlation are also significant. *b* represents unstandardized regression weights. *beta* indicates the standardized regression weights. sr^2 represents the semi-partial correlation squared. *r* represents the zero-order correlation. *LL* and *UL* indicate the lower and upper limits of a confidence interval, respectively. * indicates $p < .05$. ** indicates $p < .01$. *** indicates $p < .001$

A multiple linear regression was conducted to examine whether sexist attitudes held by people would predict the warmth perception of a female caregiver. Four types of sexist attitudes and personal factors were entered into a simultaneous regression model. The overall regression was statistically significant, $R^2 = .215$, $F(4, 127) = 8.717$, $p < .001$. HS negatively predict warmth perception of female caregiver, $B = -0.15$, $SE = 0.05$, $\beta = -.31$, $t = -2.77$, $p = .006$. BS marginally positively predict warmth perception of female caregiver, $B = 0.20$, $SE = 0.10$, $\beta = 0.35$, $t = 1.93$, $p = .056$ (see Table 25).

Table 25

The Result of Multiple Linear Regression Analysis for the Prediction of Sexist Attitudes on

Warmth Perception of Female Caregiver

Predictor	b	b 95% CI [LL, UL]	beta	beta 95% CI [LL, UL]	sr^2	sr^2 95% CI [LL, UL]	r	Fit
(Intercept)	3.92***	[3.47, 4.37]						
HS	-0.15**	[-0.25, -0.04]	-0.29	[-0.50, -0.08]	.05	[-.02, .11]	-.19*	
BS	0.20†	[-0.01, 0.40]	0.35	[-0.01, 0.70]	.02	[-.02, .07]	.35**	
HM	-0.06	[-0.16, 0.03]	-0.12	[-0.31, 0.06]	.01	[-.02, .04]	-.15	
BM	0.04	[-0.14, 0.22]	0.08	[-0.32, 0.49]	.00	[-.01, .01]	.26**	
								R^2 = .215*** 95% CI[.08,.31]

Note. A significant *b*-weight indicates the beta-weight and semi-partial correlation are also significant. *b* represents unstandardized regression weights. *beta* indicates the standardized regression weights. *sr²* represents the semi-partial correlation squared. *r* represents the zero-order correlation. *LL* and *UL* indicate the lower and upper limits of a confidence interval, respectively.
† indicates *p* < .1. * indicates *p* < .05. ** indicates *p* < .01. *** indicates *p* < .001.

A multiple linear regression was conducted to examine whether sexist attitudes held by people would predict the warmth perception of a male caregiver. Four types of sexist attitudes and personal factors were entered into a simultaneous regression model. The overall regression was statistically significant, R^2 = .13, $F (4, 133) = 4.99$, $p < .001$. HS marginally negatively predict warmth perception of male caregiver, $B = -0.08$, $SE = 0.05$, $\beta = -0.16$, $t = -1.68$, $p = .00$. HM marginally negatively predict warmth perception of male caregiver, $B = -0.09$, $SE = 0.05$, $\beta = -0.17$, $t = -1.89$, $p = .06$ (see Table 26).

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Table 26

The Result of Multiple Linear Regression Analysis for the Prediction of Sexist Attitudes on

Warmth Perception of Male Caregiver

Predictor	b	b 95% CI [LL, UL]	beta	beta 95% CI [LL, UL]	sr^2	sr^2 95% CI [LL, UL]	r	Fit
(Intercept)	4.13***	[3.57, 4.69]						
HS	-0.08†	[-0.17, 0.01]	-0.16	[-0.35, 0.03]	.02	[-.02, .06]	-.05	
BS	0.04	[-0.18, 0.25]	0.05	[-0.26, 0.36]	.00	[-.01, .01]	.24**	
HM	-0.09†	[-0.19, 0.00]	-0.17	[-0.34, 0.01]	.02	[-.02, .07]	-.22**	
BM	0.12	[-0.04, 0.29]	0.26	[-0.08, 0.60]	.01	[-.02, .05]	.28**	
								R^2 = .131*** 95% CI[.03,.22]

Note. A significant *b*-weight indicates the beta-weight and semi-partial correlation are also significant. *b* represents unstandardized regression weights. *beta* indicates the standardized regression weights. sr^2 represents the semi-partial correlation squared. *r* represents the zero-order correlation. *LL* and *UL* indicate the lower and upper limits of a confidence interval, respectively.
† indicates $p < .1$. * Indicates $p < .05$. ** indicates $p < .01$.

5.5.6 Results of Multiple Regression Analysis for the Prediction of Sexist Attitudes on Perceived Competent in Different Gender Roles

A multiple linear regression was conducted to examine whether sexist attitudes held by people would predict the competent perception of a female breadwinner. Four types of sexist attitudes and personal factors were entered into a simultaneous regression model. The overall regression was statistically, $R^2 = .11$, $F (4, 118) = 3.65$, $p = .008$. HS negatively predict perceived competent of female breadwinner, $B = −0.20$, $SE = 0.06$, $β = −0.35$, $t = −3.11$, $p = .002$. BS ($p = .51$). HM marginally positively correlated with perceived competence, $B = 0.11$, $SE = 0.06$, $β = 0.17$, $t = 1.93$, $p = .06$. BM positively predict perceived competent of female breadwinner, $B = 0.23$, $SE = 0.11$, $β = 0.38$, $t = 2.14$, $p = .03$ (see Table 27).

Table 27

The Result of Multiple Linear Regression Analysis for the Prediction of Sexist Attitudes on

Competent Perception of Female Breadwinner

Predictor	b	b 95% CI [LL, UL]	beta	beta 95% CI [LL, UL]	sr^2	sr^2 95% CI [LL, UL]	r	Fit
(Intercept)	3.90***	[3.19, 4.61]						
HS	-0.20**	[-0.32, -0.07]	-0.35	[-0.58, -0.13]	.07	[-.01, .16]	-.18*	
BS	-0.09	[-0.34, 0.17]	-0.10	[-0.40, 0.20]	.00	[-.02, .02]	.10	
HM	0.12†	[-0.00, 0.23]	0.17	[-0.00, 0.35]	.03	[-.03, .08]	.16	
BM	0.23*	[0.02, 0.45]	0.38	[0.03, 0.73]	.03	[-.03, .10]	.08	
								R^2 = .110** 95% CI[.01,.20]

Note. A significant *b*-weight indicates the beta-weight and semi-partial correlation are also significant. *b* represents unstandardized regression weights. *beta* indicates the standardized regression weights. *sr²* represents the semi-partial correlation squared. *r* represents the zero-order correlation. *LL* and *UL* indicate the lower and upper limits of a confidence interval, respectively.

† indicates *p* < .1. * Indicates *p* < .05. ** indicates *p* < .01.

A multiple linear regression was conducted to examine whether sexist attitudes held by people would predict the competent perception of a male breadwinner. Four types of sexist attitudes and personal factors were entered into a simultaneous regression model. The overall regression was marginally significant, $R^2 = .07$, $F(4, 125) = 2.24$, $p = .07$. HS, $p = .21$. BS marginally negatively predicted perceived competence, $B = -0.26$, $SE = 0.14$, $\beta = -0.28$, $t = 1.87$, $p = .06$. HM, $p = .87$. BM positively predict competent perception of male breadwinner, $B = 0.31$, $SE = 0.11$, $\beta = 0.49$, $t = 2.76$, $p = .007$ (see Table 28).

Table 28

The Result of Multiple Linear Regression Analysis for the Prediction of Sexist Attitudes on

Competent Perception of Male Breadwinner

Predictor	b	b 95% CI [LL, UL]	beta	beta 95% CI [LL, UL]	sr^2	sr^2 95% CI [LL, UL]	r	Fit
(Intercept)	4.01***	[3.13, 4.88]						
HS	-0.09	[-0.23, 0.05]	-0.14	[-0.37, 0.09]	.01	[-.02, .05]	.07	
BS	-0.26†	[-0.53, 0.01]	-0.28	[-0.58, 0.02]	.03	[-.03, .08]	.07	
HM	-0.00	[-0.12, 0.12]	-0.00	[-0.18, 0.18]	.00	[-.00, .00]	-.06	
BM	0.31**	[0.09, 0.54]	0.49	[0.14, 0.85]	.06	[-.02, .13]	.20*	
								R^2 = .067†
								95% CI[.00,.14]

Note. A significant *b*-weight indicates the beta-weight and semi-partial correlation are also significant. *b* represents unstandardized regression weights. *beta* indicates the standardized regression weights. *sr²* represents the semi-partial correlation squared. *r* represents the zero-order correlation. *LL* and *UL* indicate the lower and upper limits of a confidence interval, respectively.

† indicates *p* < .1. * Indicates *p* < .05. ** indicates *p* < .01.

A multiple linear regression was conducted to examine whether sexist attitudes held by people would predict the competent perception of a female caregiver. Four types of sexist attitudes and personal factors were entered into a simultaneous regression model. The overall regression was statistically significant, $R^2 = .18$, $F(4, 127) = 7.27$, $p < .001$. HS negatively predict warmth perception of female caregiver, $B = -0.24$, $SE = 0.07$, $\beta = -0.35$, $t = -3.24$, $p = .002$. BS ($p = .39$). HM ($p = .58$). BM positively predict perceived competent of female caregiver, $B = 0.34$, $SE = 0.12$, $\beta = 0.58$, $t = 2.81$, $p = .006$ (see Table 29).

A multiple linear regression was conducted to examine whether sexist attitudes held by people would predict the competent perception of a male caregiver. Four types of sexist attitudes and personal factors were entered into a simultaneous regression model. The overall regression was not statistically significant, $R^2 = .04$, $F(4, 133) = 2.57$, $p = .22$ (see Table 30).

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Table 29

The Result of Multiple Linear Regression Analysis for the Prediction of Sexist Attitudes on

Competent Perception of Female Caregiver

Predictor	b	b 95% CI [LL, UL]	beta	beta 95% CI [LL, UL]	sr^2	sr^2 95% CI [LL, UL]	r	Fit
(Intercept)	3.79***	[3.17, 4.41]						
HS	-0.24**	[-0.38, -0.09]	-0.35	[-0.56, -0.13]	.07	[-.01, .14]	-.11	
BS	-0.12	[-0.40, 0.16]	-0.16	[-0.52, 0.21]	.00	[-.02, .03]	.26**	
HM	-0.04	[-0.17, 0.10]	-0.05	[-0.25, 0.14]	.00	[-.01, .02]	-.20*	
BM	0.35**	[0.10, 0.59]	0.58	[0.17, 1.00]	.05	[-.02, .12]	.30**	
								R^2 = .186*** 95% CI[.06,.28]

Note. A significant *b*-weight indicates the beta-weight and semi-partial correlation are also significant. *b* represents unstandardized regression weights. *beta* indicates the standardized regression weights. *sr^2* represents the semi-partial correlation squared. *r* represents the zero-order correlation. *LL* and *UL* indicate the lower and upper limits of a confidence interval, respectively.
† indicates $p < .1$. * Indicates $p < .05$. ** indicates $p < .01$.

Table 30

The Result of Multiple Linear Regression Analysis for the Prediction of Sexist Attitudes on

Competent Perception of Male Caregiver

Predictor	b	b 95% CI [LL, UL]	beta	beta 95% CI [LL, UL]	sr^2	sr^2 95% CI [LL, UL]	r	Fit
(Intercept)	4.52***	[3.52, 5.52]						
HS	-0.08	[-0.24, 0.08]	-0.10	[-0.30, 0.10]	.01	[-.02, .03]	-.15	
BS	0.02	[-0.36, 0.41]	0.02	[-0.31, 0.34]	.00	[-.00, .00]	-.11	
HM	-0.11	[-0.28, 0.07]	-0.11	[-0.30, 0.07]	.01	[-.02, .04]	-.08	
BM	-0.12	[-0.41, 0.17]	-0.15	[-0.51, 0.21]	.00	[-.02, .03]	-.14	
								R^2 = .042 95% CI[.00,.10]

Note. A significant *b*-weight indicates the beta-weight and semi-partial correlation are also significant. *b* represents unstandardized regression weights. *beta* indicates the standardized regression weights. *sr^2* represents the semi-partial correlation squared. *r* represents the zero-order correlation. *LL* and *UL* indicate the lower and upper limits of a confidence interval, respectively.
* indicates $p < .05$. ** indicates $p < .01$.

5.5.7 Results of Multiple Regression Analysis for the Prediction of Sexist Attitudes on Perceived Positive Emotion in Different Gender Roles

A multiple linear regression was conducted to examine whether sexist attitudes held by people would predict the positive emotion of female breadwinner. Four types of sexist attitudes were entered into a simultaneous regression model. The overall regression was statistically, $R^2 = .24$, $F(4, 118) = 9.35$, $p < .001$. HS negatively predict positive emotion of female breadwinner, $B = -0.47$, $SE = 0.09$, $\beta = -0.56$, $t = -5.41$, $p < .001$. BS ($p = .952$). HM ($p = .31$). BM ($p = .22$) (see Table 31).

Table 31

The Result of Multiple Linear Regression Analysis for the Prediction of Sexist Attitudes on Perceived Positive Emotion of Female Breadwinner

Predictor	b	b 95% CI [LL, UL]	beta	beta 95% CI [LL, UL]	sr^2	sr^2 95% CI [LL, UL]	r	Fit
(Intercept)	4.08***	[3.10, 5.06]						
HS	-0.47**	[-0.64, -0.30]	-0.56	[-0.77, -0.36]	.19	[.07, .31]	-.45**	
BS	0.01	[-0.34, 0.36]	0.01	[-0.27, 0.29]	.00	[-.00, .00]	.01	
HM	0.08	[-0.08, 0.25]	0.08	[-0.08, 0.25]	.01	[-.02, .03]	.12	
BM	0.19	[-0.11, 0.48]	0.20	[-0.12, 0.53]	.01	[-.02, .04]	-.13	
								R^2 = .241** 95% CI[.10,.34]

Note. A significant *b*-weight indicates the beta-weight and semi-partial correlation are also significant. *b* represents unstandardized regression weights. *beta* indicates the standardized regression weights. sr^2 represents the semi-partial correlation squared. *r* represents the zero-order correlation. *LL* and *UL* indicate the lower and upper limits of a confidence interval, respectively.
* indicates $p < .05$. ** indicates $p < .01$.

A multiple linear regression was conducted to examine whether sexist attitudes held by people would predict the positive emotion of male breadwinner. Four types of sexist attitudes were entered into a simultaneous regression model. The overall regression was marginally significant, $R^2 = .07$, $F(4, 125) = 2.34$, $p = .059$. HS was negatively correlated with positive

emotion, $B = -0.25$, $SE = 0.11$, $\beta = -0.26$, $t = -2.30$, $p = .02$. BS was also negatively

correlated with positive emotion, $B = -0.44$, $SE = 0.21$, $\beta = -0.32$, $t = -2.31$, $p = .04$ (see

Table 32).

Table 32

The Result of Multiple Linear Regression Analysis for the Prediction of Sexist Attitudes on

Perceived Positive Emotion of Male Breadwinner

Predictor	b	b 95% CI [LL, UL]	beta	beta 95% CI [LL, UL]	sr^2	sr^2 95% CI [LL, UL]	r	Fit
(Intercept)	4.70***	[3.37, 6.04]						
HS	-0.25*	[-0.46, -0.03]	-0.26	[-0.49, -0.04]	.04	[-.03, .10]	-.19*	
BS	-0.44*	[-0.86, -0.03]	-0.32	[-0.62, -0.02]	.03	[-.03, .09]	-.16	
HM	0.04	[-0.15, 0.23]	0.04	[-0.15, 0.22]	.00	[-.01, .01]	.08	
BM	0.28	[-0.06, 0.62]	0.29	[-0.07, 0.64]	.02	[-.03, .06]	-.12	
								R^2 = .070
								95% CI[.00,.14]

Note. A significant b-weight indicates the beta-weight and semi-partial correlation are also significant. b represents unstandardized regression weights. *beta* indicates the standardized regression weights. sr^2 represents the semi-partial correlation squared. r represents the zero-order correlation. *LL* and *UL* indicate the lower and upper limits of a confidence interval, respectively.
* indicates $p < .05$. ** indicates $p < .01$. *** indicates $p < .001$.

A multiple linear regression was conducted to examine whether sexist attitudes held by

people would predict the positive emotion of female caregiver. Four types of sexist attitudes

were entered into a simultaneous regression model. The overall regression was statistically, R^2

$= .44$, $F (4, 127) = 25.12$, $p < .001$. HS negatively predict positive emotion of female

caregiver, $B = -0.19$, $SE = 0.09$, $\beta = -0.18$, $t = -2.00$, $p = .048$. BS ($p = .244$). HM negatively

predict positive emotion of female caregiver, $B = -0.26$, $SE = 0.09$, $\beta = -0.24$, $t = -3.00$, p

$= .003$). BM positively predict positive emotion of female caregiver, $B = 0.71$, $SE = 0.16$, $\beta =$

0.77, $t = 4.45$, $p < .001$ (see Table 33).

A multiple linear regression was conducted to examine whether sexist attitudes held by

people would predict the positive emotion of male caregiver. Four types of sexist attitudes were entered into a simultaneous regression model. The overall regression was marginally significant, $R^2 = .06$, $F(4, 133) = 2.12$, $p = .08$. HS negatively predict positive emotion of male caregiver, $B = -0.25$, $SE = 0.10$, $\beta = -.23$, $t = -2.41$, $p = .02$ (see Table 34).

Table 33

The Result of Multiple Linear Regression Analysis for the Prediction of Sexist Attitudes on Perceived Positive Emotion of Female Caregiver

Predictor	b	b 95% CI [LL, UL]	beta	beta 95% CI [LL, UL]	sr^2	sr^2 95% CI [LL, UL]	r	Fit
(Intercept)	3.26***	[2.46, 4.05]						
HS	-0.19*	[-0.37, -0.00]	-0.18	[-0.35, -0.00]	.02	[-.02, .05]	.11	
BS	-0.21	[-0.57, 0.15]	-0.18	[-0.48, 0.12]	.01	[-.01, .03]	.41**	
HM	-0.26**	[-0.43, -0.09]	-0.24	[-0.40, -0.08]	.04	[-.01, .09]	-.40**	
BM	0.71***	[0.39, 1.02]	0.77	[0.43, 1.11]	.09	[.01, .16]	.57**	
								$R^2 = .442***$ 95% CI[.30,.53]

Note. A significant *b*-weight indicates the beta-weight and semi-partial correlation are also significant. *b* represents unstandardized regression weights. *beta* indicates the standardized regression weights. *sr²* represents the semi-partial correlation squared. *r* represents the zero-order correlation. *LL* and *UL* indicate the lower and upper limits of a confidence interval, respectively.
* indicates $p < .05$. ** indicates $p < .01$. *** indicates $p < .001$.

Table 34

The Result of Multiple Linear Regression Analysis for the Prediction of Sexist Attitudes on Perceived Positive Emotion of Male Caregiver

Predictor	b	b 95% CI [LL, UL]	beta	beta 95% CI [LL, UL]	sr^2	sr^2 95% CI [LL, UL]	r	Fit
(Intercept)	3.93***	[2.64, 5.21]						
HS	-0.25*	[-0.46, -0.04]	-0.24	[-0.43, -0.04]	.04	[-.02, .11]	-.21*	
BS	-0.22	[-0.71, 0.28]	-0.14	[-0.46, 0.18]	.01	[-.02, .03]	-.05	
HM	0.18	[-0.05, 0.40]	0.14	[-0.04, 0.33]	.02	[-.02, .06]	.12	
BM	0.15	[-0.22, 0.53]	0.15	[-0.21, 0.50]	.00	[-.02, .03]	-.09	
								$R^2 = .060$ 95% CI[.00,.13]

Note. A significant *b*-weight indicates the beta-weight and semi-partial correlation are also significant. *b* represents unstandardized regression weights. *beta* indicates the standardized regression weights. *sr²* represents the semi-partial correlation squared. *r* represents the zero-order correlation. *LL* and *UL* indicate the lower and upper limits of a confidence interval, respectively.
* indicates $p < .05$. ** indicates $p < .01$. *** indicates $p < .001$.

5.5.8 Results of Multiple Regression Analysis for the Prediction of Sexist Attitudes on Perceived Negative Emotion in Different Gender Roles

A multiple linear regression was conducted to examine whether sexist attitudes held by people would predict the negative emotion of female breadwinner. Four types of sexist attitudes were entered into a simultaneous regression model. The overall regression was statistically significant, $R^2 = .117$, $F(4, 118) = 3.92$, $p = .005$. HS positively predict negative emotion of female breadwinner, $B = 0.30$, $SE = 0.10$, $\beta = 0.32$, $t = 2.86$, $p = .005$. BS ($p = .71$). HM ($p = .10$). BM ($p = .84$) (see Table 35).

A multiple linear regression was conducted to examine whether sexist attitudes held by people would predict the negative emotion of male breadwinner. Four types of sexist attitudes were entered into a simultaneous regression model. The overall regression was statistically, $R^2 = .153$, $F(4, 125) = 5.66$, $p < .001$. HS positively predicted perceived negative emotion of male breadwinner, $B = 0.37$, $SE = 0.11$, $\beta = 0.37$, $t = 3.39$, $p < .001$ (see Table 36).

Table 35

The Result of Multiple Linear Regression Analysis for the Prediction of Sexist Attitudes on Perceived Negative Emotion of Female Breadwinner

Predictor	b	b 95% CI [LL, UL]	beta	beta 95% CI [LL, UL]	sr^2	sr^2 95% CI [LL, UL]	r	Fit
(Intercept)	1.53*	[0.36, 2.70]						
HS	0.30**	[0.09, 0.50]	0.32	[0.10, 0.55]	.06	[-.02, .14]	.31**	
BS	-0.08	[-0.50, 0.34]	-0.06	[-0.36, 0.24]	.00	[-.01, .01]	.07	
HM	0.16	[-0.03, 0.36]	0.15	[-0.03, 0.32]	.02	[-.03, .07]	.10	
BM	0.04	[-0.32, 0.39]	0.04	[-0.32, 0.39]	.00	[-.01, .01]	.16	
								$R^2 = .117$** 95% CI[.01,.21]

Note. A significant b-weight indicates the beta-weight and semi-partial correlation are also significant. *b* represents unstandardized regression weights. *beta* indicates the standardized regression weights. sr^2 represents the semi-partial correlation squared. *r* represents the zero-order correlation. *LL* and *UL* indicate the lower and upper limits of a confidence interval, respectively.
* indicates $p < .05$. ** indicates $p < .01$.

Table 36

The Result of Multiple Linear Regression Analysis for the Prediction of Sexist Attitudes on

Perceived Negative Emotion of Male Breadwinner

Predictor	b	b 95% CI [LL, UL]	beta	beta 95% CI [LL, UL]	sr^2	sr^2 95% CI [LL, UL]	r	Fit
(Intercept)	1.57*	[0.22, 2.93]						
HS	0.37***	[0.15, 0.58]	0.37	[0.15, 0.59]	.08	[-.01, .16]	.37**	
BS	0.27	[-0.15, 0.68]	0.18	[-0.10, 0.47]	.01	[-.02, .04]	.18*	
HM	-0.08	[-0.27, 0.12]	-0.07	[-0.24, 0.11]	.00	[-.02, .02]	-.18*	
BM	-0.12	[-0.46, 0.23]	-0.12	[-0.45, 0.22]	.00	[-.01, .02]	.25**	
								R^2 = .153*** 95% CI[.04,.25]

Note. A significant *b*-weight indicates the beta-weight and semi-partial correlation are also significant. *b* represents unstandardized regression weights. *beta* indicates the standardized regression weights. sr^2 represents the semi-partial correlation squared. *r* represents the zero-order correlation. *LL* and *UL* indicate the lower and upper limits of a confidence interval, respectively.
* indicates *p* < .05. ** indicates *p* < .01.

     A multiple linear regression was conducted to examine whether sexist attitudes held by people would predict the negative emotion of female caregiver. Four types of sexist attitudes were entered into a simultaneous regression model. The overall regression was statistically, R^2 = .342, $F (4, 127) = 16.54$, $p < .001$. HS positively predict negative emotion of female caregiver, $B = 0.26$, $SE = 0.10$, $\beta = 0.27$, $t = 2.77$, $p = .006$. BS ($p = .77$). HM positively predict negative emotion of female caregiver, $B = 0.21$, $SE = 0.09$, $\beta = 0.21$, $t = 2.38$, $p = .02$. BM negatively predict negative emotion of female caregiver, $B = −0.53$, $SE = 0.16$, $\beta = -0.61$, $t = −3.71$, $p = .002$ (see Table 37).

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Table 37

The Result of Multiple Linear Regression Analysis for the Prediction of Sexist Attitudes on

Perceived Negative Emotion of Female Caregiver

Predictor	b	b 95% CI [LL, UL]	beta	beta 95% CI [LL, UL]	sr^2	sr^2 95% CI [LL, UL]	r	Fit
(Intercept)	2.72***	[1.90, 3.54]						
HS	0.26**	[0.08, 0.45]	0.27	[0.08, 0.46]	.04	[-.01, .09]	.02	
BS	0.05	[-0.31, 0.42]	0.05	[-0.28, 0.37]	.00	[-.01, .01]	-.39**	
HM	0.21*	[0.04, 0.39]	0.21	[0.03, 0.38]	.03	[-.02, .08]	.34**	
BM	-0.53**	[-0.85, -0.20]	-0.61	[-0.98, -0.24]	.05	[-.01, .12]	-.47**	
								R^2 = .342*** 95% CI[.20,.44]

Note. A significant *b*-weight indicates the beta-weight and semi-partial correlation are also significant. *b* represents unstandardized regression weights. *beta* indicates the standardized regression weights. sr^2 represents the semi-partial correlation squared. *r* represents the zero-order correlation. *LL* and *UL* indicate the lower and upper limits of a confidence interval, respectively.
* indicates $p < .05$. ** indicates $p < .01$.

Table 38

The Result of Multiple Linear Regression Analysis for the Prediction of Sexist Attitudes on

Perceived Negative Emotion of Male Caregiver

Predictor	b	b 95% CI [LL, UL]	beta	beta 95% CI [LL, UL]	sr^2	sr^2 95% CI [LL, UL]	r	Fit
(Intercept)	1.37*	[0.17, 2.57]						
HS	0.19†	[-0.00, 0.38]	0.20	[-0.00, 0.39]	.03	[-.03, .08]	.19*	
BS	0.05	[-0.41, 0.52]	0.04	[-0.29, 0.36]	.00	[-.01, .01]	.05	
HM	0.15	[-0.06, 0.36]	0.13	[-0.05, 0.31]	.01	[-.02, .05]	.13	
BM	-0.02	[-0.37, 0.33]	-0.02	[-0.37, 0.34]	.00	[-.00, .00]	.06	
								R^2 = .054 95% CI[.00,.12]

Note. A significant *b*-weight indicates the beta-weight and semi-partial correlation are also significant. *b* represents unstandardized regression weights. *beta* indicates the standardized regression weights. sr^2 represents the semi-partial correlation squared. *r* represents the zero-order correlation. *LL* and *U*ely.
† indicates $p < .1$. * Indicates $p < .05$. ** indicates $p < .01$.

A multiple linear regression was conducted to examine whether sexist attitudes held by people would predict the negative emotion of male caregiver. Four types of sexist attitudes were entered into a simultaneous regression model. The overall regression was not statistically, $R^2 = .054$, $F(4, 133) = 1.89$, $p = .12$. HS marginally positively predicted

perceived negative emotion to male caregiver, $B = 0.19$, $SE = 0.10$, $\beta = 0.20$, $t = 1.97$, $p = .051$ (see Table 38).

Figure 13

Prediction of Ambivalent Attitudes on the Perceptions of Female Breadwinner

Figure 14

Prediction of Ambivalent Attitudes on the Perceptions of Male Breadwinner
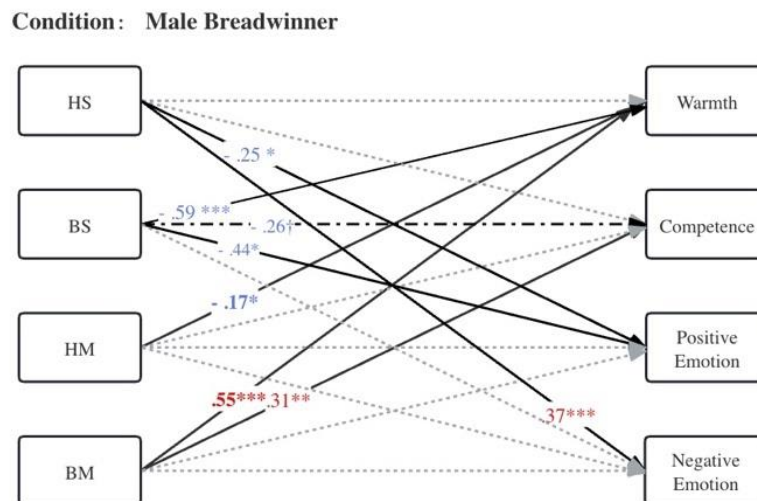
Figure 15

Prediction of Ambivalent Attitudes on the Perceptions of Female Caregiver
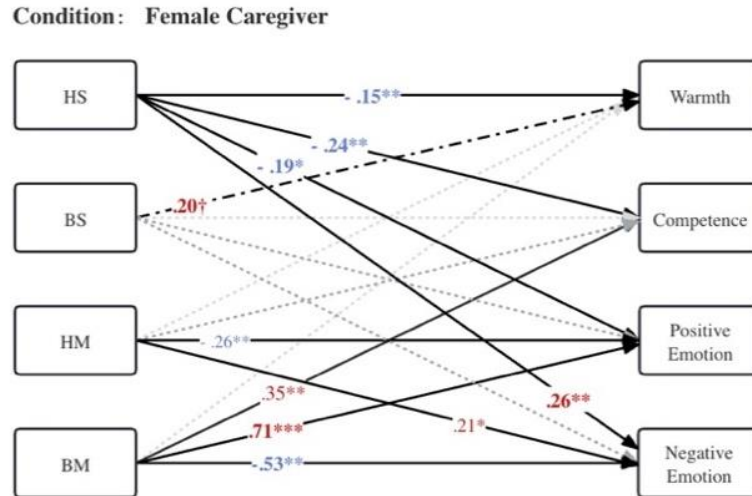
Figure 16

Prediction of Ambivalent Attitudes on the Perceptions of Male Caregiver

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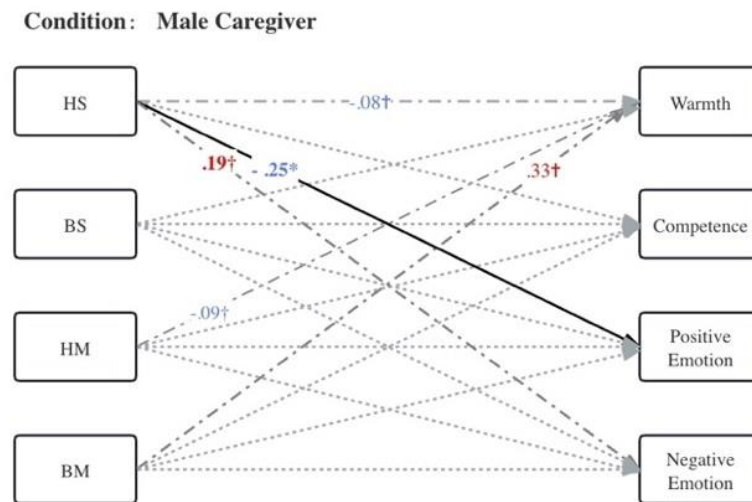
5.5.9 Results of Multiple Regression Analysis for the Prediction of Sexist Attitudes on Warmth in Different Gender Roles by Female and Male

A multiple linear regression was conducted to examine whether sexist attitudes held by people would predict the warmth perception of a female breadwinner in both female participants and male participants. Four types of sexist attitudes and personal factors were entered into a simultaneous regression model. For female participants, the overall regression was not statistically, $R^2 = .07$, $F(4, 65) = 1.23$, $p = .31$. Each of the sexist attitude was not significantly correlated with warmth. For male participants, the overall regression was significant, $R^2 = .297$, $F(4, 48) = 5.06$, $p = .002$. HS negatively predicted warmth perception of female breadwinner, $B = -0.39$, $SE = 0.12$, $\beta = -0.47$, $t = -3.30$, $p = .002$. HM positively predicted warmth perception of female breadwinner, $B = 0.38$, $SE = 0.21$, $\beta = 0.39$, $t = 3.06$, $p = .004$ (see Table 39).

A multiple linear regression was conducted to examine whether sexist attitudes held by people would predict the warmth perception of a male breadwinner. Four types of sexist attitudes and personal factors were entered into a simultaneous regression model. For female participants, the overall regression was not statistically significant, $R^2 = .10$, $F(4, 68) = 1.10$, $p = .36$. BS was marginally negatively correlated with warmth, $B = -0.41$, $SE = 0.22$, $\beta = -0.47$, $t = -1.85$, $p = .07$. For male participants, the overall regression was significant, $R^2 = .242$, $F(4, 52) = 4.14$, $p = .006$(see Table 27). BS was negatively correlated with warmth, $B = -0.77$, $SE = 0.26$, $\beta = -0.68$, $t = -2.93$, $p = .005$. BM was positively correlated with warmth, $B = 0.81$, $SE = 0.22$, $\beta = 0.86$, $t = 3.77$, $p < .001$ (see Table 40).

Table 39

The Result of Multiple Linear Regression Analysis for the Prediction of Sexist Attitudes on

Perceived Warmth of Female Breadwinner by Female and Male Participants

	Predictor	b	b 95% CI [LL, UL]	beta	beta 95% CI [LL, UL]	sr^2	sr^2 95% CI [LL, UL]	r	Fit
Female Participants	(Intercept)	4.04***	[3.14, 4.94]						
	HS	-0.17	[-0.40, 0.05]	-0.23	[-0.53, 0.07]	.03	[-.05, .12]	-.19	
	BS	-0.05	[-0.38, 0.28]	-0.07	[-0.48, 0.35]	.00	[-.02, .02]	-.04	
	HM	-0.09	[-0.26, 0.08]	-0.13	[-0.38, 0.12]	.01	[-.04, .07]	-.19	
	BM	0.11	[-0.17, 0.39]	0.18	[-0.28, 0.63]	.01	[-.03, .05]	-.00	
									R^2 = .070 95% CI[.00,.16]
Male Participants	(Intercept)	2.82***	[1.39, 4.25]						
	HS	-0.39**	[-0.63, -0.15]	-0.47	[-0.76, -0.18]	.16	[-.01, .33]	-.36**	
	BS	0.05	[-0.45, 0.55]	0.04	[-0.39, 0.48]	.00	[-.01, .01]	.16	
	HM	0.38**	[0.13, 0.64]	0.39	[0.13, 0.65]	.14	[-.02, .30]	.30*	
	BM	0.05	[-0.37, 0.48]	0.06	[-0.40, 0.52]	.00	[-.01, .01]	.06	
									R^2 = .297** 95% CI[.06,.43]

Note. A significant *b*-weight indicates the beta-weight and semi-partial correlation are also significant. *b* represents unstandardized regression weights. *beta* indicates the standardized regression weights. *sr^2* represents the semi-partial correlation squared. *r* represents the zero-order correlation. *LL* and *UL* indicate the lower and upper limits of a confidence interval, respectively.
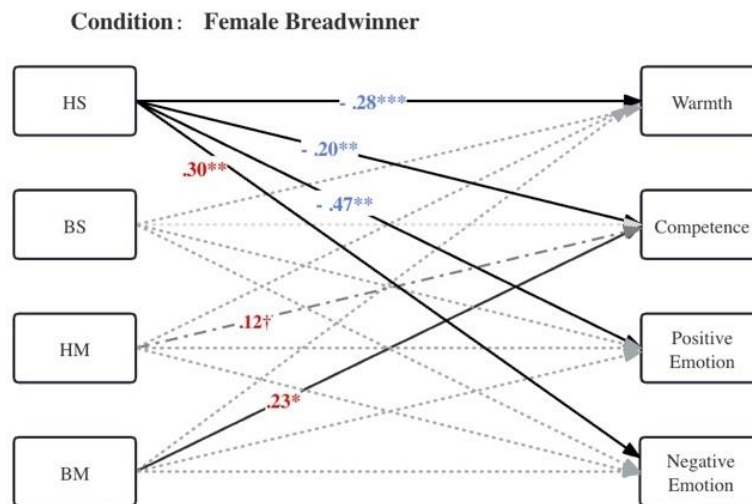
* indicates $p < .05$. ** indicates $p < .01$. *** indicates $p < .001$

A multiple linear regression was conducted to examine whether sexist attitudes held by people would predict the warmth perception of a female caregiver. Four types of sexist attitudes and personal factors were entered into a simultaneous regression model. For female participants, the overall regression was significant, $R^2 = .196$, $F (4, 68) = 4.14$, $p = .005$. HS was marginally negatively correlated with warmth, $B = -0.17$, $SE = 0.10$, $β = -0.24$, $t = -1.68$, $p = .097$. BS positively predict warmth perception of female caregiver, $B = 0.31$, $SE = 0.14$, $β = 0.48$, $t = 2.17$, $p = .03$. For male participants, the overall regression was significant, $R^2 = .310$, $F (4, 54) = 6.08$, $p < .001$. HS negatively predicted warmth perception of female caregiver, $B = -0.21$, $SE = 0.07$, $β = -0.51$, $t = -3.04$, $p = .004$ (see Table 41).

Table 40

The Result of Multiple Linear Regression Analysis for the Prediction of Sexist Attitudes on

Warmth Perception of Male Breadwinner by Female and Male Participants

	Predictor	b	b 95% CI [LL, UL]	beta	beta 95% CI [LL, UL]	sr^2	sr^2 95% CI [LL, UL]	r	Fit
Female Participants	(Intercept)	3.93***	[2.23, 5.64]						
	HS	-0.04	[-0.35, 0.28]	-0.04	[-0.36, 0.29]	.00	[-.01, .01]	.03	
	BS	-0.41†	[-0.86, 0.03]	-0.35	[-0.72, 0.03]	.05	[-.05, .14]	-.12	
	HM	-0.13	[-0.39, 0.13]	-0.12	[-0.36, 0.12]	.01	[-.04, .07]	-.12	
	BM	0.25	[-0.14, 0.64]	0.29	[-0.16, 0.74]	.02	[-.04, .09]	.02	
									R^2 = .061 95% CI[.00,.15]
Male Participants	(Intercept)	3.46***	[1.96, 4.96]						
	HS	-0.06	[-0.31, 0.18]	-0.07	[-0.36, 0.21]	.00	[-.02, .03]	.14	
	BS	-0.77**	[-1.30, -0.24]	-0.68	[-1.15, -0.22]	.13	[-.03, .28]	.00	
	HM	-0.09	[-0.34, 0.16]	-0.09	[-0.35, 0.16]	.01	[-.03, .05]	-.08	
	BM	0.81***	[0.38, 1.25]	0.86	[0.40, 1.32]	.21	[.02, .39]	.29*	
									R^2 = .242** 95% CI[.03,.38]

Note. A significant *b*-weight indicates the beta-weight and semi-partial correlation are also significant. *b* represents unstandardized regression weights. *beta* indicates the standardized regression weights. *sr²* represents the semi-partial correlation squared. *r* represents the zero-order correlation. *LL* and *UL* indicate the lower and upper limits of a confidence interval, respectively.
† indicates *p* < .1. * Indicates *p* < .05. ** indicates *p* < .01.

Table 41

The Result of Multiple Linear Regression Analysis for the Prediction of Sexist Attitudes on

Warmth Perception of Female Caregiver by Female and Male Participants

	Predictor	b	b 95% CI [LL, UL]	beta	beta 95% CI [LL, UL]	sr^2	sr^2 95% CI [LL, UL]	r	Fit
Female Participants	(Intercept)	3.51***	[2.74, 4.28]						
	HS	-0.17†	[-0.38, 0.03]	-0.24	[-0.53, 0.04]	.03	[-.04, .11]	-.17	
	BS	0.31*	[0.02, 0.60]	0.48	[0.04, 0.93]	.06	[-.04, .15]	.35**	
	HM	0.00	[-0.15, 0.16]	0.01	[-0.23, 0.24]	.00	[-.00, .00]	.04	
	BM	-0.05	[-0.34, 0.24]	-0.09	[-0.60, 0.42]	.00	[-.01, .02]	.18	
									R^2 = .196** 95% CI[.02,.32]
Male Participants	(Intercept)	4.33***	[3.81, 4.85]						
	HS	-0.21**	[-0.35, -0.07]	-0.51	[-0.84, -0.17]	.12	[-.02, .26]	-.48**	
	BS	0.03	[-0.26, 0.32]	0.06	[-0.51, 0.63]	.00	[-.01, .01]	.26	
	HM	-0.01	[-0.17, 0.16]	-0.01	[-0.35, 0.33]	.00	[-.00, .00]	-.24	
	BM	0.10	[-0.14, 0.33]	0.22	[-0.31, 0.76]	.01	[-.03, .05]	.21	
									R^2 = .311** 95% CI[.08,.44]

Note. A significant *b*-weight indicates the beta-weight and semi-partial correlation are also significant. *b* represents unstandardized regression weights. *beta* indicates the standardized regression weights. *sr²* represents the semi-partial correlation squared. *r* represents the zero-order correlation. *LL* and *UL* indicate the lower and upper limits of a confidence interval, respectively. † indicates *p* < .1. * Indicates *p* < .05. ** indicates *p* < .01.

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A multiple linear regression was conducted to examine whether sexist attitudes held by people would predict the warmth perception of a male caregiver. Four types of sexist attitudes and personal factors were entered into a simultaneous regression model. For female participants, the overall regression was marginally statistically significant, $R^2 = .11$, $F(4, 69) = 2.20$, $p = .08$. Only BM marginally positively predict perceived warmth of male caregiver, $B = 0.22$, $SE = 0.13$, $\beta = 0.41$, $t = 1.70$, $p = .09$. For male participants, the overall regression was significant, $R^2 = .15$, $F(4, 59) = 2.63$, $p = .04$ (see Table 42).

Table 42

The Result of Multiple Linear Regression Analysis for the Prediction of Sexist Attitudes on Warmth Perception of Male Caregiver by Female and Male Participants

	Predictor	b	b 95% CI [LL, UL]	beta	beta 95% CI [LL, UL]	sr^2	sr^2 95% CI [LL, UL]	r	Fit
Female Participants	(Intercept)	4.25***	[3.35, 5.14]						
	HS	-0.04	[-0.22, 0.13]	-0.06	[-0.31, 0.19]	.00	[-.02, .03]	.01	
	BS	-0.09	[-0.42, 0.23]	-0.13	[-0.60, 0.33]	.00	[-.02, .03]	.19	
	HM	-0.10	[-0.29, 0.08]	-0.14	[-0.38, 0.11]	.02	[-.04, .07]	-.18	
	BM	0.22†	[-0.04, 0.48]	0.41	[-0.07, 0.89]	.04	[-.04, .12]	.28*	
									R^2 = .113† 95% CI[.00,.22]
Male Participants	(Intercept)	4.09***	[3.29, 4.89]						
	HS	-0.10	[-0.23, 0.03]	-0.22	[-0.50, 0.07]	.03	[-.05, .11]	-.30*	
	BS	0.15	[-0.15, 0.45]	0.22	[-0.22, 0.65]	.01	[-.04, .07]	.27*	
	HM	-0.07	[-0.22, 0.08]	-0.12	[-0.39, 0.15]	.01	[-.04, .06]	-.17	
	BM	0.02	[-0.20, 0.24]	0.04	[-0.38, 0.45]	.00	[-.01, .01]	.19	
									R^2 = .151* 95% CI[.00,.27]

Note. A significant *b*-weight indicates the beta-weight and semi-partial correlation are also significant. *b* represents unstandardized regression weights. *beta* indicates the standardized regression weights. sr^2 represents the semi-partial correlation squared. *r* represents the zero-order correlation. *LL* and *UL* indicate the lower and upper limits of a confidence interval, respectively.
† indicates $p < .1$. * Indicates $p < .05$. ** indicates $p < .01$.

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5.5.10 Results of Multiple Regression Analysis for the Prediction of Sexist Attitudes on Perceived Competent in Different Gender Roles by Female and Male

A multiple linear regression was conducted to examine whether sexist attitudes held by people would predict the competence perception of a female breadwinner in both female participants and male participants. Four types of sexist attitudes and personal factors were entered into a simultaneous regression model. For female participants, the overall regression was not statistically, $R^2 = .06$, $F (4, 65) = 0.996$, $p = .42$. HS was marginally negatively predicted perceived competence of female breadwinner, $B = -0.21$, $SE = 0.11$, $\beta = .48$, $t = -1.91$, $p = .06$. For male participants, the overall regression was significant, $R^2 = .22$, $F (4, 48) = 3.35$, $p = .02$ (see Table 43).

Table 43

The Result of Multiple Linear Regression Analysis for the Prediction of Sexist Attitudes on Competence Perception of Female Breadwinner by Female and Male Participants

	Predictor	b	b 95% CI [LL, UL]	beta	beta 95% CI [LL, UL]	sr^2	sr^2 95% CI [LL, UL]	r	Fit
Female Participants	(Intercept)	4.56***	[3.69, 5.43]						
	HS	-0.21†	[-0.43, 0.01]	-0.29	[-0.59, 0.01]	.05	[-.05, .15]	-.21	
	BS	-0.08	[-0.40, 0.24]	-0.11	[-0.52, 0.31]	.00	[-.02, .03]	-.07	
	HM	0.04	[-0.13, 0.20]	0.06	[-0.20, 0.31]	.00	[-.02, .03]	-.02	
	BM	0.12	[-0.15, 0.40]	0.21	[-0.25, 0.66]	.01	[-.04, .06]	-.04	
									R^2 = .058 95% CI[.00,.14]
Male Participants	(Intercept)	2.88***	[1.61, 4.16]						
	HS	-0.14	[-0.35, 0.08]	-0.19	[-0.49, 0.11]	.03	[-.05, .10]	-.04	
	BS	0.02	[-0.42, 0.46]	0.02	[-0.44, 0.48]	.00	[-.01, .01]	.35**	
	HM	0.17	[-0.05, 0.40]	0.21	[-0.06, 0.48]	.04	[-.05, .13]	.26	
	BM	0.29	[-0.08, 0.67]	0.38	[-0.11, 0.86]	.04	[-.05, .13]	.39**	
									R^2 = .218* 95% CI[.01,.36]

Note. A significant *b*-weight indicates the beta-weight and semi-partial correlation are also significant. *b* represents unstandardized regression weights. *beta* indicates the standardized regression weights. sr^2 represents the semi-partial correlation squared. *r* represents the zero-order correlation. *LL* and *UL* indicate the lower and upper limits of a confidence interval, respectively.
† indicates $p < .1$. * Indicates $p < .05$. ** indicates $p < .01$.

A multiple linear regression was conducted to examine whether sexist attitudes held by people would predict the competence perception of a male breadwinner. Four types of sexist attitudes and personal factors were entered into a simultaneous regression model. For female participants, the overall regression was not statistically significant, $R^2 = .072$, $F(4, 68) = 1.64$, $p = .27$. Only HS negatively predicted the competence perception of male breadwinner, $B = -0.29$, $SE = 0.13$, $\beta = -0.36$, $t = -2.22$, $p = .03$. For male participants, the overall regression was significant, $R^2 = .19$, $F(4, 52) = 3.05$, $p = .02$. BS marginally negatively predicted perceived competence of male breadwinner, $B = -0.34$, $SE = 0.20$, $\beta = -.38$, $t = -1.72$, $p = .09$. BM positively predicted competence of male breadwinner, $B = 0.46$, $SE = 0.16$, $\beta = .54$, $t = 2.86$, $p = .006$ (see Table 44).

Table 44

The Result of Multiple Linear Regression Analysis for the Prediction of Sexist Attitudes on Perceived Competence of Male Breadwinner by Female and Male Participants

	Predictor	b	b 95% CI [LL, UL]	beta	beta 95% CI [LL, UL]	sr^2	sr^2 95% CI [LL, UL]	r	Fit
Female Participants	(Intercept)	4.57***	[3.16, 5.98]						
	HS	-0.29*	[-0.55, -0.03]	-0.36	[-0.68, -0.04]	.07	[-.04, .18]	-.22	
	BS	-0.12	[-0.49, 0.25]	-0.12	[-0.50, 0.25]	.01	[-.03, .04]	-.07	
	HM	-0.05	[-0.27, 0.16]	-0.06	[-0.30, 0.18]	.00	[-.02, .03]	-.01	
	BM	0.20	[-0.12, 0.52]	0.28	[-0.17, 0.72]	.02	[-.04, .08]	-.05	
									R^2 = .072 95% CI[.00,.16]
Male Participants	(Intercept)	3.28***	[2.16, 4.40]						
	HS	-0.02	[-0.20, 0.16]	-0.03	[-0.32, 0.27]	.00	[-.01, .01]	.15	
	BS	-0.34†	[-0.73, 0.06]	-0.42	[-0.90, 0.07]	.05	[-.05, .14]	.15	
	HM	0.08	[-0.10, 0.27]	0.11	[-0.15, 0.37]	.01	[-.04, .06]	.15	
	BM	0.46**	[0.14, 0.78]	0.67	[0.20, 1.14]	.13	[-.03, .28]	.36**	
									R^2 = .190* 95% CI[.00,.32]

Note. A significant *b*-weight indicates the beta-weight and semi-partial correlation are also significant. *b* represents unstandardized regression weights. *beta* indicates the standardized regression weights. sr^2 represents the semi-partial correlation squared. *r* represents the zero-order correlation. *LL* and *UL* indicate the lower and upper limits of a confidence interval, respectively.
† indicates $p < .1$. * Indicates $p < .05$. ** indicates $p < .01$.

A multiple linear regression was conducted to examine whether sexist attitudes held by people would predict the competence perception of a female caregiver. Four types of sexist attitudes and personal factors were entered into a simultaneous regression model. For female participants, the overall regression was not significant, $R^2 = .054$, $F(4, 68) = 0.97$, $p = .42$. For male participants , the overall regression was significant, $R^2 = .32$, $F(4, 54) = 6.34$, $p < .001$. HS negatively predicted the competence of female caregiver, $B = -0.33$, $SE = 0.10$, $\beta = -.52$, $t = -3.01$, $p = .003$. BM positively predict competence perception of female caregiver, $B = .39$, $SE = 0.19$, $\beta = .47$, $t = 2.13$, $p = .04$ (see Table 45).

Table 45

The Result of Multiple Linear Regression Analysis for the Prediction of Sexist Attitudes on Competence Perception of Female Caregiver by Female and Male Participants

	Predictor	b	b 95% CI [LL, UL]	beta	beta 95% CI [LL, UL]	sr^2	sr^2 95% CI [LL, UL]	r	Fit
Female Participants	(Intercept)	3.13***	[2.13, 4.12]						
	HS	-0.11	[-0.37, 0.15]	-0.13	[-0.44, 0.18]	.01	[-.03, .05]	.01	
	BS	0.00	[-0.37, 0.37]	0.00	[-0.48, 0.48]	.00	[-.00, .00]	.20	
	HM	0.05	[-0.15, 0.25]	0.07	[-0.19, 0.33]	.00	[-.02, .03]	.04	
	BM	0.18	[-0.19, 0.56]	0.27	[-0.28, 0.82]	.01	[-.04, .06]	.20	
									R^2 = .054 95% CI[.00,.13]
Male Participants	(Intercept)	4.26***	[3.43, 5.09]						
	HS	-0.33**	[-0.55, -0.11]	-0.50	[-0.83, -0.17]	.11	[-.02, .25]	-.45**	
	BS	-0.21	[-0.67, 0.24]	-0.27	[-0.84, 0.30]	.01	[-.03, .06]	.22	
	HM	-0.03	[-0.29, 0.23]	-0.04	[-0.38, 0.30]	.00	[-.01, .01]	-.28*	
	BM	0.40*	[0.02, 0.77]	0.57	[0.03, 1.10]	.06	[-.04, .16]	.25	
									R^2 = .320** 95% CI[.09,.45]

Note. A significant *b*-weight indicates the beta-weight and semi-partial correlation are also significant. *b* represents unstandardized regression weights. *beta* indicates the standardized regression weights. *sr^2* represents the semi-partial correlation squared. *r* represents the zero-order correlation. *LL* and *UL* indicate the lower and upper limits of a confidence interval, respectively.

* Indicates $p < .05$. ** indicates $p < .01$.

Table 46

The Result of Multiple Linear Regression Analysis for the Prediction of Sexist Attitudes on

Competence Perception of Male Caregiver by Female and Male Participants

	Predictor	b	b 95% CI [LL, UL]	beta	beta 95% CI [LL, UL]	sr^2	sr^2 95% CI [LL, UL]	r	Fit
Female Participants	(Intercept)	4.30***	[3.00, 5.60]						
	HS	-0.09	[-0.34, 0.17]	-0.09	[-0.34, 0.17]	.01	[-.03, .04]	-.13	
	BS	-0.35	[-0.82, 0.13]	-0.34	[-0.81, 0.12]	.03	[-.04, .10]	-.32**	
	HM	0.13	[-0.14, 0.40]	0.12	[-0.12, 0.36]	.01	[-.03, .06]	.06	
	BM	0.02	[-0.35, 0.40]	0.03	[-0.45, 0.51]	.00	[-.01, .01]	-.30*	
									R^2 = .120 95% CI[.00,.23]
Male Participants	(Intercept)	3.67***	[2.04, 5.29]						
	HS	0.11	[-0.16, 0.37]	0.12	[-0.17, 0.40]	.01	[-.03, .05]	-.10	
	BS	0.47	[-0.14, 1.08]	0.34	[-0.10, 0.77]	.03	[-.05, .12]	.14	
	HM	-0.44**	[-0.74, -0.14]	-0.39	[-0.66, -0.12]	.12	[-.03, .27]	-.32*	
	BM	-0.16	[-0.62, 0.29]	-0.15	[-0.57, 0.26]	.01	[-.03, .05]	.09	
									R^2 = .148* 95% CI[.00,.27]

Note. A significant *b*-weight indicates the beta-weight and semi-partial correlation are also significant. *b* represents unstandardized regression weights. *beta* indicates the standardized regression weights. *sr²* represents the semi-partial correlation squared. *r* represents the zero-order correlation. *LL* and *UL* indicate the lower and upper limits of a confidence interval, respectively.
* Indicates *p* < .05. ** indicates *p* < .01.

A multiple linear regression was conducted to examine whether sexist attitudes held by people would predict the competence perception of a male caregiver. Four types of sexist attitudes and personal factors were entered into a simultaneous regression model. For female participants, the overall regression was marginally statistically significant, $R^2 = .12$, $F (4, 69) = 2.36$, $p = .06$. For male participants, the overall regression was significant, $R^2 = .15$, $F (4, 59) = 2.57$, $p < .04$. HM negatively prediceted the competence of a male caregiver, $B = -0.44$, $SE = 0.15$, $\beta = -0.39$, $t = -2.90$, $p = .005$ (see Table 46).

5.5.11 Results of Multiple Regression Analysis for the Prediction of Sexist Attitudes on Perceived Positive Emotion in Different Gender Roles by Female and Male

A multiple linear regression was conducted to examine whether sexist attitudes held by people would predict the perceived positive emotion of a female breadwinner in both female participants and male participants. Four types of sexist attitudes and personal factors were

entered into a simultaneous regression model. For female participants, the overall regression was not statistically, $R^2 = .092$, $F(4, 65) = 1.64$, $p = .18$. HS negatively predicted perceived positive emotion of female breadwinner, $B = -0.29$, $SE = 0.14$, $\beta = -0.31$, $t = -2.06$, $p = .04$. For male participants, the overall regression was also marginally significant, $R^2 = .17$, $F(4, 48) = 2.41$, $p = .06$. HS was negatively correlated with perceived positive emotion, $B = -0.41$, $SE = 0.16$, $\beta = -0.40$, $t = -2.59$, $p = .01$ (see Table 47).

Table 47

The Result of Multiple Linear Regression Analysis for the Prediction of Sexist Attitudes on

Perceived Positive Emotion of Female Breadwinner by Gender

	Predictor	b	b 95% CI [LL, UL]	beta	beta 95% CI [LL, UL]	sr²	sr² 95% CI [LL, UL]	r	Fit
Female Participants	(Intercept)	4.65***	[3.56, 5.75]						
	HS	-0.29*	[-0.56, -0.01]	-0.31	[-0.60, -0.01]	.06	[-.05, .17]	-.21	
	BS	-0.07	[-0.47, 0.33]	-0.07	[-0.48, 0.34]	.00	[-.02, .02]	-.01	
	HM	-0.08	[-0.29, 0.13]	-0.10	[-0.35, 0.16]	.01	[-.03, .05]	-.17	
	BM	0.20	[-0.14, 0.55]	0.27	[-0.18, 0.71]	.02	[-.04, .08]	.04	
									R^2 = .092† 95% CI[.00,.19]
Male Participants	(Intercept)	3.45***	[1.52, 5.38]						
	HS	-0.41*	[-0.73, -0.09]	-0.40	[-0.71, -0.09]	.12	[-.04, .27]	-.34*	
	BS	0.09	[-0.58, 0.76]	0.06	[-0.41, 0.54]	.00	[-.02, .02]	.20	
	HM	0.14	[-0.20, 0.48]	0.12	[-0.16, 0.39]	.01	[-.04, .07]	.06	
	BM	0.15	[-0.43, 0.72]	0.13	[-0.37, 0.63]	.00	[-.03, .04]	.10	
									R^2 = .167† 95% CI[.00,.30]

Note. A significant *b*-weight indicates the beta-weight and semi-partial correlation are also significant. *b* represents unstandardized regression weights. *beta* indicates the standardized regression weights. *sr²* represents the semi-partial correlation squared. *r* represents the zero-order correlation. *LL* and *UL* indicate the lower and upper limits of a confidence interval, respectively.
† indicates $p < .1$. * Indicates $p < .05$. ** indicates $p < .01$.

A multiple linear regression was conducted to examine whether sexist attitudes held by people would predict the perceived positive emotion of a male breadwinner. Four types of sexist attitudes and personal factors were entered into a simultaneous regression model. For female participants, the overall regression was statistically significant, $R^2 = .23$, $F(4, 68) =$

5.18, $p = .001$. HS marginally negatively predicted perceived positive emotion, $B = -0.31$, SE = 0.18, $\beta = -0.40$, $t = -1.73$, $p = .089$. BS marginally negatively predicted perceived positive emotion, $B = -0.49$, $SE = 0.25$, $\beta = -0.40$, $t = -1.95$, $p = .055$. For male participants, the overall regression was not significant, $R^2 = .06$, $F (4, 52) = 0.83$, $p = .51$ (see Table 48).

Table 48

The Result of Multiple Linear Regression Analysis for the Prediction of Sexist Attitudes on Perceived Positive Emotion of Male Breadwinner by Gender

	Predictor	b	b 95% CI [LL, UL]	beta	beta 95% CI [LL, UL]	sr^2	sr^2 95% CI [LL, UL]	r	Fit
Female Participants	(Intercept)	5.58**	[3.65, 7.51]						
	HS	-0.31†	[-0.67, 0.05]	-0.25	[-0.54, 0.04]	.03	[-.04, .11]	-.39**	
	BS	-0.50†	[-1.00, 0.01]	-0.33	[-0.67, 0.01]	.04	[-.04, .12]	-.43**	
	HM	0.06	[-0.24, 0.35]	0.04	[-0.18, 0.26]	.00	[-.01, .02]	.14	
	BM	0.04	[-0.40, 0.48]	0.04	[-0.37, 0.44]	.00	[-.01, .01]	-.40**	
									R^2 = .234** 95% CI[.05,.36]
Male Participants	(Intercept)	3.21**	[1.26, 5.17]						
	HS	-0.14	[-0.46, 0.18]	-0.14	[-0.46, 0.18]	.01	[-.05, .07]	-.05	
	BS	-0.26	[-0.95, 0.43]	-0.20	[-0.72, 0.33]	.01	[-.04, .06]	.14	
	HM	0.04	[-0.28, 0.37]	0.04	[-0.24, 0.32]	.00	[-.02, .02]	.05	
	BM	0.42	[-0.15, 0.98]	0.37	[-0.14, 0.88]	.04	[-.06, .14]	.21	
									R^2 = .060 95% CI[.00,.15]

Note. A significant *b*-weight indicates the beta-weight and semi-partial correlation are also significant. *b* represents unstandardized regression weights. *beta* indicates the standardized regression weights. *sr^2* represents the semi-partial correlation squared. *r* represents the zero-order correlation. *LL* and *UL* indicate the lower and upper limits of a confidence interval, respectively.
† indicates $p < .1$. * Indicates $p < .05$. ** indicates $p < .01$.

A multiple linear regression was conducted to examine whether sexist attitudes held by people would predict the perceived positive emotion of a female caregiver. Four types of sexist attitudes and personal factors were entered into a simultaneous regression model. For female participants, the overall regression was significant, $R^2 = .361$, $F (4, 68) = 4.84$, p < .001. HM negatively predicted positive emotion of female caregiver, $B = -0.39$, $SE = 0.11$, β = -0.37, $t = -3.43$, $p = .001$. For male participants, , the overall regression was significant, R^2

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= .47, $F(4, 54) = 11.77$, $p < .001$. HS negatively predict positively emotion of female caregiver, $B = -0.46$, $SE = 0.14$, $\beta = -0.47$, $t = -3.17$, $p = .003$. BS also negatively predict positively emotion of female caregiver, $B = -1.14$, $SE = 0.30$, $\beta = -0.97$, $t = -3.85$, $p < .001$. BM positively predict positively emotion of female caregiver, $B = 1.38$, $SE = 0.24$, $\beta = 1.34$, $t = 5.70$, $p < .001$ (see Table 49).

Table 49

The Result of Multiple Linear Regression Analysis for the Prediction of Sexist Attitudes on

Perceived Positive Emotion of Female Caregiver by Gender

	Predictor	b	b 95% CI [LL, UL]	beta	beta 95% CI [LL, UL]	sr^2	sr^2 95% CI [LL, UL]	r	Fit
Female Participants	(Intercept)	3.08***	[1.92, 4.24]						
	HS	-0.00	[-0.31, 0.31]	-0.00	[-0.26, 0.25]	.00	[-.00, .00]	.14	
	BS	0.33	[-0.10, 0.77]	0.30	[-0.09, 0.70]	.02	[-.03, .08]	.44**	
	HM	-0.40**	[-0.63, -0.17]	-0.37	[-0.58, -0.15]	.11	[-.01, .23]	-.35**	
	BM	0.20	[-0.24, 0.64]	0.21	[-0.24, 0.66]	.01	[-.02, .04]	.48**	
									$R^2 = .361***$ 95% CI[.15,.48]
Male Participants	(Intercept)	3.69***	[2.61, 4.78]						
	HS	-0.46**	[-0.74, -0.17]	-0.47	[-0.76, -0.17]	.10	[-.02, .22]	-.25	
	BS	-1.14***	[-1.74, -0.55]	-0.97	[-1.47, -0.46]	.15	[.01, .28]	.23	
	HM	0.07	[-0.27, 0.40]	0.06	[-0.24, 0.36]	.00	[-.01, .02]	-.19	
	BM	1.38***	[0.90, 1.87]	1.34	[0.87, 1.81]	.32	[.14, .51]	.44**	
									$R^2 = .466***$ 95% CI[.23,.58]

Note. A significant *b*-weight indicates the beta-weight and semi-partial correlation are also significant. *b* represents unstandardized regression weights. *beta* indicates the standardized regression weights. sr^2 represents the semi-partial correlation squared. *r* represents the zero-order correlation. *LL* and *UL* indicate the lower and upper limits of a confidence interval, respectively.
* Indicates $p < .05$. ** indicates $p < .01$. *** indicates $p < .001$.

A multiple linear regression was conducted to examine whether sexist attitudes held by people would predict the perceived positive emotion of a male caregiver. Four types of sexist attitudes and personal factors were entered into a simultaneous regression model. For female participants, the overall regression was statistically significant, $R^2 = .25$, $F(4, 69) = 5.62$, $p < .001$. BS marginally negatively predict positive emotion of male caregiver, $B = -0.55$, $SE =$

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0.30, $\beta = -0.40$, $t = -1.84$, $p = .06$. HM positively predicted positive emotion of male caregiver, $B = .76$, $SE = 0.17$, $\beta = 0.51$, $t = 4.48$, $p < .001$. For male participants, the overall regression was not significant, $R^2 = .11$, $F(4, 59) = 1.90$, $p = .12$. Only HS marginally negatively predict perceived positively emotion of female caregiver, $B = -0.28$, $SE = 0.17$, $\beta = -0.25$, $t = -1.70$, $p = .09$ (see Table 50).

Table 50

The Result of Multiple Linear Regression Analysis for the Prediction of Sexist Attitudes on

Perceived Positive Emotion of Male Caregiver by Gender

	Predictor	b	b 95% CI [LL, UL]	beta	beta 95% CI [LL, UL]	sr^2	sr^2 95% CI [LL, UL]	r	Fit
Female Participants	(Intercept)	1.86*	[0.22, 3.50]						
	HS	-0.18	[-0.50, 0.15]	-0.13	[-0.36, 0.11]	.01	[-.03, .06]	-.01	
	BS	-0.55†	[-1.15, 0.05]	-0.40	[-0.83, 0.03]	.04	[-.04, .11]	-.16	
	HM	0.76***	[0.42, 1.10]	0.51	[0.28, 0.74]	.22	[.05, .38]	.43**	
	BM	0.27	[-0.20, 0.74]	0.25	[-0.19, 0.70]	.01	[-.03, .06]	-.14	
									$R^2 = .246***$ 95% CI[.06,.37]
Male Participants	(Intercept)	4.72***	[2.67, 6.77]						
	HS	-0.28†	[-0.61, 0.05]	-0.25	[-0.54, 0.04]	.04	[-.05, .14]	-.31*	
	BS	0.09	[-0.68, 0.86]	0.05	[-0.39, 0.49]	.00	[-.01, .01]	.11	
	HM	-0.19	[-0.57, 0.19]	-0.14	[-0.41, 0.14]	.01	[-.04, .07]	-.22	
	BM	0.05	[-0.52, 0.62]	0.04	[-0.38, 0.46]	.00	[-.01, .01]	.06	
									$R^2 = .114$ 95% CI[.00,.23]

Note. A significant *b*-weight indicates the beta-weight and semi-partial correlation are also significant. *b* represents unstandardized regression weights. *beta* indicates the standardized regression weights. *sr²* represents the semi-partial correlation squared. *r* represents the zero-order correlation. *LL* and *U*ely.
† indicates $p < .1$. * Indicates $p < .05$. ** indicates $p < .01$.

5.5.12. Results of Multiple Regression Analysis for the Prediction of Sexist Attitudes on Perceived Negative Emotion in Different Gender Roles by Female and Male

A multiple linear regression was conducted to examine whether sexist attitudes held by people would predict the perceived positive emotion of a female breadwinner in both female participants and male participants. Four types of sexist attitudes and personal factors were

entered into a simultaneous regression model. For female participants, the overall regression was marginally statistically, $R^2 = .12$, $F(4, 65) = 2.19$, $p = .08$. HS positively predicted perceived negative emotion of female breadwinner, $B = 0.39$, $SE = 0.20$, $\beta = 0.29$, $t = 2.00$, $p = .049$. For male participants, the overall regression was marginally significant, $R^2 = .18$, $F(4, 41) = 2.22$, $p = .08$. Only HS positively predicted negative emotion of female breadwinner, $p < .01$ (see Table 51).

Table 51

The Result of Multiple Linear Regression Analysis for the Prediction of Sexist Attitudes on

Perceived Negative Emotion of Female Breadwinner by Gender

	Predictor	b	b 95% CI [LL, UL]	beta	beta 95% CI [LL, UL]	sr^2	sr^2 95% CI [LL, UL]	r	Fit
Female Participants	(Intercept)	1.38†	[-0.17, 2.93]						
	HS	0.39*	[0.00, 0.78]	0.29	[0.00, 0.58]	.05	[-.05, .15]	.31**	
	BS	-0.12	[-0.69, 0.44]	-0.09	[-0.49, 0.32]	.00	[-.02, .02]	.10	
	HM	0.19	[-0.11, 0.48]	0.15	[-0.09, 0.40]	.02	[-.04, .08]	.20	
	BM	0.05	[-0.44, 0.54]	0.04	[-0.40, 0.49]	.00	[-.01, .01]	.13	
									$R^2 = .119†$ 95% CI[.00,.23]
Male Participants	(Intercept)	1.74	[-0.26, 3.73]						
	HS	0.35*	[0.02, 0.69]	0.33	[0.02, 0.65]	.08	[-.05, .22]	.38**	
	BS	-0.16	[-0.86, 0.54]	-0.11	[-0.59, 0.37]	.00	[-.03, .03]	-.01	
	HM	-0.03	[-0.38, 0.32]	-0.03	[-0.31, 0.26]	.00	[-.01, .01]	.08	
	BM	0.18	[-0.41, 0.77]	0.15	[-0.35, 0.66]	.01	[-.03, .05]	.15	
									$R^2 = .149$ 95% CI[.00,.28]

Note. A significant *b*-weight indicates the beta-weight and semi-partial correlation are also significant. *b* represents unstandardized regression weights. *beta* indicates the standardized regression weights. *sr²* represents the semi-partial correlation squared. *r* represents the zero-order correlation. *LL* and *U*ely.
† indicates $p < .1$. * Indicates $p < .05$. ** indicates $p < .01$.

A multiple linear regression was conducted to examine whether sexist attitudes held by people would predict the perceived negative emotion of a male breadwinner. Four types of sexist attitudes and personal factors were entered into a simultaneous regression model. For female participants, the overall regression was statistically significant, $R^2 = .22$, $F(4, 68) =$

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4.87, $p = .002$. HS positively prediceted perceived negative emotion of male breadwinner, B

$= .63$, $SE = 0.19$, $\beta = 0.49$, $t = 3.36$, $p = .001$. For male participants, the overall regression was

not significant, $R^2 = .02$, $F(4, 52) = 0.32$, $p = .86$ (see Table 52).

Table 52

The Result of Multiple Linear Regression Analysis for the Prediction of Sexist Attitudes on

Perceived Negative Emotion of Male Breadwinner by Gender

	Predictor	b	b 95% CI [LL, UL]	beta	beta 95% CI [LL, UL]	sr^2	sr^2 95% CI [LL, UL]	r	Fit
Female Participants	(Intercept)	1.27	[-0.75, 3.29]						
	HS	0.63**	[0.26, 1.00]	0.49	[0.20, 0.79]	.13	[-.01, .27]	.46**	
	BS	0.26	[-0.27, 0.79]	0.17	[-0.17, 0.51]	.01	[-.03, .05]	.26*	
	HM	-0.07	[-0.38, 0.24]	-0.05	[-0.27, 0.17]	.00	[-.02, .02]	-.15	
	BM	-0.21	[-0.67, 0.24]	-0.19	[-0.60, 0.22]	.01	[-.03, .05]	.28*	
									$R^2 = .223**$ 95% CI[.04,.35]
Male Participants	(Intercept)	2.27*	[0.20, 4.33]						
	HS	0.18	[-0.16, 0.52]	0.17	[-0.15, 0.50]	.02	[-.05, .10]	.15	
	BS	0.14	[-0.59, 0.87]	0.10	[-0.43, 0.63]	.00	[-.02, .03]	.00	
	HM	0.00	[-0.34, 0.35]	0.00	[-0.28, 0.29]	.00	[-.00, .00]	.04	
	BM	-0.09	[-0.69, 0.51]	-0.08	[-0.60, 0.44]	.00	[-.02, .02]	.02	
									$R^2 = .024$ 95% CI[.00,.07]

Note. A significant *b*-weight indicates the beta-weight and semi-partial correlation are also significant. *b* represents unstandardized regression weights. *beta* indicates the standardized regression weights. sr^2 represents the semi-partial correlation squared. *r* represents the zero-order correlation. *LL* and *U*ely.
† indicates $p < .1$. * Indicates $p < .05$. ** indicates $p < .01$.

A multiple linear regression was conducted to examine whether sexist attitudes held by

people would predict the perceived negative emotion of a female caregiver. Four types of

sexist attitudes and personal factors were entered into a simultaneous regression model. For

female participants, the overall regression was significant, $R^2 = .14$, $F(4, 68) = 2.74$, $p = .036$.

For male participants, , the overall regression was significant, $R^2 = .47$, $F(4, 54) = 11.98$, p

$< .001$. HS marginally positively predict negative emotion of female caregiver, $p = .05$. HM

marginally positively predict negative emotion of female caregiver, $p = .08$. BM negatively

predicted negative emotion of female caregiver, $p < .001$, $t = -3.79$ (see Table 53).

Table 53

The Result of Multiple Linear Regression Analysis for the Prediction of Sexist Attitudes on

Perceived Negative Emotion of Female Caregiver by Gender

	Predictor	b	b 95% CI [LL, UL]	beta	beta 95% CI [LL, UL]	sr^2	sr^2 95% CI [LL, UL]	r	Fit
Female Participants	(Intercept)	3.38**	[2.10, 4.65]						
	HS	0.15	[-0.19, 0.49]	0.13	[-0.16, 0.43]	.01	[-.03, .05]	.02	
	BS	-0.29	[-0.77, 0.18]	-0.28	[-0.74, 0.18]	.02	[-.04, .08]	-.33**	
	HM	0.12	[-0.14, 0.37]	0.12	[-0.13, 0.36]	.01	[-.03, .06]	.11	
	BM	-0.10	[-0.58, 0.38]	-0.11	[-0.63, 0.41]	.00	[-.02, .02]	-.28*	
									R^2 = .139* 95% CI[.00,.25]
Male Participants	(Intercept)	2.36**	[1.29, 3.43]						
	HS	0.27†	[-0.01, 0.56]	0.28	[-0.01, 0.58]	.04	[-.03, .11]	.34**	
	BS	0.43	[-0.16, 1.01]	0.37	[-0.14, 0.87]	.02	[-.03, .07]	-.32*	
	HM	0.31†	[-0.02, 0.64]	0.28	[-0.02, 0.59]	.04	[-.03, .10]	.34**	
	BM	-0.90**	[-1.38, -0.43]	-0.89	[-1.35, -0.42]	.14	[.01, .28]	-.44**	
									R^2 = .470*** 95% CI[.23,.58]

Note. A significant *b*-weight indicates the beta-weight and semi-partial correlation are also significant. *b* represents unstandardized regression weights. *beta* indicates the standardized regression weights. *sr²* represents the semi-partial correlation squared. *r* represents the zero-order correlation. *LL* and *U*ely.

† indicates $p < .1$. * Indicates $p < .05$. ** indicates $p < .01$.

Table 54

The Result of Multiple Linear Regression Analysis for the Prediction of Sexist Attitudes on

Perceived Negative Emotion of Male Caregiver by Gender

	Predictor	b	b 95% CI [LL, UL]	beta	beta 95% CI [LL, UL]	sr^2	sr^2 95% CI [LL, UL]	r	Fit
Female Participants	(Intercept)	3.07**	[1.50, 4.65]						
	HS	0.04	[-0.27, 0.35]	0.04	[-0.22, 0.29]	.00	[-.01, .01]	.05	
	BS	0.10	[-0.47, 0.68]	0.08	[-0.39, 0.55]	.00	[-.02, .02]	.21	
	HM	-0.29†	[-0.61, 0.04]	-0.22	[-0.47, 0.03]	.04	[-.04, .13]	-.20	
	BM	0.15	[-0.30, 0.60]	0.16	[-0.32, 0.65]	.01	[-.03, .04]	.25*	
									R^2 = .104 95% CI[.00,.21]
Male Participants	(Intercept)	0.74	[-1.15, 2.64]						
	HS	0.32*	[0.01, 0.63]	0.28	[0.01, 0.56]	.06	[-.04, .16]	.38**	
	BS	0.01	[-0.70, 0.73]	0.01	[-0.41, 0.42]	.00	[-.00, .00]	-.10	
	HM	0.37*	[0.01, 0.72]	0.27	[0.01, 0.53]	.06	[-.04, .16]	.37**	
	BM	-0.15	[-0.68, 0.38]	-0.11	[-0.51, 0.29]	.00	[-.02, .03]	-.08	
									R^2 = .215** 95% CI[.02,.34]

Note. A significant *b*-weight indicates the beta-weight and semi-partial correlation are also significant. *b* represents unstandardized regression weights. *beta* indicates the standardized regression weights. *sr²* represents the semi-partial correlation squared. *r* represents the zero-order correlation. *LL* and *U*ely.

† indicates $p < .1$. * Indicates $p < .05$. ** indicates $p < .01$.

A multiple linear regression was conducted to examine whether sexist attitudes held by people would predict the perceived negative emotion of a male caregiver. Four types of sexist attitudes and personal factors were entered into a simultaneous regression model. For female participants, the overall regression was not statistically significant, $R^2 = .12$, $F(4, 69) = 2.01$, $p = .10$. Only HM marginally negatively predict negative emotion of male caregiver, $B = -0.29$, $SE = 0.16$, $\beta = -0.28$, $t = -1.76$, $p = .08$. For male participants, the overall regression was significant, $R^2 = .215$, $F(4, 59) = 4.04$, $p = .006$. Both HS ($p = .043$) and HM ($p = .043$) positively predicted perceived negative emotion of male caregiver (see Table 54).

Figure 17

Prediction of Ambivalent Attitudes on the Perceptions of Female Breadwinner By Female Participants

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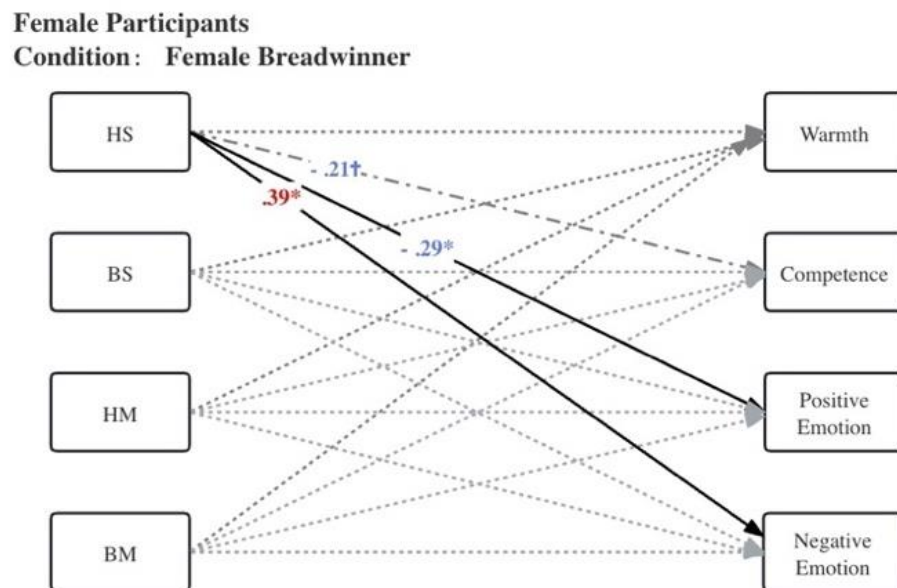
Figure 18

Prediction of Ambivalent Attitudes on the Perceptions of Male Breadwinner By Female
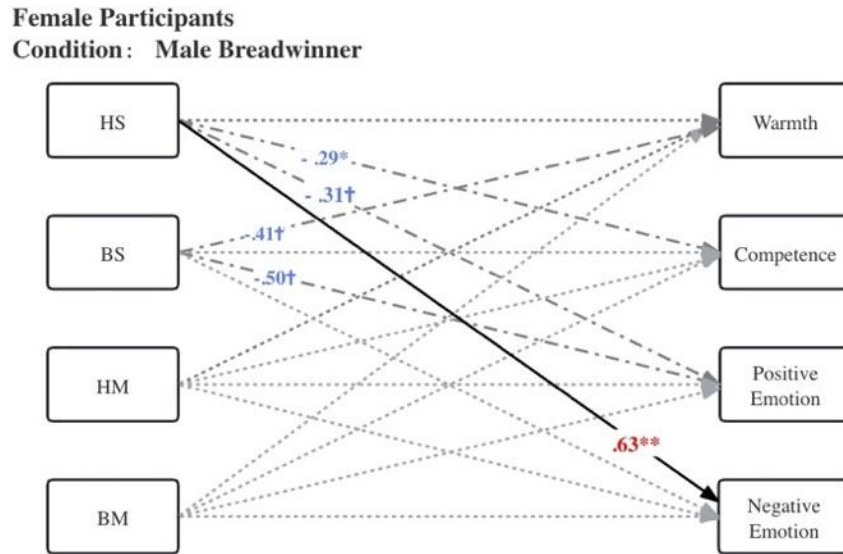
Participants

Figure 19

Prediction of Ambivalent Attitudes on the Perceptions of Female Caregiver by Female
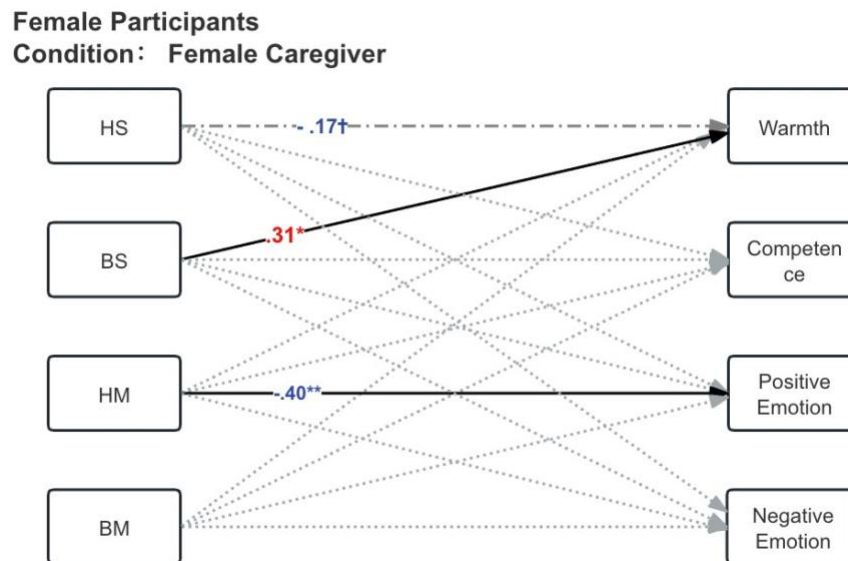
Participants

Figure 20

Prediction of Ambivalent Attitudes on the Perceptions of Male Caregiver by Female
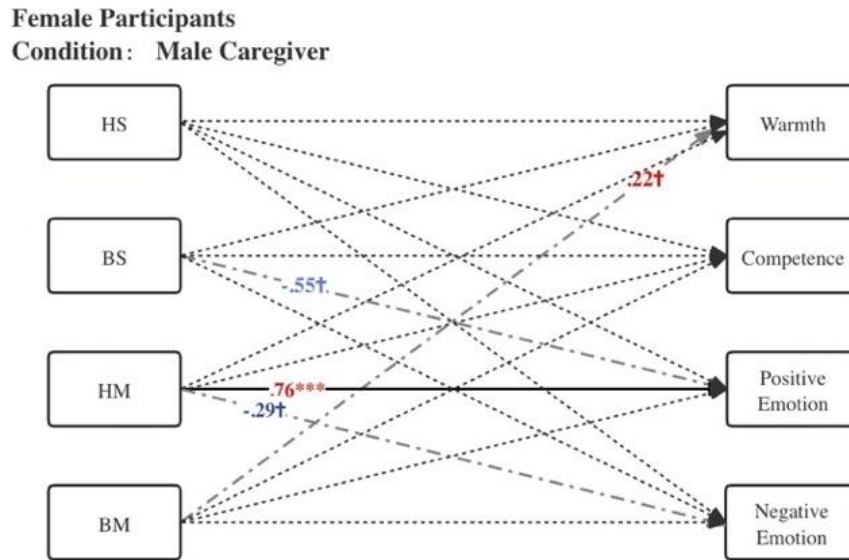
Participants

Figure 21

Prediction of Ambivalent Attitudes on the Perceptions of Female Breadwinner By Male

Participants

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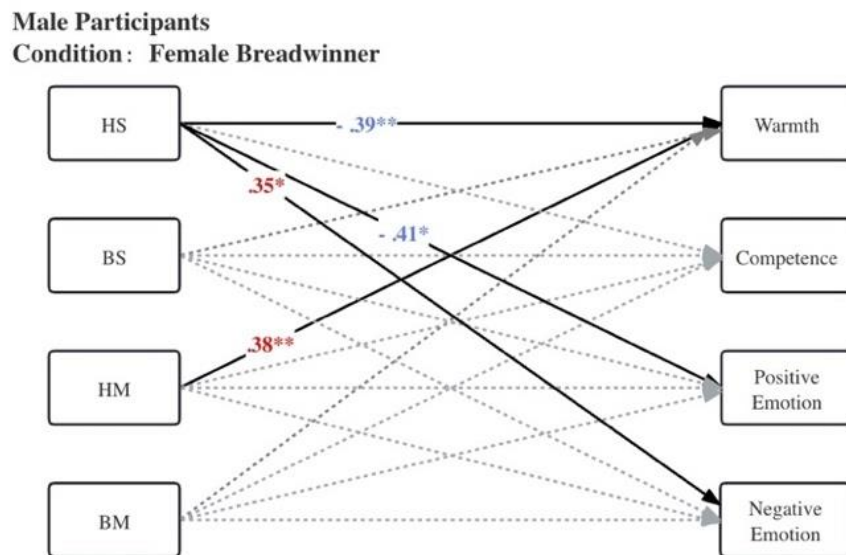
Figure 22

Prediction of Ambivalent Attitudes on the Perceptions of Male Breadwinner By Male
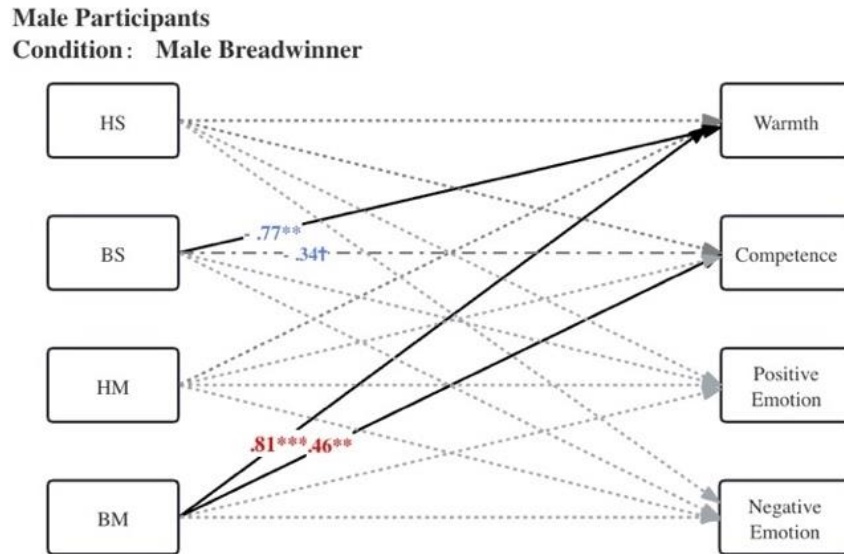
Participants

Figure 23

Prediction of Ambivalent Attitudes on the Perceptions of Female Caregiver By Male
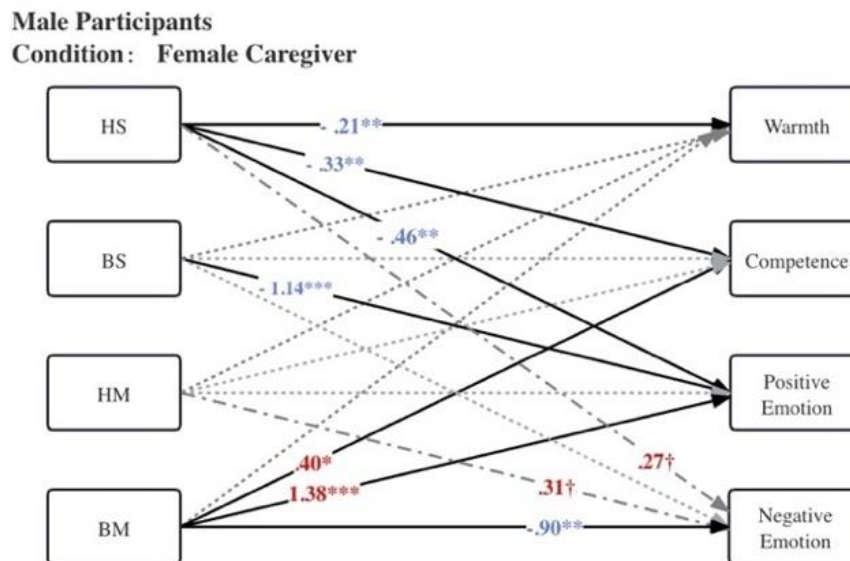
Participants

Figure 23

Prediction of Ambivalent Attitudes on the Perceptions of Male Caregiver By Male
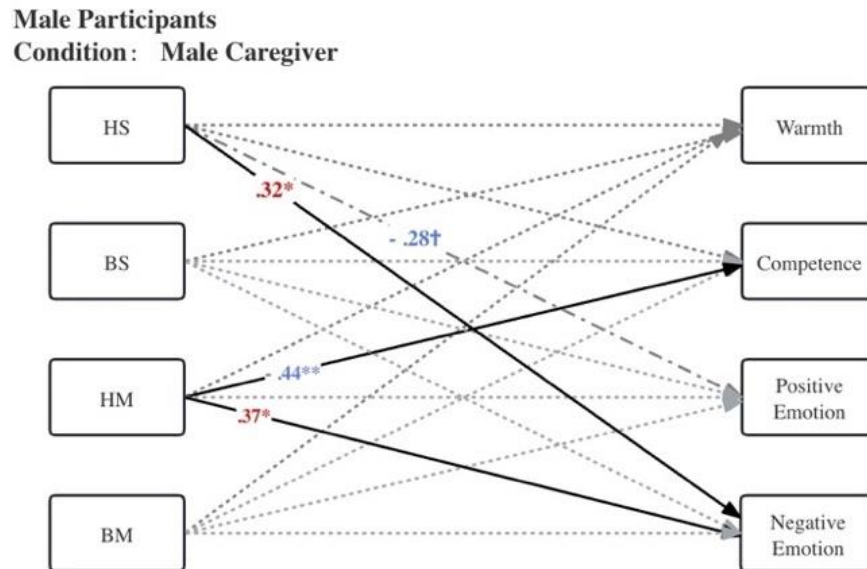
Participants

5.5.13 Effects of Gender Roles and Participants' Gender on Perceived Warmth

A two-factor analysis of variance was conducted to evaluate the effects of gender role and gender of participant on warmth perception. The two independent variables in this study are gender role and gender of participant. The dependent variable is perception of warmth, with higher score indicating more warmth. The general pattern of participants' perception of warmth score was examined by operating 4 X 2, gender role (female breadwinner, male breadwinner, female caregiver, male caregiver) X gender of participant (female and male). The means and standard deviations of warmth by participant gender and gender roles are presented in Table 55.

Table 55

Means and Standard Deviation of Warmth by Participant Gender and Gender Roles

	Female Breadwinner			Female Caregiver			Male Breadwinner			Male Caregiver		
	M	*SD*	N	*M*	*SD*	N	*M*	*SD*	N	*M*	*SD*	N
Female Participant	3.40	0.51	70	4.00	0.47	73	2.58	0.70	73	4.01	0.45	74
Male Participant	3.23	0.72	53	4.16	0.38	59	3.23	0.74	57	4.14	0.40	64

The results of two-way ANOVA revealed that, there is a significant main effect of gender role $F(3, 515) = 104.41$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .44$, a significant main effect of the participant gender $F(1, 515) = 9.35$, $p < .01$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$, and a significant interaction between gender role and participant gender, $F(3, 515) = 9.85$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .07$.

Simple Main Effect In the female breadwinner domain, the warmth score rated by female participants was marginally significantly higher than the warmth score rated by male participant ($p = .07$). In the male breadwinner domain, the warmth score rated by female participants was significantly lower than warmth score rated by male participant, $p < .001$. There is no significant gender difference in female caregiver domain and male caregiver domain (See Figure 25).

For male participants, warmth perception of male breadwinner was significantly less than warmth perception of both female caregiver ($p < .001$) and male caregiver ($p < .001$). The warmth perception of female breadwinner was significantly less than the warmth perception of both female caregivers, ($p < .001$) and male caregiver, ($p < .001$). There is no difference between the warmth score of female breadwinner and male breadwinner, $p = .99$. There is also no difference of the warmth score between female caregiver and male caregiver, $p = .99$.

Figure 24

Warmth Scores Performed by Participant Gender and Gender Roles

For female participants, the warmth perception score of male breadwinners was significantly less than female breadwinner ($p < .001$), female caregiver ($p < .001$) and male caregiver ($p < .001$). the warmth perception score of female breadwinners was also significantly less than both female caregiver ($p < .001$) and male caregiver ($p < .001$). There is no statistical difference of the warmth score between female caregiver and male caregiver, $p = .99$.

5.4.13 Effects of Gender Roles and Participants' Gender on Perceived Competence

A two-factor analysis of variance was conducted to evaluate the effects of gender role and gender of participant on competent perception. The two independent variables in this study are gender role and gender of participant. The dependent variable is perception of competence, with higher score indicating higher competence. The general pattern of participants' perception of competence score was examined by operating 4 X 2, gender role

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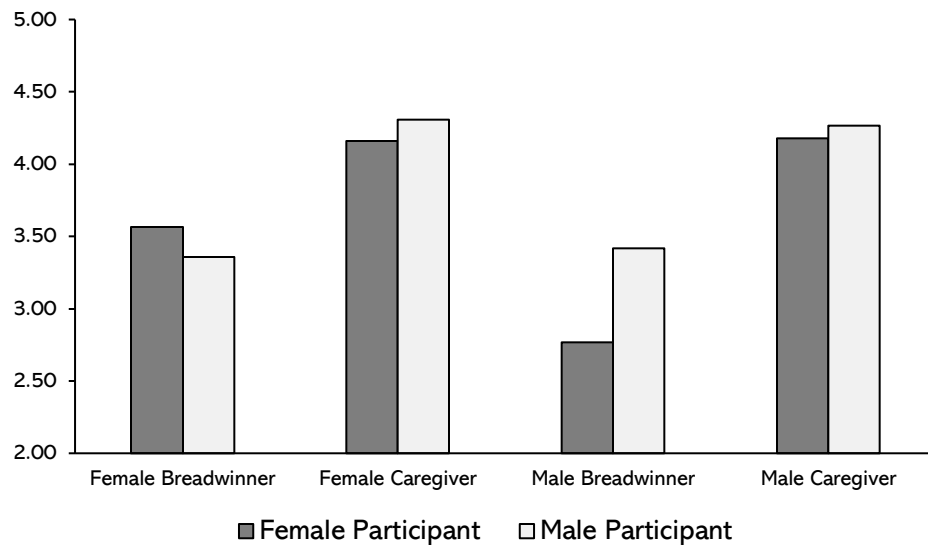(female breadwinner, male breadwinner, female caregiver, male caregiver) X gender of participant (female and male).

The results of two-way ANOVA revealed that, there is a significant main effect of gender role $F(3, 515) = 23.70$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .15$. The main effect of the participant gender ($F(1, 515) = 0.18$, $p = .68$, $\eta_p^2 < .01$) and the interaction between gender role and participant gender ($F(3, 515) = 1.98$, $p = .12$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$) were not significant

Table 56

Means and Standard Deviation of Competence by Participant Gender and Gender Roles

	Female Breadwinner			Female Caregiver			Male Breadwinner			Male Caregiver		
	M	*SD*	N	*M*	*SD*	N	*M*	*SD*	N	*M*	*SD*	N
Female Participant	4.34	0.49	70	3.63	0.56	73	3.83	0.58	74	3.61	0.66	62
Male Participant	4.18	0.60	53	3.89	0.61	59	4.06	0.53	64	3.46	0.82	48

Simple Main Effects There is no significant gender differences in all domains of gender roles for competent perception scores.

For female participant, competent perception score of female breadwinners was significantly higher than the competent perception scores of female caregiver ($p < .001$), male breadwinner ($p < .01$), and male caregiver ($p < .001$). Female participant also rated lower competent score of male caregivers than male breadwinner ($p = .04$). There was no significant differences of the competent score between female caregiver and male breadwinner ($p = .47$), between female caregiver and male caregiver ($p = .99$).

Figure 25

Competence Scores Performed by Participant Gender and Gender Roles
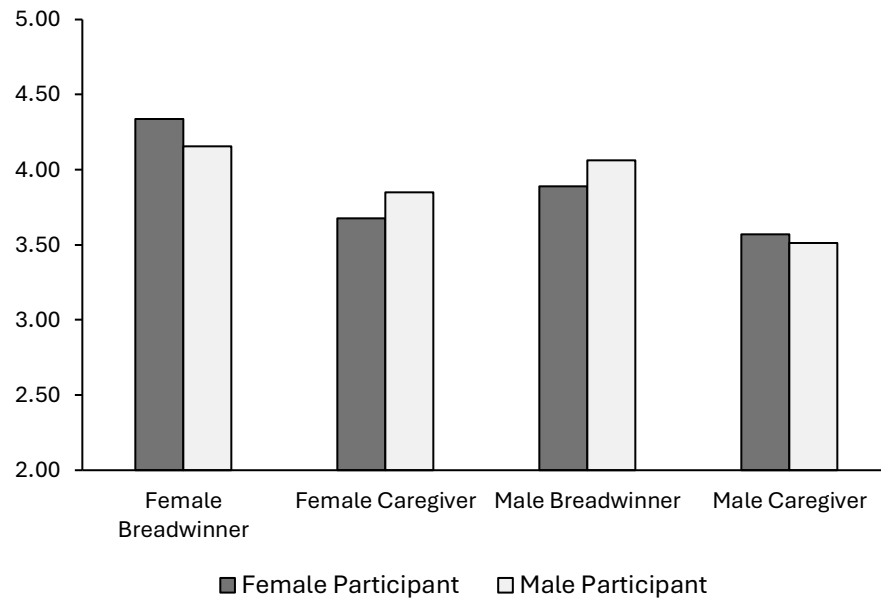
For male participant, competent perception score of male caregivers was significantly lower than the competent perception score of both female ($p < .001$) and male breadwinner ($p < .001$), and marginally lower than the competent perception score of female caregiver ($p < .05$). There is no significant difference of the competent perception scores between female breadwinner and female caregiver ($p = .11$), between male breadwinner and female breadwinner ($p = .99$), and between female caregiver and male breadwinner ($p = .62$).

5.5.14 Effects of Gender Roles and Participants' Gender on Perceived Positive Emotion

A two-factor analysis of variance was conducted to evaluate the effects of gender role and gender of participant on the perception of positive emotion. The two independent variables in this study are gender role and gender of participant. The dependent variable is the perception of positive emotion, with higher score indicating more positive emotion. The general pattern of participants' perception of positive emotion score was examined by

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operating 4 X 2, gender role (female breadwinner, male breadwinner, female caregiver, male caregiver) X gender of participant (female and male).

Table 57

Means and Standard Deviation of Positive Emotion by Participant Gender and Gender Roles

	Female Breadwinner			Female Caregiver			Male Breadwinner			Male Caregiver		
	M	*SD*	N	*M*	*SD*	N	*M*	*SD*	N	*M*	*SD*	N
Female Participant	4.05	0.64	70	2.87	0.74	73	3.57	0.82	73	3.82	0.95	74
Male Participant	3.30	0.90	53	3.63	0.93	59	3.65	0.87	57	3.72	0.99	64

The results of two-way ANOVA revealed that, there is a significant main effect of gender role $F (3, 515) = 7.11, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .05$, and a significant interaction between gender role and participant gender, $F (3, 515) = 12.79, p < .001, \eta_p^2 = .09$. The main effect of the participant gender was not significant, $F (1, 515) = 0.001, p = .97, \eta_p^2 < .01$.

Simple Main Effects Compared to male participants, female participants perceived more positive emotion toward female breadwinner, $p < .001$. In female caregiver domain, female participant perceived less positive emotion than male participants, $p < .001$. There is no significant gender difference in both male breadwinner ($p = .65$) domain and male caregiver ($p = .55$) domain.

For male participants, there was no significant difference of the positive emotion scores between each pair of the gender roles (female breadwinner & female caregiver, $p = .37$; female breadwinner & male breadwinner, $p = .29$; male breadwinner & male caregiver, $p = .99$; female caregiver & male caregiver, $p = .99$; female breadwinner & male caregiver, $p = .10$).

Figure 26

Positive Emotion Scores Performed by Participant Gender and Gender Roles
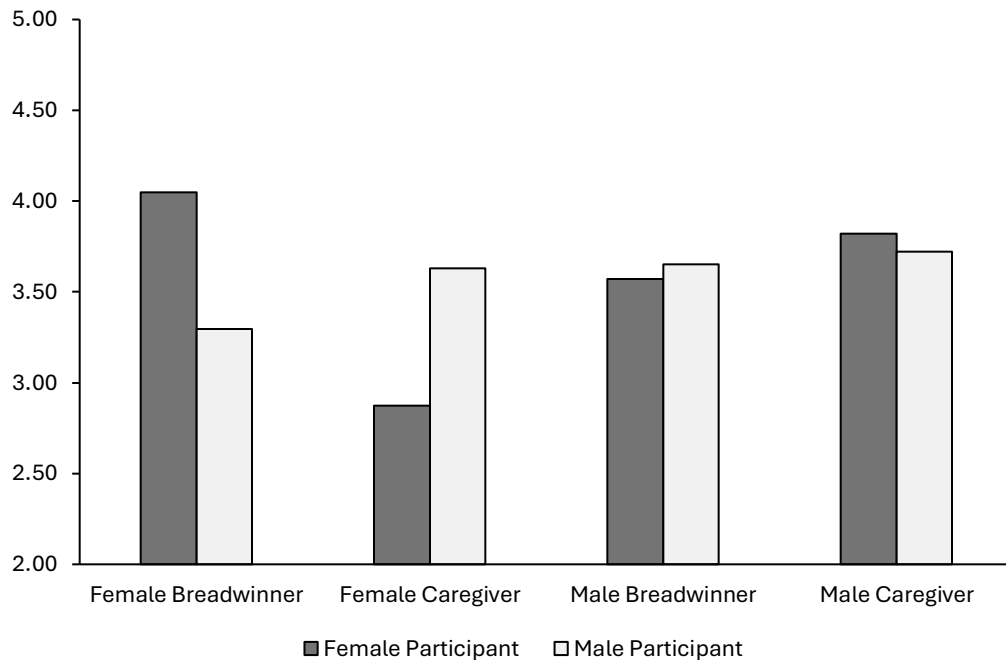
For female participants, they perceived female caregiver's positive emotions to be lower than those of the other three gender roles (female breadwinner, $p < .001$; male breadwinner, $p < .001$; male caregiver, $p < .001$). The score of perceived positive emotion toward male breadwinner was significantly less than female breadwinner, $p = .03$. There is no significant difference for the perceived positive emotions between female breadwinner and male caregiver ($p = .99$), no significant difference for the perceived positive emotions between male breadwinner and male caregiver ($p = .73$).

5.4.15. Effects of Gender Roles and Participants' Gender on Perceived Negative Emotion

A two-factor analysis of variance was conducted to evaluate the effects of gender role and gender of participant on the perception of negative emotion. The two independent variables in this study are gender role and gender of participant. The dependent variable is the perception of negative emotion, with higher score indicating more negative emotion. The

general pattern of participants' perception of negative emotion score was examined by operating 4 X 2, gender role (female breadwinner, male breadwinner, female caregiver, male caregiver) X gender of participant (female and male).

The results of two-way ANOVA revealed that, there is a significant interaction between participant gender and gender role $F(3, 515) = 5.07$, $p < .01$, $\eta_p^2 = .04$. The main effect of participant gender ($F(1, 515) = 0.47$, $p = .50$, $\eta_p^2 = .001$) and gender role ($F(3, 515) = 2.03$, $p = .11$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$) were not significant.

Table 58

Means and Standard Deviation of Negative Emotion by Participant Gender and Gender Roles

	Female Breadwinner			Female Caregiver			Male Breadwinner			Male Caregiver		
	M	*SD*	N	*M*	*SD*	N	*M*	*SD*	N	*M*	*SD*	N
Female Participant	2.81	0.90	70	3.01	0.76	73	2.63	0.91	73	2.66	0.80	74
Male Participant	2.95	0.91	53	2.42	0.89	59	3.04	0.90	57	2.59	1.00	64

Simple Main Effects Compared to male participant, female participant perceived more negative emotion toward female caregiver, $p < .001$. In male breadwinner domain, female participants perceived marginally less negative emotion than male participant, $p = .06$. There is no gender difference in both female breadwinner domain ($p = .59$) and male caregiver domain ($p = .66$).

For male participants, they perceived female caregiver's negative emotions to be less than those of male breadwinner, $p = .04$, female breadwinner, $p = .04$. There is no significant difference of perceived negative emotions in the remaining combinations.

Figure 27

Negative Emotion Scores Performed by Participant Gender and Gender Roles
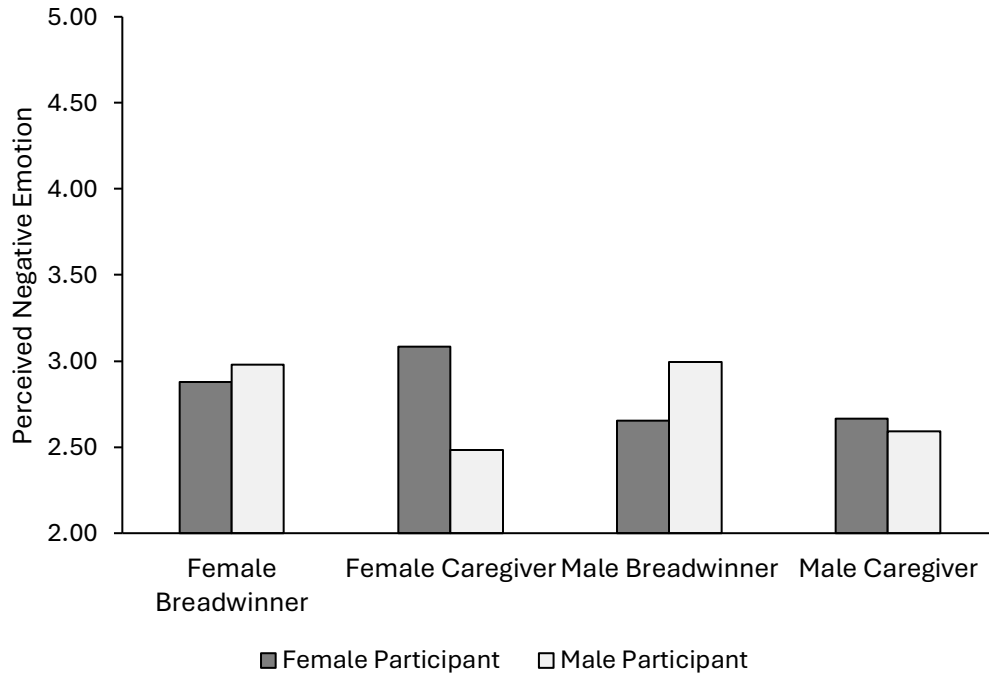
For female participants, perceived negative emotions of female caregiver was marginally less than those of male breadwinner ($p = .07$) and those of male caregiver ($p = .07$). There is no significant difference o perceived negative emotions in the remaining combinations.

5.6 Discussion

The present study was conducted with the aim of investigating the impact of ambivalent sexist attitudes on individuals' perceptions of men and women who deviate from traditional gender roles. The study employed hypothetical scenarios that depicted the daily lives of male and female individuals, with the intention of mitigating the stereotypical nature of abstract category labels such as "homemakers" and "career women" when examining participants' perceptions. Additionally, this study measured the gender attitudes held by

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contemporary Chinese college students, examined the differences in ambivalent sexism between males and females, and analyzed variations in the four types of sexism for both genders. Based on previous research on ambivalent sexism and ambivalence toward men within various national cultural contexts, it was posited that female participants perform lower HS and BM scores and higher BS and HM scores than male participants. Individuals have higher BS scores than HS scores. Female participants perform higher HM scores than BM scores, while male participants perform higher BM scores than HM scores.

Drawing on the tenets of ambivalent sexism theory, it was posited that individuals who exhibit hostile sexist attitudes would hold more negative perceptions on a female breadwinner, while those who exhibit benevolent sexist attitudes would hold more positive perceptions of a female caregiver. Additionally, it was hypothesized that individuals who endorse hostile attitudes toward men would react more negatively to a traditional male breadwinner and more positively to a nontraditional male caregiver. Finally, individuals who endorse benevolent attitudes toward men were expected to react more positively to a male breadwinner and more negatively to a male caregiver.

5.6.1 Gender Differences in HS and BS (Hypotheses 1 and 3)

The results of mixed measure two-way ANOVA showed significant main effects of gender and sexism, and significant interaction effect. The examination of simple main effects indicated that women had lower hostile sexism (HS) scores than men, which supported Hypothesis 1. However, women also had lower benevolent sexism (BS) scores, which did not support Hypothesis 1. The results also examined that both female and male participants performed higher BS scores than HS scores, supporting Hypothesis 3. Combined with the results of Study 1, the observation that benevolent sexism (BS) is less likely to be recognized as prejudice compared to hostile sexism (HS) contributes to participants exhibiting stronger

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BS. For highly educated university students, both female and male are more sensitive to overt hostile discrimination, and their perceptions make them more inclined to reject HS.

Moreover, according to Fiske & Glick's (2000) cross-cultural study of the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (ASI), it was found that the higher the men's endorsement of HS and BS, the stronger the women's rejection of HS relative to the men. These opposing relationships suggest that in more sexist cultures, women are more likely to accept BS and reject HS relative to men. This is because in more sexist cultures, women experience greater disempowerment, and thus are more inclined to recognize the ostensible benefits of BS as a means to compensate for their disempowerment.

Additionally, this study showed that both men and women had higher BS scores, with women's BS scores being higher than men's in countries with lower gender equality indices such as Cuba, Nigeria, South Africa, and Botswana. In countries with higher gender equality indices, both men and women have relatively low BS scores, with women's BS either being lower than men's or showing no gender difference. China, which is considered to have a low gender equality index, does not exhibit similar results. On the contrary, Chinese females have lower BS scores than males, differing from findings in Korea and Japan, which share a Confucian cultural background. It is not difficult to consider Chinese cultural policies such as the unique socialist reform and opening-up in China have had a significant impact on shaping Chinese women's gender consciousness.

Furthermore, although Kumar (2023) has confirmed that social media and self-media have some negative impacts on sexism, feminism, and the self-perception of young girls (e.g., appearance anxiety, decreased self-perception), over the last decade, the development of self-media and social media in China has empowered many ordinary girls with the ability to express their ideologies online. This has undoubtedly accelerated discussions on feminist

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thinking, including widespread debates on traditional concepts. As a result, in contemporary Chinese internet culture, the topic of feminism has become highly popular, accelerating the dissemination of progressive concepts.

5.6.2 Gender Differences in HM and BM (Hypotheses 2 and 4)

The results of mixed measure two-way ANOVA showed significant main effects of gender and sexism, and significant interaction effect. The examination of simple main effects indicated that women had lower benevolence toward men (BM) and higher hostility toward men (HS) than male participants, which supported Hypothesis 2. Additionally, the results also examined that female performed more HM scores than BM scores, while male participants performed higher BM scores than HM scores, supporting Hypothesis 4.

In cross-cultural studies of the Ambivalence Toward Men Inventory, researchers have observed that in certain countries where men exhibit higher levels of hostile sexism (HS), women show greater support for hostility toward men (HM) (Fiske & Glick, 1999; Fiske & Glick, 2000). The higher the hostility of men towards women, the greater the resentment and antipathy of women towards men. HM can also be linked to the "misandry" trend prevalent in contemporary Chinese online society. Misandry has become a frequently discussed term on the internet, often arising from resentment of male power and fear of pervasive sexual violence. Feminists interpret misandry as a defense mechanism, a form of rebellion born from prolonged victimization by patriarchal structures. Unlike misogyny, which represents disdain and aggression towards women, misogyny reflects rebellion and opposition to male dominance. In comparative analyses, Chinese women's BM scores are lower than men's benevolent sexism (BS) scores. This indicates that men express more benevolence towards women, while women do not reciprocate this favor as strongly. This asymmetry aligns with the functions of BS and BM. Supporting BS generally benefits men as it both appeases women

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and reinforces male dominance simultaneously (Jackman, 1994; Jost & Kay, 2002). Conversely, women have less incentive to support BM because it only serves to reinforce their lower societal status. This disparity may also elucidate why Chinese men are more supportive of both BM and BS than women. While BS is appealing to many women because it conveys positive descriptions and perceptions of women, supporting BS ultimately incurs a cost for women, whereas men do not face similar repercussions for endorsing BM. Although BS flatters women in certain respects (e.g., by suggesting they possess qualities of purity that men lack), it also confines women to lower-status roles. In contrast, BM supports men's suitability for high-status roles outside the home (e.g., by promoting the idea that they should have few domestic responsibilities), thereby reinforcing male authority and status in the household.

5.6.3 Effects of Ambivalent Sexism on the Perceptions of the 4 Gender Roles (Hypotheses 5)

Generally, the results of the multiple regression analysis of all participants supported the hypothesis 1, HS is related to negative perceptions of a female breadwinner. Consistent with previous research (Glick & Fiske, 1996; Glick et ac., 2004) on abstract category labels, high levels of hostile sexism were associated with more negative perceptions of a woman who is the main breadwinner in a marriage where her partner is the primary caregiver. Subsequent examination indicated that this association was solely evident when the predicted factors were positive and negative emotion among both male and female participants. As the HS increased, both female and male participants perceived that the female breadwinner would experience more frustrating indebtedness to her family, notwithstanding her professional competence in navigating her field of expertise. Additionally, as more HS the participants performed, they perceived female breadwinner would have less feelings of happiness, fulfillment, and self-actualization. However, the hostile sexist attitude of female participants did not predict

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perceived warmth of female breadwinners, while the hostile sexist attitude of male participants did not serve as a predictor for perceived competence of female breadwinners.

Unexpected results were found regarding the relationship between hostile sexism and perceptions of a woman who is the primary caregiver. In partial contrast to previous research (Glick et ac., 2004), not only on female breadwinner, but HS also predicted negative perceptions on female caregiver. Additionally, HS held by female participants only marginally negatively predicted perceived warmth of female caregiver, while HS held by male participants marginally positively predicted negative emotion, and significantly negatively predicted warmth, competence, and positive emotion. The results of the subsequent regression analysis showed that men's hostile sexism is more influential on perceived traditional and non-traditional female gender roles than women's hostile sexism. Hostile sexism not only penalizes non-traditional women but also embodies a misogynistic attitude towards the traditional female role of the housewife among male participants.

The period of reform and opening up from the 1970s marked a significant shift towards women's economic independence, with many women engaging in professional work. As early as 1990, the female labor participation rate in China had already reached 78.8%, and women who have established their own professional careers are not relegated to the periphery of social agency. However, as mentioned before, despite the rapid economic progress made during the reform period, there has been a lack of equal distribution of these gains in China. In fact, the economic reforms have reinforced gender inequality, which is rooted in a sociobiological understanding of gender differences that has persisted since the early years of the People's Republic of China (Johnson 1976). The Mao era attempted to address gender roles that were deeply patriarchal during the preceding imperial dynasties, which were characterized by practices such as foot-binding and concubinage that restricted women's mobility and sexual

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freedom. Although the slogan "Women can hold up half the sky" from this era is often cited as evidence of its emancipatory ideals, scholars have demonstrated that this largely involved women more fully in socialist labor production while still maintaining gender imbalances in terms of domestic labor burdens and access to positions of power that favored the male elite of the Chinese Communist Party (Pimentel, 2006). Despite women's engagement in professional endeavors outside the home and attainment of financial independence, there is no corresponding reduction in the time allocated to household chores. Instead, this scenario often fosters a sense of guilt among career-oriented women who perceive their financial contributions to the family as inadequate, leading them to assume a greater burden of domestic responsibilities (Hu & Kama, 2007). This suggests that women who command higher salaries may be required to allocate additional time to domestic labor as a form of compensation for deviating from traditional gender roles (Lu et al., 2000). Against this kind of background, in recent years, Chinese society has promoted a new era of women's role, characterized by the ability to balance family and career responsibilities (Yang, 2005). This societal transformation gave rise to a new idealized image of womanhood: the "good women" capable of seamlessly navigating between professional success and domestic responsibilities, including child-rearing and household management (Tang, 2009). Influenced by prevailing examples, media representations, and societal aspirations, a new archetype has emerged in modern China: the professional woman who embodies traditional feminine qualities, supplanting the housewife as the epitome of the "good woman". Consequently, societal expectations of a good woman have expanded beyond the traditional rales of wife and mother. Specifically, numerous esteemed female executives in China take pride in acknowledging their dual accomplishments within their professional careers and familial responsibilities. They often regard the harmony

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and happiness of their family life as a reflection and metric of their vocational achievements (Aryee at el., 1999).

Hostile sexism punishes "bad" women, which means hostile sexism is directed at women who do not play their part (Schaffiner, 2021; Swim et al., 1995). Considering the aforementioned observation that the perception and definition of a "good woman" have evolved due to cultural shifts over the past four to five decades, it is evident that both roles — housewives, now a rarity in China, and professional women who solely concentrate on their careers —have been classified within the category of non-traditional "bad" women. Hostile sexism (HS) was found to negatively influence perceptions of female caregiver exclusively among male participants. Consequently, it is posited that HS shapes male participants' conceptualization of a traditional woman. However, empirical validation of this deduction necessitates further rigorous research and nuanced measurement.

An alternative explanation has also been proposed. Individuals harboring pronounced sexist attitudes are predisposed to perpetuating power dynamics within family relationships under patriarchal frameworks, suggesting that those exhibiting HS favor and seek to sustain male dominance and authority within the household (Chen et al., 2009). In contemporary society, such an imbalance of power within familial structures frequently precipitates behaviors that stigmatize housewives and trivialize roles associated with childcare and family care, thereby diminishing the perceived value of contributions made by housewives. Consequently, this framework elucidates the adverse perceptions of housewives associated with HS among male participants.

Moreover, the resentment felt by male breadwinners towards housewives also cannot be ignored. Many men express dissatisfaction with their wives' roles as homemakers (Orgad, 2019). In interviews conducted by Professor Orgad (2019), numerous men voiced significant

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resentment towards the "man as breadwinner/woman as homemaker" paradigm. Their persistent sarcasm indicates a deep-seated discontent among husbands regarding the perceived ease of their wives' domestic roles. These emotions of anger and resentment are, at least in part, attributable to the pressures of highly stressful and demanding jobs. Additionally, these feelings are compounded by the anxiety of shouldering the responsibility of supporting a family single-handedly, despite benefiting from the gendered division of labor, particularly in terms of career advancement. Male participants are more likely to empathize with the position of the male breadwinner, and negative perceptions of female caregiver increased under the influence of increased HS.

Contemporary Chinese societal ideal of taking balancing work and family life imposes a blanket burden on women, regardless of their adherence to traditional or non-traditional roles. Failure to conform to this standard results in the stigmatization of any female role that deviates from the contemporary archetype of the ideal woman, who is expected to adeptly balance professional pursuits with familial obligations. Notably, our analysis reveals that among female participants, hostile sexism did not engender negative perceptions of the female caregiver role. Thus, the phenomenon of hostile sexism serving as a punitive force against both traditional and non-traditional female roles was predominantly observed among male participants, underscoring the gendered nature of societal expectations and stigmatization.

Male participants have expressed negative attitudes towards the housewife, as she is perceived as lacking a formal job and therefore incapable of successfully managing both family and work obligations. The absence of a financial income further contributes to negative perceptions from men, while women do not share the same negative views. This discrepancy may be attributed to differing perceptions of money between men and women. Lynn (1991) investigated sex differences in money beliefs on a very short four item scale in groups of

around 300 students from 20 countries and showed a general trend for males to attach more value to money than females. Men are more competitive with money associating it with freedom and power while women feel more needy and vulnerable and therefore associate it with security and love (Mumford & Weeks, 2003).

On the other hand, the influence of benevolent sexism (BS) on perceptions of female breadwinners and female caregivers was found to be minimal, with a marginal positive effect observed specifically regarding perceived warmth in the context of female caregiving. Futher analysis showed that hypothesis 2 exhibited a limited degree of support among female participants. Conversely, not only was Hypothesis 2 unsupported among male participants, but the multiple regression analysis yielded results contradicting its premise. For female participants, BS positively predicted perceived warmth of female caregiver, consistent with previous research (Glick & Fiske, 1996;.Becker, 2010). However, contrary to findings from prior research conducted by Glick and Fiske (1996), the BS of male participants were inversely associated with the perceived positive emotion attributed to female caregivers, which means that as the BS of male participants increases, their perceptions of female caregiver's happiness and satisfactions decrease. Gaunt (2013) explained that this discrepancy may be attributed to the fact that the traditional woman in this study was described as engaging in limited paid work while also taking care of children. Participants with benevolent sexist attitudes may have categorized the female target as a traditional woman because her caregiving responsibilities, while those with hostile sexist attitudes may have categorized her as a nontraditional woman due to her part-time job. Notwithstanding, we are of the opinion that this rationale lacks persuasiveness within the context of China because of the different results found in female and male participants. The adverse impact of men's benevolent sexism (BS) on female caregivers can be elucidated as follows. The findings of Study 1 indicate that

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men and women interpret benevolent sexism (BS) differently, with men have the tendency that perceive BS as discriminatory against men. Consequently, men's low BS scores do not necessarily reflect a more egalitarian gender consciousness but may instead result from resistance due to perceived discrimination. The complexity of men's perceptions of BS contributes to discrepancies between the findings of this study and those of previous research. Additional factors must be considered to refine the path analysis model of BS.

We posit that, akin to the mechanisms underlying the detrimental effects of hostile sexism (HS) on the perception of female caregivers, the financial constraints faced by female caregivers, particularly in terms of earning insufficient economic income, may engender a heightened sense of economic pressure among male participants. Conversely, female participants are likely to exhibit greater empathy towards women and possess a deeper understanding of the arduous labor and sacrifices undertaken by homemakers for their families, relative to their male counterparts. Consequently, they are more inclined to hold a somehow positive view of homemakers. Furthermore, women's benevolent sexism (BS) may interpret female caregiver as a selfless act of devotion and dedication grounded in love for one's spouse and children, further reinforcing their positive perception of female caregivers.

5.6.4 Effects of Ambivalence Toward Men on the Perceptions of the 4 Gender Roles (Hypotheses 6 and 7)

Although the predictions derived from ambivalent sexism theory regarding perceptions of men in various roles are less straightforward, according to the theory, both hostile and benevolent attitudes predict responses to the traditional male breadwinner (Glick & Fiske, 1999). Hypotheses 3 and 4 were partially supported in our analysis. The overall findings demonstrated a degree of consistency with the assumptions concerning the male breadwinner role, as perceptions of male breadwinners were negatively influenced by hostile sexism (HM)

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and positively influenced by benevolent sexism (BM). This phenomenon can be attributed to benevolent attitudes toward men being construed as admiration for the traditional male provider role, while hostile attitudes are perceived as a manifestation of resentment toward patriarchal power dynamics and perceived aggressiveness.

Further examination of the data revealed that neither HM nor BM among female participants significantly influenced perceptions of male breadwinners. In contrast, male participants' BM positively predicted perceptions of warmth and competence regarding male breadwinners. However, the results were inconsistent among male participants, whereas female participants' responses were consistent with the assumptions regarding the male caregiver role.

Contrary to expectations, male participants' HM exhibited a positive correlation with perceived negative emotions and a negative association with perceived competence in the male caregiver role. Conversely, female participants' HM positively predicted perceived positive emotions and negatively impacted negative emotions. This finding suggests that female participants with stronger hostile attitudes toward men viewed nontraditional male caregivers more favorably, aligning with our hypotheses and Glick and Fiske's (1999) concept of hostility as an expression of discontent toward patriarchal societal norms. Moreover, HM could be associated with perceptions favoring social change. It is noteworthy that male participants may find the concept of a male caregiver engaged in "female work" particularly challenging.

Women's benevolent sexism (BS) exerts a stronger influence on their perception of male breadwinner and caregiver compared to the impact of benevolence toward men (BM). Conversely, men's BM plays a more significant role in shaping their views on female breadwinner and caregiver. Furthermore, it is evident that both hostile sexism (HS) and

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benevolent sexism (BS) not only impact female participants but also significantly influence male participants' perceptions of gender roles.

The phenomenon that hostile views toward both female and male breadwinner can be viewed through the lens of professional engagement, where individuals who prioritize their professional endeavors over familial responsibilities, irrespective of gender, are perceived by participants as lacking warmth. Additionally, this dynamic can lead to negative repercussions in the workplace.

Regarding competence, male participants' hostile sexism (HM) was found to negatively affect perceptions of male caregivers' competence. This can be attributed to societal stereotypes that portray men in a negative light yet recognize that this negativity does not diminish their perceived competency. For instance, in Chinese culture, a man who is not assertive enough may be viewed as lacking masculinity (Louie, 2009), while a woman who is too gentle may not be considered capable of handling significant responsibilities. Therefore, anti-traditional roles for men may be associated with a lack of perceived competence, despite exhibiting positive traits in other areas (Zhang, 2022).

The underlying sexist rationale here is that men are granted leniency in their behavior; their shortcomings may not be perceived as inherently negative, and in some cases, may even be viewed positively. This perspective ultimately shapes perceptions of competence.

5.6.5 Gender Differences in Perceptions of 4 Types of Gender Roles (Hypotheses 8)

An interesting finding of two-way ANOVA was the gender differences in perceived positive and negative emotions of female caregiver. Male participants evaluated a higher positive emotion score on female caregivers and lower negative emotion score of male caregivers than the scores evaluated by female participants. Hypothesis 8 was partially

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supported. This finding indicates that Chinese men tend to hold more traditional ideologies regarding family dynamics and gender roles compared to Chinese women.

In addition to differences in perceptions of gender roles, we believe it is also important to consider the rise in anxiety about employment and work among university students in recent years due to intense competition. Combining traditional thinking commonly heard in Chinese culture, such as "men are obligated to provide for their families and earn a living, while women are expected to prioritize their physical appearance," or "men must exhibit strength and provide for their families, while women must embody virtue and educate their spouses and offspring," it becomes apparently that traditional male gender role generates stress and discontentment among men, while simultaneously constraining the gender roles and potential growth of women.

The gender differences of perception could be explained as, the perception of gender is subject to the influence of individuals' intrinsic interests. According to this theory, individuals will only support or endorse contemporary notions of gender equality if the benefits of doing so outweigh the costs. Feminists contend that women stand to gain from changes in gender equality perceptions, as evidenced by the increasing divorce rates and women's participation in the paid labor force. Women are more attuned to changes in gender inequality, and the greater the loss and threat to women of maintaining traditional perceptions, the more progressive their views on gender become. In contrast, most men still benefit from the traditional gender division of labor and are hesitant to embrace the concept of gender equality, resulting in more conservative gender perceptions among men compared to women.

5.6.6 AMI of Chinese Version

Complementing the existence of the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (ASI) is the Ambivalence Toward Men Inventory (AMI), where we have an ambivalent gender bias

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towards women while having an ambivalent dual attitude towards men. Study 3 reshaped the AMI scale due to socio-cultural differences arising from temporal context and cultural differences of different nations (Hu & Kama, 2007; Tang & Tang, 2001) . The results of the factor analysis also demonstrated the ambivalent attitudes toward men that are unique to the Chinese people. For example, the original HM "Men would be lost in this world if women weren't there to guide them" has been romanticized by the Chinese college students as a kindly attitude toward men, demonstrating women's tolerance and understanding of men. The original BM item "Men are more willing to take risks than women" is perceived as a hostile attitude in modern Chinese society, where young Chinese no longer see risk-taking as a good quality, but rather as a trait that can be harmful to health or finances.

Moreover, the phrase "men like babies when they are sick" is misleading because in Chinese culture, expressions such as "like a teenager, like a child" are sometimes embraced as accomplishments, signifying a generous spirit or an innocent heart. Consequently, since the comparison "like a child" fails to encapsulate the nuanced attitudes of Chinese people toward men, the content containing "like babies" was omitted to more accurately reflct these multifaceted perspectives.

Although sexism and ambivalence towards both sexes are phenomena that transcend cultural boundaries, distinct generational cohorts possess unique cultural heritages, and each country has its own distinct cultural evolutionary trajectory. As a result, these factors yield divergent manifestations of ambivalent attitudes. This study has reconceptualized the framework of the Ambivalence Toward Men Scale, incorporating temporal evolutions and the cultural dichotomies between Eastern and Western societies. This recalibration is critically pertinent, fostering deeper insight into the nature of gender biases and ambivalences, and is instrumental in augmenting the dissemination of gender equality awareness.

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The current investigation involves the revision of the Ambivalent Attitudes Towards Men Scale utilizing the Attitudes Toward Men Inventory (AMI) and the translation of the Chinese version. This development is indicative of advancement in China, where limited research has been conducted on AMI. This study provides a significant contribution to the comprehension of the implications of ambivalent gender attitudes among the Chinese population. However, its applicability is restricted due to the utilization of a sample consisting of highly educated university students in their twenties and early thirties. As gender attitudes are culturally embedded and linked to age and education, the generalizability of the outcomes to other populations is limited. Furthermore, the sample size is relatively small, which precludes a systematic examination of gender differences in perceptions of traditional and nontraditional targets. To overcome these limitations and enhance the validity of the current findings, it is recommended to replicate this study in other cultures and with larger samples.

Further research is necessary to explore these nuances and investigate how sexist attitudes influence the perceptions of women who fall at different points along the housewife-career woman continuum.

Chapter 6. General Discussion

6.1 The Relationships Among the Three Studies

Research on ambivalent sexism and ambivalence toward men is notably scarce in China. Cross-cultural studies of ambivalent attitudes also lack data from China, making cross-cultural comparisons challenging. There has been no comprehensive and organized framework for ambivalent sexism and ambivalence toward men research in China, highlighting the necessity to investigate and analyze the perception and impact of ambivalent sexism.

Study 1 examined the perception of ambivalent sexism, which refers to how individuals recognize and interpret behaviors, attitudes, and societal norms that discriminate based on gender. This perception can vary widely based on personal experiences, cultural context, and education level. Individuals do not exhibit equal sensitivity to different types of sexism, and the lack of awareness and normalization of sexism is a common manifestation of this insensitivity. Many individuals, particularly men, may question the ability to recognize sexism and its potential impact. The impacts of sexism on individuals can manifest in various psychological, emotional, and social outcomes. Previous studies have extensively documented the negative impacts on women. For instance, women who face constant microaggressions or overt discrimination may internalize negative stereotypes, leading to reduced self-worth. Women who experience sexism might adopt coping mechanisms, such as avoiding certain environments or becoming more vocal advocates for gender equality. Additionally, women may face barriers in the workplace, such as the glass ceiling effect, which limits their advancement to higher positions. Although most respondents to surveys on the impact of

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sexism have been female, observations and speculative summaries of past research suggest that sexism is also harmful to men. Study 2 asserts and validates that sexism negatively affects both genders. Hostile sexism (HS) increases aggression and undermines achievement motivation in men, while benevolent sexism (BS) negatively affects women's achievement motivation. Furthermore, the social dynamics between genders are affected by sexism, which can strain relationships and reinforce power imbalances, leading to social isolation or exclusion for those challenging traditional and non-traditional gender roles. Examining how different types of sexism predict perceptions of traditional and non-traditional gender roles could enhance our understanding of gender relations and reduce intergender conflict.

In summary, the perception of sexism significantly influences individuals' mental and emotional well-being, which, in turn, shapes their views on gender roles. Conversely, societal beliefs about gender roles determine how sexism is perceived and experienced. This intricate interplay underscores the necessity for comprehensive strategies to address sexism and promote gender equality across all aspects of life. In conclusion, the research presented in this thesis comprises three interrelated investigations that collectively elucidate the expression and impact of ambivalent gender attitudes on individuals and society in China. By advancing our understanding of gender equality, this research contributes to the foundational knowledge required for fostering a more egalitarian society in China.

6.2 The Recognition of BS and BM

The Ambivalent Sexism Theory posits that sexism is distinct from other forms of prejudice or discrimination and encompasses a multidimensional structure, comprising two interconnected yet distinct sexist attitudes known as Hostile Sexism (HS) and Benevolent Sexism (BS). As evidenced in the findings of Study 1, generally, perceived sexism directed

towards women in the HS condition was more pronounced than that in the BS condition. Conversely, perceived sexism towards men in the HM condition was stronger compared to that in the BM condition, thereby supporting the notion that benevolent attitudes are less readily recognized as discriminatory than hostile attitudes. The aforementioned outcomes align with earlier research (Barreto & Ellemers, 2005), wherein benevolent sexist attitudes appears to foster a favorable perception of women, potentially resulting in advantages for women through this perceived value. Unlike hostile attitudes, benevolent sexism is not easily recognized as a sexist or discriminate mindset, making it more challenging to address. Both genders commonly struggle to identify benevolent sexist attitude as a form of sexism, a phenomenon supported by numerous privous studies (Connor et al., 2018; Moya et al., 2007).

A noteworthy new revelation from Study 1 is the elucidation of gender-based disparities in perceptions of Benevolent Sexism (BS) among men and women, adding evidence to Greenwood and Isbell's (2002) previous speculation on potential differences in how males and females perceive BS. The findings of Study 1 strongly suggest that male participants, in contrast to their female counterparts, perceive BS as discriminatory against men. This observation may partly account for the lower BS scores among men than women in regions characterized by lower gender equality (Glick et al., 2000), as men tend to interpret BS as discriminatory against their own gender, thereby influencing their alignment with BS attitudes.

On the contrary, another significant novel discovery from Study 1 is the differential perception of BM by men and women, with female participants viewing BM as more discriminatory against women than against men. A retrospection of the BM items sheds light on the underlying rationale behind BM, which often emphasizes male superiority in terms of

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resilience and economic provision. However, the nearly half-century historical trajectory of

Chinese women's engagement in societal labor has contributed to divergent perspectives and

understanding of BM between men and women. Traditional expressions that leveraged male

superiority to establish male dominance, such as BM, are increasingly rejected by women in

contemporary discourse.

6.3 Gender Differences of the Effects of HS and BS on Achievement Motivation

The results of Study 2 demonstrated the differential effects of HS and BS on males and

females. BS has been shown to inhibit women's motivation of success, yet it appears to exert

no discernible influence on their fear of failure. Conversely, HS exacerbated the fear of failure

among women but seemingly has no impact on their motivation of success. These findings

align with extant literature, which indicates a negative correlation between the sexist attitudes

and women's career aspirations (Rollero & Fedi, 2014), suggests that a sexist milieu dampens

women's career expectations (Fernández et al., 2006; Rudman & Heppen, 2000), and

associateds benevolent sexism with an anticipation of diminished female success (Brittany et

al., 2019). The greater the prevalence of such sexist attitudes, the more challenging it becomes

for women to transcend conventional gender roles and pursue career success.

The present study elucidates a novel and salient observation: individual sexist attitudes

not only impede women's cognitive progress and professional trajectories, thereby exerting a

deleterious effect, but also have adverse repercussions for men. Hostile sexism (HS) was

found to have a positive correlation with male aggression; higher levels of HS among men are

associated with a propensity for elevated aggression. This is indicative of psychological

distress in men who are unable to conform to traditional masculine roles, which may manifest

as aggressive behavior in an effort to compensate for perceived deficits in competence and to

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affirm their masculinity. Furthermore, HS among men amplifies their fear of failure, thus impairing their motivation to achieve. The entrenched endorsement of traditional gender norms and disdain for women who diverge from traditional roles contribute to an inability to reconcile the concept of a man's failure, consequently intensifying this fear of failure.

Therefore, it is posited that these elements—hostile sexism, aggression, fear of failure, and the detrimental impact on women—interlock to form a pernicious cycle that presents formidable obstacles for individuals of all genders. The imperative to cultivate social equilibrium and gender parity, alongside enhancing mutual comprehension and fostering a congenial coexistence between the sexes, underscores the urgency for the establishment of efficacious gender education initiatives

6.4 Ambivalence Towards Men Inventory: Chinese Version

A Chinese version of the Ambivalence Toward Men Inventory (AMI) has been created in this research, which is essential for ensuring cultural relevance, improving measurement accuracy, enabling cross-cultural comparisons, expanding the scope of research on gender attitudes in China, informing policy and interventions, and enhancing the theoretical understanding of ambivalent sexism. In future research, it is imperative to include men in investigations and discussions of ambivalent sexism, both as subjects of ambivalent attitudes and as potential victims of sexist attitudes.

6.5 Men Have Stronger Sexist Attitudes than Women

The results of two-way ANOVA in Study 3 shows that male participants exhibit higher levels of both benevolent and hostile sexist attitudes toward women compared to female

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participants, with individuals generally demonstrating a stronger inclination towards

benevolent gender bias than hostile. Research indicates that the extent of benevolent gender

bias among women is shaped by various determinants, including cultural background,

educational attainment, age, and personality traits. Previous findings reveal that men display

elevated levels of both hostile (HS) and benevolent sexism (BS) relative to women, yet in

regions with diminished gender equality, women are more likely to manifest increased levels

of BS compared to men (Glick et al., 2000). Moreover, there is an apparent deficiency among

women in effectively identifying benevolent sexism (Barreto & Ellemers, 2005; Moya et al.,

2007).

      Nonetheless, with the advancement of time and the augmentation of social equality

consciousness, this perception is progressively evolving (Rollero & Fedi, 2014). Among

college students, there is a higher awareness of benevolent rather than hostile gender bias,

with female students displaying less benevolence toward men than their male counterparts.

Consequently, the BS-imposed constraints on women's survival and advancement within the

academic societal structure are more externally imposed, leading to a gradual attenuation of

negative self-perceptions among women and a lower adherence to traditional gender roles

within the female collegiate community. It is plausible to anticipate that with the enhancement

of women's cognitive awareness and the promotion of social equality consciousness, the

impediments to women's societal roles and developmental opportunities engendered by well-

intentioned gender bias are progressively being dismantled.

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6.6 Female Performed Stronger Hostile Attitudes Towards Men

Another result by conducting two-way ANOVA in Study 3 shows that female participants performed higher levels of hostile attitude towards men compared to male participants. Glick et al. (2004), in their comprehensive cross-cultural examination of ambivalent attitude toward men, also elucidated that propensity for hostile bias against men tends to be more pronounced among women within societies characterized by traditionalist ethos. This phenomenon may be attributable to the entrenched higher social echelons occupied by men and a progressive erosion of the legitimization of their power, as postulated by Alice et al. (1994). Drawing on the tenets of relative deprivation theory (Runciman, 1966) alongside Tajfel's social identity theory (1981), it is posited that hostile resentment among those in subordinate positions is incited by the perception of the prevailing social hierarchy as fundamentally illegitimate.

6.7 The Predictions of Ambivalence Attitudes to the Perceptions of Gender Roles

Study 3 examined the effects of hostile and benevolent sexism, hositility and benevolence toward men on the perceptions of women in traditional and non-traditional gender roles, revealing that hostile sexism (HS) leads to negative perceptions of female breadwinners and caregivers. Contrary to previous research, HS not only penalizes non-traditional women but also embodies misogynistic attitudes towards traditional female roles among male participants, suggesting that HS shapes males' conceptualization of traditional women. Additionally, men with strong sexist attitudes tend to perpetuate power dynamics within family relationships, favoring male dominance and devaluing the contributions of housewives. Resentment towards housewives among male breadwinners further exacerbates

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negative perceptions. Many men express dissatisfaction with their wives' roles as homemakers, attributing their feelings to the pressures of demanding jobs and the anxiety of supporting a family single-handedly. Male participants are more likely to empathize with the male breadwinner, leading to increased negative perceptions of female caregivers under the influence of HS. The societal ideal of balancing work and family life imposes a burden on women, stigmatizing any deviation from this standard. Among female participants, HS did not generate negative perceptions of female caregivers, highlighting the gendered nature of societal expectations and stigmatization.

Conversely, the influence of benevolent sexism (BS) on perceptions of female breadwinners and caregivers was minimal, with a marginal positive effect on perceived warmth in the context of female caregiving. For female participants, BS positively predicted perceived warmth of female caregivers, consistent with previous research. However, for male participants, BS was inversely associated with perceived positive emotions towards female caregivers. The discrepancy may be due to traditional perceptions of women's roles, with men viewing caregiving responsibilities as a selfless act of devotion, while perceiving professional engagement as non-traditional. Further research is needed to refine the path analysis model of BS and consider additional factors influencing these perceptions.

The result that female participants' HM positively predicted perceptions of male caregiver suggests that female participants with stronger hostile attitudes toward men viewed nontraditional male caregivers more favorably, aligning with our hypotheses and Glick and Fiske's (1999) concept of hostility as an expression of discontent toward patriarchal societal norms. Moreover, HM could be associated with perceptions favoring social change. It is

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noteworthy that male participants may find the concept of a male caregiver engaged in "female work" particularly challenging.

Traditional Chinese cultural expectations — which dictate that men provide financially while women focus on appearance and virtue — are creating stress for men and limiting women's opportunities for growth. Gender perceptions are influenced by individual benefits: women, observing gains from gender equality, adopt more progressive views, especially as they enter the workforce in greater numbers. Men, often benefiting from traditional labor divisions, may resist gender equality, leading to more conservative views compared to women.

6.8 Evaluations and Implications

This investigation offers a substantial augmentation to the scholarly comprehension of the divergent perceptions and interpretations of benevolent sexism (BS) amongst men and women. BS is delineated as an ostensibly favorable emotion predicated upon affectionate sentiments toward women, frequently casting them in an idealized, pure, and delicate role necessitating male guardianship, thereby subtly perpetuating male dominance. Consequently, while BS may ostensibly laud women, it intrinsically perpetuates patriarchal dominance, circumscribing female autonomy.

Regarding the implications for women, the romanticization inherent in the entrenched paradigm of BS can impede personal growth and self-actualization. This dynamic elucidates the variance in responses among women with disparate gender ideologies when encountering identical scenarios. Illustratively, amidst Chinese social discourse, phrases like "It is preferable for a girl to find a good husband rather than become a good wife" and "Men should

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undertake financial provision and familial responsibilities, while women should prioritize aesthetic appeal," elicit polarized reactions. A segment of women resonate with these sentiments, interpreting them as emblematic of romantic ideals and aspirational partnership, whereas others perceive them as egregiously patronizing, epitomizing a substantial infringement upon their agency. This dichotomy reflects the complex interplay between individual gender ideologies and their interpretive frameworks. Nevertheless, among men, benevolent sexism (BS) is oftentimes interpreted as a subtle form of gender-based bias against men. Consequently, low levels of BS exhibited by men may not be indicative of an egalitarian stance towards gender roles but rather may suggest a resistance to perceived preferential treatment accorded to women and an awareness of discriminatory biases directed at men.

This phenomenon is congruent with certain aspects of gender dynamics in China, where a subset of men exhibit pronounced disdain for career-oriented women while paradoxically extolling women who are economically self-sufficient and do not rely on their male partners for financial support in romantic partnerships. Such attitudes underscore the inherent psychological dissonance between entrenched gender norms and the emergent archetype of the autonomous woman. The contradictory notion of "traditional or non-traditional", which is used flexibly by male, has also aroused the discontent of both traditional and non-traditional women.

Sexist ideologies can undermine gender relations within society, thereby constraining the progression of individuals and adversely affecting the symbiosis between genders, leading to considerable societal detriment. This includes the potential for sexist convictions to obstruct women's professional progression, manifesting in a parental preference for sons over daughters despite equivalent economic investment, which in turn may precipitate gender-

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biased decision-making during childbearing and perpetuate workplace discrimination against women—thereby contributing to an imbalanced allocation of societal resources favoring men.

The current research substantiates that such ideologies not only impede the professional advancement of women but also escalate male aggression and diminish male achievement motivation. These findings corroborate the assertion that advocating for gender parity transcends the emancipation of women's cognitive liberties and the mitigation of their exploitation; it also entails the alleviation of men's subjugation under the aegis of patriarchal dogma, thereby facilitating a more equitable liberty for all genders.

Moreover, individuals' responses to sexist attitudes have detrimental repercussions on their ambition and hinder societal progress across various dimensions of social cognition. They further impact collective perceptions pertaining to gender roles. In contemporary Chinese discourse, the discourse surrounding women's choice between professional pursuits and domestic life has been persistent for over a decade. The social predicament faced by housewives is palpably evident, and the conflicting attitudes toward them elucidate that their perceived adversary is not the independent woman per se but the constructed ideal of the "perfect woman," adept both in public and domestic spheres—a paradigm stemming from a diminutive patriarchal view of women amalgamated with a disdain for non-wage-earning adults in modern society. This constructed ideal of the "perfect woman" capable of seamless integration into both public and private domains has persisted. It is evident in the expectation placed uniquely on married women to negotiate career and family—a glaring inequity that, regrettably, is often rationalized by the internalization of contradictory sexist attitudes that reconcile incongruent traditional and contemporary societal norms.

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Given the preceding discussion, the imperative to further scrutinize ambivalent gender attitudes among both men and women becomes apparent. On one account, genuine gender-based discrimination often escapes recognition as a prejudicial force and may indeed exert more insidious repercussions than overt hostility within societies striving for gender parity as a fundamental component of a fully realized democracy. Conversely, considering the profound symbiosis between genders, an enriched comprehension of gender stereotypes and their concomitant effects is essential for fostering an authentic understanding and forging a more genuine rapport between the sexes.

6.9 limitations and Recommendations

The applicability of this study is limited due to the use of a sample consisting of highly educated university students in their twenties and early thirties. As gender attitudes are culturally embedded and linked to age and education, the generalizability of the findings to other populations is limited. Moreover, owing to the inability to secure collaboration with educational institutions, the acquisition of data was contingent upon self-reported academic achievements by the students. This methodological limitation introduces the potential for discrepancies, as self-reported measures may not consistently reflect the objectivity of actual academic performance. Within the scope of this manuscript, a mere quartet of traditional gender roles is examined. It is acknowledged, however, that dual-income households are increasingly prevalent in contemporary Chinese society. Consequently, a more robust empirical inquiry, replete with extensive observations and comprehensive datasets, is requisite for an accurate characterization of the dual-earner family paradigm. Thus, further research is necessary to explore these nuances and investigate how sexist attitudes influence the

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perceptions of women who fall at different points along the housewife-career woman continuum.

6.10 Summary and Conclusion

Differences in men's and women's understanding and perceptions of sexism increase friction, misunderstandings, and mutual offense in daily interactions. For instance, when men employ benevolent sexism (BS) to express kindness, it can be perceived as offensive by women who strongly advocate for gender equality. Conversely, men who view BS as an act of self-sacrifice may find the negative reception discouraging and inexplicable.

Historically, research has primarily concentrated on the detrimental effects of sexism on women to raise awareness and promote anti-discrimination efforts. However, this study reveals that sexist attitudes also negatively impact men's aggression and achievement motivation, causing physical and psychological harm to both sexes. This, in turn, reinforces stereotypes and misunderstandings between genders, thereby jeopardizing societal stability. Consequently, it is imperative to include both male and female perspectives in examining the topic of sexism.. Focusing exclusively on one gender exacerbates the existing gender gap. Thus, is essential for both men and women to engage with gender knowledge actively and collaboratively shape societal gender concepts to foster healthy gender relations.

This study provides a significant contribution to understanding the implications of ambivalent gender attitudes among the Chinese population. This investigation delineates the perceptual nuances of ambivalent sexism among Chinese individuals and endeavors to refine an instrument for assessing ambivalent attitudes toward men, thereby broadening the conceptual scope of traditional gender bias analysis. The results elucidate divergent cognitions

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of gender bias between men and women, contributing to a more exhaustive depiction and understanding of the multifaceted manifestations and ramifications of gender inequity within the social milieu. This is vitally important for the efficacious prevention of gender discrimination and the advancement of gender equity. Distinct from conventional scholarly inquiry, this study also interrogates the indirect mechanisms by which sexist ideologies obstruct male development and inflict detriment upon men, thereby potentially destabilizing societal gender dynamics and altering gender role perceptions.

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Appendices

Appendix A: Study 1's Questionnaires

(Explanatory text with the link of questionnaire)
Hello everyone, we are currently doing a social psychological academic research and want to hear your voice. Here is a questionnaire about ambivalent sexist attitudes, ambivalent attitudes toward men, self-perception.
(This questionnaire is filled out anonymously and guaranteed to be for academic reference only.)
If you are interested, please fill out the questionnaire.

(link place)

If the participant clicks on the link, the consent form and the questionnaire will appear on the

next page

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<div align="center">

Consent to Participate in a Research Project

WANG QIANQIAN, Principal Investigator

</div>

My name is WANG QIANQIAN and I am a graduate student in doctoral course studying Psychology at International Christian University. I am conducting a research aimed at clarifying how Chinese people view and perceive hostile and benevolent attitudes towards both women and men (If you are not from the mainland, please do not answer this questionnaire). Gender prejudice and sexism have always been important issues in social psychology. Understanding different types of sexism and sexist characteristics can prevent and reduce various forms of gender discrimination and is also of great significance for promoting gender equality and respecting gender differences. This questionnaire asks about the gender awareness of women and men. Some items may be considered as sexist. Each item does not indicate the actual tendency of gender discrimination against women or men, please choose the option you think is appropriate. This questionnaire has been used in many countries. Because it is a completely anonymous survey, don't worry about any negative influence on you, and please answer truthfully. As part of that, I would like to ask for your cooperation in this survey. I apologize for the inconvenience, but if you would like to cooperate after reading the following notes on research ethics, please type the survey participation agreement.

<div align="center">

Precautions regarding research ethics

</div>

1. In today's survey, we will do a task only using a questionnaire. This survey is scheduled to be completed in about 15 - 20 minutes.

2. Participation in this survey is not compulsory. If you do not sign the consent form and do not participate, you will not be penalized for it.

3. You are free to decide whether or not to answer. If you have any question that you don't want to answer, you are free to skip any question and move on to the next question.

4. If you want to stop the survey when you are answering in the middle, you can stop it immediately.

5. The results of this study will be used for research purposes only. The results are supposed to be processed statistically. We will not publish your answer in a form that can identify you personally. In this questionnaire personally identifiable questions (name, date of birth, address, etc.) are not required.

6. We will strictly adhere to the confidentiality of personal information. Results of the survey will be strictly managed, such as by storing them in a locker with a key. And all of the data will be discarded after 5 years.

7. If you have any questions or concerns about this survey, please do not hesitate to contact us.

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Survey participation consent form

Principal Investigator

International Christain University Graduate School of Arts and Science (Doctoral Course)

WANG QIANQIAN

    Prior to participating in this survey, I received an explanation about this research and understood its contents, so I agree to participate in this survey at my own will. I submit this document after typing my name as proof of consent.

    Date:

    Participant's name:

Questionnaire

Part 1

Age:

Place of birth:

Gender: _____ (1. Female; 2. Male; 3. Other)

Educational Background:

Marital status:

Part 2. Please read the following article and then answer the following questions. (If you feel any discomfort with the article or question, you can stop answering at any time).

(HS condition) This is a report of a random interview in which the interviewees expressed the following views.

1. Most women interpret innocent remarks or acts as being sexist.

2. Women are too easily offended.

3. Feminists are not seeking for women to have more power than men.

4. Most women fail to appreciate fully all that men do for them.

5. Women seek to gain power by getting control over men.

6. Women exaggerate problems they have at work.

(BS condition) This is a report of a random interview in which the interviewees expressed the following views.

1. Many women have a quality of purity that few men possess.

2. Women should be cherished and protected by men.

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3. Women, compared to men, tend to have a superior moral sensibility.

4. Men should be willing to sacrifice their own well being in order to provide financially for the women in their lives.

5. A good woman should be set on a pedestal by her man.

6. Every man ought to have a woman whom he adores.

(HM condition) This is a report of a random interview in which the interviewees expressed the following views.

1. Men would be lost in this world if women weren't there to guide them.

2. Men usually try to dominate conversations when talking to women.

3. When it comes down to it, most men are really like children.

4. Most men sexually harass women, even if only in subtle ways, once they are in a position of power over them.

5. When men act to "help" women, they are often trying to prove they are better than women.

6. A man typically has no ethical value in terms of doing anything to get a woman he finds sexually attractive to bed.

(BM condition) This is a report of a random interview in which the interviewees expressed the following views.

1. Even if both members of a couple work, the woman ought to be more attentive to taking care of her man at home.

2. Men are less likely to fall apart in emergencies than women are.

3. Every woman needs a male partner who will cherish her.

`

4. Every woman ought to have a man she adores.

5. Men are more willing to put themselves in danger to protect others.

6. Women are incomplete without men.

After reading the above article, please answer the following questions.

1. Do you personally like people who hold such views?

   ☉Very undesirable ☉Undesirable ☉Neutral ☉Desirable ☉Very desirable

2. Do you think it's discrimination toward women to hold such a view?

   ☉Not at all   ☉Slightly ☉Somewhat ☉Moderately ☉Extremely

3. Do you think it's discrimination toward men to hold such a view?

   ☉Not at all   ☉Slightly ☉Somewhat ☉Moderately ☉Extremely

4. After reading the above article, do you feel angry, indignant, or irritated?

   ☉Not at all   ☉Slightly ☉Somewhat ☉Moderately ☉Extremely

5. After reading the above article, do you feel disappointed or frustrated?

   ☉Not at all   ☉Slightly ☉Somewhat ☉Moderately ☉Extremely

6. After reading the above article, do you feel be offended?

   ☉Not at all   ☉Slightly ☉Somewhat ☉Moderately ☉Extremely

Part 3 (If you feel any discomfort with the question, you can stop answering at any time).

Not Important to me	Quite Important to me	Highly Important to me
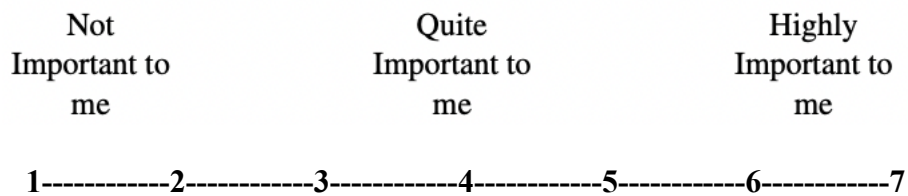
1------------2------------3------------4------------5------------6------------7

1. Displaying mastery, being capable, effective.

   1------------2------------3------------4------------5------------6------------7

`
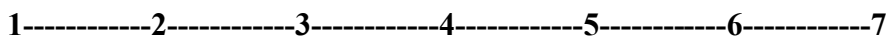
2. Reaching lofty goals.

    1------------2------------3------------4------------5------------6------------7

3. Control over others, dominance.

    1------------2------------3------------4------------5------------6------------7

4. High rank, wide respect.

    1------------2------------3------------4------------5------------6------------7

5. Becoming notable famous or admired.

    1------------2------------3------------4------------5------------6------------7

6. Defeating the competition, standing on top.

    1------------2------------3------------4------------5------------6------------7

7. Pardoning others' faults, being merciful.

    1------------2------------3------------4------------5------------6------------7

8. Helping others in need.

    1------------2------------3------------4------------5------------6------------7

9. Being faithful to friends, family, and group.

    1------------2------------3------------4------------5------------6------------7

10. Being genuine, sincere.

    1------------2------------3------------4------------5------------6------------7

11. Caring for others, displaying kindness.

    1------------2------------3------------4------------5------------6------------7

12. Being considerate and respectful toward others.

    1------------2------------3------------4------------5------------6------------7

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Appendix B: Study 2's Questionnaires

(Explanatory text with the link of questionnaire)

Hello everyone, we are currently doing a social psychological academic research and want to hear your voice. Here is a questionnaire about sexist attitudes, aggression, academic achievement, and atonement motivation.

(This questionnaire is filled out anonymously and guaranteed to be for academic reference only.) If you are interested, please fill out the questionnaire.

(link place)

If the participant clicks on the link, the consent form and the questionnaire will appear on the next page.

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Consent to Participate in a Research Project

WANG QIANQIAN, Principal Investigator

My name is WANG QIANQIAN and I am a graduate student in doctoral course studying Psychology at International Christian University. I am conducting research aimed at clarifying effects of sexist attitudes and aggression on academic achievement and achievement motivation among Chinese college students from mainland (If you are not from the mainland, please do not answer this questionnaire). Gender prejudice and sexism have always been important issues in social psychology. Understanding different types of sexism and sexist characteristics can prevent and reduce various forms of gender discrimination and is also of great significance for promoting gender equality and respecting gender differences. This questionnaire asks about the gender awareness of women and men. Some items may be considered as sexist. Each item does not indicate the actual tendency of gender discrimination against women or men, please choose the option you think is appropriate. This questionnaire has been used in many countries. Because it is a completely anonymous survey, don't worry about any negative influence on you, and please answer truthfully. As part of that, I would like to ask for your cooperation in this survey. I apologize for the inconvenience, but if you would like to cooperate after reading the following notes on research ethics, please type the survey participation agreement.

Precautions regarding research ethics

1. In today's survey, we will do a task only using a questionnaire. This survey is scheduled to be completed in about 15 - 20 minutes.

2. Participation in this survey is not compulsory. If you do not sign the consent form and do not participate, you will not be penalized for it.

`

3. You are free to decide whether or not to answer. If you have any question that you don't want to answer, you are free to skip any question and move on to the next question.

4. If you want to stop the survey when you are answering in the middle, you can stop it immediately.

5. The results of this study will be used for research purposes only. The results are supposed to be processed statistically. We will not publish your answer in a form that can identify you personally. In this questionnaire personally identifiable questions (name, date of birth, address, etc.) are not required.

6. We will strictly adhere to the confidentiality of personal information. Results of the survey will be strictly managed, such as by storing them in a locker with a key. And all of the data will be discarded after 5 years. 7. If you have any questions or concerns about this survey, please do not hesitate to contact us.

`

Survey participation consent form

Principal Investigator

International Christian University Graduate School of Arts and Science (Doctoral Course)

WANG QIANQIAN

    Prior to participating in this survey, I received an explanation about this research and understood its contents, so I agree to participate in this survey at my own will. I submit this document after typing my name as proof of consent.

    Date:

    Participant's name:

`

Questionnaire

Part 1

Age:

Place of birth:

Gender: _____ (1. Female; 2. Male; 3. Other) Educational Background:

Marital status:

Part 2 (If you feel any discomfort with the question, you can stop answering at any time).

1. No matter how accomplished he is, a man is not truly complete as a person unless he has the love of a woman.

☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly Agree

☐ Do not answer

2. Many women are actually seeking special favors, such as hiring policies that favor them over men, under the guise of asking for "equality."

☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly Agree ☐

Do not answer

3. In a disaster, women ought not necessarily to be rescued before men.

☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly Agree

☐ Do not answer

4. Most women interpret innocent remarks or acts as being sexist.

☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly Agree ☐

Do not answer

5. Women are too easily offended.

`

☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly Agree

☐ Do not answer

6. People are often truly happy in life without being romantically involved with a member of the other sex.

☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly Agree ☐ Do not answer

7. Feminists are not seeking for women to have more power than men.

☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly Agree

☐ Do not answer

8. Many women have a quality of purity that few men possess.

☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly Agree

☐ Do not answer

9. Women should be cherished and protected by men.

☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly Agree

☐ Do not answer

10. Most women fail to appreciate fully all that men do for them.

☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly Agree

☐ Do not answer

11. Women seek to gain power by getting control over men.

☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly Agree

`

☐ Do not answer

12. Every man ought to have a woman whom he adores.

☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly Agree

☐ Do not answer

13. Men are complete without women.

☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly Agree

☐ Do not answer

14. Women exaggerate problems they have at work.

☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly Agree

☐ Do not answer

15. Once a woman gets a man to commit to her, she usually tries to put him on a tight leash. ☐

Strongly Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly Agree

☐ Do not answer

16. When women lose to men in a fair competition, they typically complain about being

discriminated against.

☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly Agree ☐

Do not answer

17. A good woman should be set on a pedestal by her man.

☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly Agree

☐ Do not answer

`

18. There are actually very few women who get a kick out of teasing men by seeming sexually available and then refusing male advances.

☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly Agree ☐ Do not answer

19. Women, compared to men, tend to have a superior moral sensibility.

☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly Agree ☐ Do not answer

20. Men should be willing to sacrifice their own well being in order to provide financially for the women in their lives.

☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly Agree ☐ Do not answer

21. Feminists are making entirely reasonable demands of men.

☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly Agree ☐ Do not answer

22. Women, as compared to men, tend to have a more refined sense of culture and good taste. ☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly Agree ☐ Do not answer

Part 3 (If you feel any discomfort with the question, you can stop answering at any time).

1. Some of my friends think I am a hothead.

☐Extremely Disagree ☐Somewhat Disagree ☐Neither Disagree nor Agree ☐ Somewhat Agree ☐Extremely Agree

2. If I have to resort to violence to protect my rights, I will.

`

☐Extremely Disagree ☐Somewhat Disagree ☐Neither Disagree nor Agree ☐ Somewhat

Agree ☐Extremely Agree

3. When people are especially nice to me, I wonder what they want.

☐Extremely Disagree ☐Somewhat Disagree ☐Neither Disagree nor Agree ☐ Somewhat

Agree ☐Extremely Agree

4. I tell my friends openly when I disagree with them.

☐Extremely Disagree ☐Somewhat Disagree ☐Neither Disagree nor Agree ☐ Somewhat

Agree ☐Extremely Agree

5. I have become so mad that I have broken things.

☐Extremely Disagree ☐Somewhat Disagree ☐Neither Disagree nor Agree ☐ Somewhat

Agree ☐Extremely Agree

6. I can't help getting into arguments when people disagree with me.

☐Extremely Disagree ☐Somewhat Disagree ☐Neither Disagree nor Agree ☐ Somewhat

Agree ☐Extremely Agree

7. I wonder why sometimes I feel so bitter about things.

☐Extremely Disagree ☐Somewhat Disagree ☐Neither Disagree nor Agree ☐ Somewhat

Agree ☐Extremely Agree

8. Once in a while, I can't control the urge to strike another person.

☐Extremely Disagree ☐Somewhat Disagree ☐Neither Disagree nor Agree ☐ Somewhat

Agree ☐Extremely Agree

9. I am an even-tempered person.

`

☐Extremely Disagree ☐Somewhat Disagree ☐Neither Disagree nor Agree ☐ Somewhat

Agree ☐Extremely Agree

10. I am suspicious of overly friendly strangers.

☐Extremely Disagree ☐Somewhat Disagree ☐Neither Disagree nor Agree ☐ Somewhat

Agree ☐Extremely Agree

11. I have threatened people I know.

☐Extremely Disagree ☐Somewhat Disagree ☐Neither Disagree nor Agree ☐ Somewhat

Agree ☐Extremely Agree

12. I flare up quickly but get over it quickly.

☐Extremely Disagree ☐Somewhat Disagree ☐Neither Disagree nor Agree ☐ Somewhat

Agree ☐Extremely Agree

13. Given enough provocation, I may hit another person.

☐Extremely Disagree ☐Somewhat Disagree ☐Neither Disagree nor Agree ☐ Somewhat

Agree ☐Extremely Agree

14. When people annoy me, I may tell them what I think of them.

☐Extremely Disagree ☐Somewhat Disagree ☐Neither Disagree nor Agree ☐ Somewhat

Agree ☐Extremely Agree

15. I am sometimes eaten up with jealousy.

☐Extremely Disagree ☐Somewhat Disagree ☐Neither Disagree nor Agree ☐ Somewhat

Agree ☐Extremely Agree

16. I can think of no good reason for ever hitting a person.

`

☐Extremely Disagree ☐Somewhat Disagree ☐Neither Disagree nor Agree ☐ Somewhat

Agree ☐Extremely Agree

17. At times I feel I have gotten a raw deal out of life.

☐Extremely Disagree ☐Somewhat Disagree ☐Neither Disagree nor Agree ☐ Somewhat

Agree ☐Extremely Agree

18. I have trouble controlling my temper.

☐Extremely Disagree ☐Somewhat Disagree ☐Neither Disagree nor Agree ☐ Somewhat

Agree ☐Extremely Agree

19. When frustrated, I let my irritation show.

☐Extremely Disagree ☐Somewhat Disagree ☐Neither Disagree nor Agree ☐ Somewhat

Agree ☐Extremely Agree

20. I sometimes feel that people are laughing at me behind my back.

☐Extremely Disagree ☐Somewhat Disagree ☐Neither Disagree nor Agree ☐ Somewhat

Agree ☐Extremely Agree

21. I often find myself disagreeing with people.

☐Extremely Disagree ☐Somewhat Disagree ☐Neither Disagree nor Agree ☐ Somewhat

Agree ☐Extremely Agree

22. If somebody hits me, I hit back.

☐Extremely Disagree ☐Somewhat Disagree ☐Neither Disagree nor Agree ☐ Somewhat

Agree ☐Extremely Agree

23. I sometimes feel like a powder keg ready to explode.

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☐Extremely Disagree ☐Somewhat Disagree ☐Neither Disagree nor Agree ☐ Somewhat Agree ☐Extremely Agree

24. Other people always seem to get the breaks.

☐Extremely Disagree ☐Somewhat Disagree ☐Neither Disagree nor Agree ☐ Somewhat Agree ☐Extremely Agree

25. There are people who pushed me so far that we came to blows.

☐Extremely Disagree ☐Somewhat Disagree ☐Neither Disagree nor Agree ☐ Somewhat Agree ☐Extremely Agree

26. I know that "friends" talk about me behind my back.

☐Extremely Disagree ☐Somewhat Disagree ☐Neither Disagree nor Agree ☐ Somewhat Agree ☐Extremely Agree

27. My friends say that I'm somewhat argumentative.

☐Extremely Disagree ☐Somewhat Disagree ☐Neither Disagree nor Agree ☐ Somewhat Agree ☐Extremely Agree

28. Sometimes I fly off the handle for no good reason.

☐Extremely Disagree ☐Somewhat Disagree ☐Neither Disagree nor Agree ☐ Somewhat Agree ☐Extremely Agree

29. I get into fights a little more than the average person.

☐Extremely Disagree ☐Somewhat Disagree

☐Neither Disagree nor Agree ☐ Somewhat Agree ☐Extremely Agree

30. I have become so mad that I have broken things.

`

☐Extremely Disagree ☐Somewhat Disagree ☐Neither Disagree nor Agree ☐ Somewhat

Agree ☐Extremely Agree

Part 4 (If you feel any discomfort with the question, you can stop answering at any time).

1. I like situations, in which I can find out how capable I am.

☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly Agree

2. When I am confronted with a problem, which I can possibly solve, I am enticed to start

working on it immediately.

☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly Agree

3. I enjoy situations, in which I can make use of my abilities.

☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly Agree

4. I am appealed by situations allowing me to test my abilities.

☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly Agree

5. I am attracted by tasks, in which I can test my abilities.

☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly Agree

6. I am afraid of failing in somewhat difficult situations, when a lot depends on me.

☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly Agree

7. I feel uneasy to do something if I am not sure of succeeding.

☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly Agree

8. Even if nobody would notice my failure, I'm afraid of tasks, which I'm not able to solve. ☐

Strongly Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly Agree

9. Even if nobody is watching, I feel quite anxious in new situations.

`

☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly Agree

10. If I do not understand a problem immediately I start feeling anxious.

☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly Agree

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Appendix C: Study 3's Questionnaires

(Explanatory text with the link of questionnaire)

Hello everyone, we are currently doing a social psychological academic research and want to hear your voice. Here is a questionnaire about ambivalent sexist attitudes, ambivalent attitudes toward men, self-perception.

(This questionnaire is filled out anonymously and guaranteed to be for academic reference only.)

If you are interested, please fill out the questionnaire.

(link place)

If the participant clicks on the link, the consent form and the questionnaire will appear on the next page.

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Consent to Participate in a Research Project

WANG QIANQIAN, Principal Investigator

My name is WANG QIANQIAN and I am a graduate student in doctoral course studying Psychology at International Christian University. I am conducting research aimed at clarifying how Chinese people view and perceive hostile and benevolent attitudes towards both women and men (If you are not from the mainland, please do not answer this questionnaire). Gender prejudice and sexism have always been important issues in social psychology. Understanding different types of sexism and sexist characteristics can prevent and reduce various forms of gender discrimination, and is also of great significance for promoting gender equality and respecting gender differences. This questionnaire asks about the gender awareness of women and men. Some items may be considered as sexist. Each item does not indicate the actual tendency of gender discrimination against women or men, please choose the option you think is appropriate. This questionnaire has been used in many countries. Because it is a completely anonymous survey, don't worry about any negative influence on you, and please answer truthfully. As part of that, I would like to ask for your cooperation in this survey. I apologize for the inconvenience, but if you would like to cooperate after reading the following notes on research ethics, please type the survey participation agreement.

Precautions regarding research ethics

1. In today's survey, we will do a task only using a questionnaire. This survey is scheduled to be completed in about 15 - 20 minutes.

2. Participation in this survey is not compulsory. If you do not sign the consent form and do not participate, you will not be penalized for it.

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3. You are free to decide whether or not to answer. If you have any question that you don't want to answer, you are free to skip any question and move on to the next question.

4. If you want to stop the survey when you are answering in the middle, you can stop it immediately.

5. The results of this study will be used for research purposes only. The results are supposed to be processed statistically. We will not publish your answer in a form that can identify you personally. In this questionnaire personally identifiable questions (name, date of birth, address, etc.) are not required.

6. We will strictly adhere to the confidentiality of personal information. Results of the survey will be strictly managed, such as by storing them in a locker with a key. And all of the data will be discarded after 5 years.

7. If you have any questions or concerns about this survey, please do not hesitate to contact us.

`

Survey participation consent form

      Principal Investigator

      International Christain University Graduate School of Arts and Science (Doctoral

Course)

      WANG QIANQIAN

      Prior to participating in this survey, I received an explanation about this research and

understood its contents, so I agree to participate in this survey at my own will. I submit this

document after typing my name as proof of consent.

      Date:

      Participant's name:

Questionnaire

Part 1

Age:

Place of birth:

Gender: _____ (1. Female; 2. Male; 3. Other)

Educational Background:

Marital status:

Part 2. Please read the following article and then answer the following questions. (If you feel any discomfort with the article or question, you can stop answering at any time).

Female Caregiving Target Condition

Wang Lili is 34 years old, married, and a parent to Lele (age 5) and Qiqi (age 2). Wang Lili is at work until 1:00 pm, and then picks up the children from kindergarten and takes care of the housework and childcare (cooking, feeding the children, giving them a bath, doing the laundry, driving the children to social and other activities etc.). Her husband is a successful manager in a big firm. He leaves home early in the morning, and usually returns between 7 and 8 pm.

Male Caregiving Target Condition

Wang Qiang is 34 years old, married, and a parent to Lele (age 5) and Qiqi (age 2). Wang Qiang is at work until 1:00 pm, and then picks up the children from kindergarten and takes care of the housework and childcare (cooking, feeding the children, giving them a bath, doing the laundry, driving the children to social and other activities etc.). His wife is a successful manager in a big firm. She leaves home early in the morning, and usually returns between 7 and 8 pm.

Female Breadwinning Target Condition

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Wang Lili is 34 years old, married, and a parent to Lele (age 5) and Qiqi (age 2). She is a successful manager in a big firm. She leaves home early in the morning, and usually returns between 7 and 8 pm. Her husband is at work until 1:00 pm, and then picks up the children from kindergarten and takes care of the housework and childcare (cooking, feeding the children, giving them a bath, doing the laundry, driving the children to social and other activities).

Male Breadwinning Target Condition

Wang Qiang is 34 years old, married, and a parent to Lele (age 5) and Qiqi (age 2). He is a successful manager in a big firm. He leaves home early in the morning, and usually returns between 7 and 8 pm. His wife is at work until 1:00 pm, and then picks up the children from kindergarten and takes care of the housework and childcare (cooking, feeding the children, giving them a bath, doing the laundry, driving the children to social and other activities).

After reading the above article, please answer the following questions.

1. Is Wang Lili (Wamg Qiang) in the article trustworthy?

⊙Not at all   ⊙Slightly ⊙Somewhat ⊙Moderately ⊙Extremely

2. Is Wang Lili (Wamg Qiang) in the article well – intentioned?

⊙Not at all   ⊙Slightly ⊙Somewhat ⊙Moderately ⊙Extremely

3. Is Wang Lili (Wamg Qiang) in the article selfish?

⊙Not at all   ⊙Slightly ⊙Somewhat ⊙Moderately ⊙Extremely

4. Is Wang Lili (Wamg Qiang) in the article warm?

⊙Not at all   ⊙Slightly ⊙Somewhat ⊙Moderately ⊙Extremely

5. Is Wang Lili (Wamg Qiang) in the article sincere?

⊙Not at all   ⊙Slightly ⊙Somewhat ⊙Moderately ⊙Extremely

6. Is Wang Lili (Wamg Qiang) in the article friendly?

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⊙Not at all ⊙Slightly ⊙Somewhat ⊙Moderately ⊙Extremely

7. Is Wang Lili (Wamg Qiang) in the article competent?

⊙Not at all ⊙Slightly ⊙Somewhat ⊙Moderately ⊙Extremely

8. Is Wang Lili (Wamg Qiang) in the article confident?

⊙Not at all ⊙Slightly ⊙Somewhat ⊙Moderately ⊙Extremely

9. Is Wang Lili (Wamg Qiang) in the article capable?

⊙Not at all ⊙Slightly ⊙Somewhat ⊙Moderately ⊙Extremely

10. Is Wang Lili (Wamg Qiang) in the article efficient?

⊙Not at all ⊙Slightly ⊙Somewhat ⊙Moderately ⊙Extremely

11. Is Wang Lili (Wamg Qiang) in the article intelligent?

⊙Not at all ⊙Slightly ⊙Somewhat ⊙Moderately ⊙Extremely

12. Is Wang Lili (Wamg Qiang) in the article skillful?

⊙Not at all ⊙Slightly ⊙Somewhat ⊙Moderately ⊙Extremely

Part 3 (If you feel any discomfort with the question, you can stop answering at any time).

Please rate the extent to which you think that Wang Lili (Wang Qiang) experienced each of the six emotions

1. Do you think Wang Lili (Wamg Qiang) in the article is happy in daily life?

⊙Not at all ⊙Slightly ⊙Somewhat ⊙Moderately ⊙Extremely

2. Do you think Wang Lili (Wamg Qiang) in the article is satisfied in daily life?

⊙Not at all ⊙Slightly ⊙Somewhat ⊙Moderately ⊙Extremely

3. Do you think Wang Lili (Wamg Qiang) in the article is self-fulfillment?

⊙Not at all ⊙Slightly ⊙Somewhat ⊙Moderately ⊙Extremely

4. Do you think Wang Lili (Wamg Qiang) in the article is experiencing sadness?

`

◦Not at all ◦Slightly ◦Somewhat ◦Moderately ◦Extremely

    5. Do you think Wang Lili (Wamg Qiang) in the article is experiencing frustration?

◦Not at all ◦Slightly ◦Somewhat ◦Moderately ◦Extremely

    6. Do you think Wang Lili (Wamg Qiang) in the article experiencing guilty

conscience?

◦Not at all ◦Slightly ◦Somewhat ◦Moderately ◦Extremely

Part 4

1. No matter how accomplished he is, a man is not truly complete as a person unless he has the

love of a woman.

☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly Agree

☐ Do not answer

2. Many women are actually seeking special favors, such as hiring policies that favor them over

men, under the guise of asking for "equality."

☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly Agree

☐ Do not answer

3. In a disaster, women ought not necessarily to be rescued before men.

☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly Agree

☐ Do not answer

4. Most women interpret innocent remarks or acts as being sexist.

☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly Agree

☐ Do not answer

5. Women are too easily offended.

`

☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly Agree

☐ Do not answer

6. People are often truly happy in life without being romantically involved with a member of the other sex.

☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly Agree

☐ Do not answer

7. Feminists are not seeking for women to have more power than men.

☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly Agree

☐ Do not answer

8. Many women have a quality of purity that few men possess.

☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly Agree

☐ Do not answer

9. Women should be cherished and protected by men.

☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly Agree

☐ Do not answer

10. Most women fail to appreciate fully all that men do for them.

☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly Agree

☐ Do not answer

11. Women seek to gain power by getting control over men.

☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly Agree

☐ Do not answer

`

12. Every man ought to have a woman whom he adores.

☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly Agree

☐ Do not answer

13. Men are complete without women.

☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly Agree

☐ Do not answer

14. Women exaggerate problems they have at work.

☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly Agree

☐ Do not answer

15. Once a woman gets a man to commit to her, she usually tries to put him on a tight leash.

☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly Agree

☐ Do not answer

16. When women lose to men in a fair competition, they typically complain about being

discriminated against.

☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly Agree

☐ Do not answer

17. A good woman should be set on a pedestal by her man.

☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly Agree

☐ Do not answer

18. There are actually very few women who get a kick out of teasing men by seeming sexually

available and then refusing male advances.

☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly Agree

`

☐ Do not answer

19. Women, compared to men, tend to have a superior moral sensibility.

☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly Agree

☐ Do not answer

20. Men should be willing to sacrifice their own well being in order to provide financially for the women in their lives.

☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly Agree

☐ Do not answer

21. Feminists are making entirely reasonable demands of men.

☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly Agree

☐ Do not answer

22. Women, as compared to men, tend to have a more refined sense of culture and good taste.

☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly Agree

☐ Do not answer

23. Men would be lost in this world if women weren't there to guide them.

☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly Agree

☐ Do not answer

24. A man who is sexually attracted to a woman typically has no morals about doing whatever it takes to get her in bed.

☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly Agree

☐ Do not answer

`

25. Men are less likely to fall apart in emergencies than women are.

☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly Agree

☐ Do not answer

26. Every woman needs a male partner who will cherish her.

☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly Agree

☐ Do not answer

27. Men usually try to dominate conversations when talking to women.

☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly Agree

☐ Do not answer

28. A woman will never be truly fulfilled in life if she doesn't have a committed, long-term

relationship with a man.

29. Men are mainly useful to provide financial security for women.

☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly Agree

☐ Do not answer

30. Even men who claim to be sensitive to women's rights really want a traditional relationship

at home, with the woman performing most of the housekeeping and childcare.

☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly Agree

☐ Do not answer

31. When it comes down to it, most men are really like children.

☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly Agree

☐ Do not answer

`

32. Most men sexually harass women, even if only in subtle ways, once they are in a position of power over them.

☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly Agree

☐ Do not answer

33. Most men pay lip service to equality for women, but can't handle having a woman as an equal.

☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly Agree

☐ Do not answer

34. When men act to "help" women, they are often trying to prove they are better than women.

☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly Agree

☐ Do not answer

35. Women are incomplete without men.

☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly Agree

☐ Do not answer

36. Men act babies when they are sick.

☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly Agree

☐ Do not answer

37. Even if both members of a couple work, the woman ought to be more attentive to taking care of her man at home.

☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly Agree

☐ Do not answer

38. Men are less likely to fall apart in emergencies than women are.

`

☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly Agree

☐ Do not answer

39. Every woman needs a male partner who will cherish her.

☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly Agree

☐ Do not answer

40. Every woman ought to have a man she adores.

☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly Agree

☐ Do not answer

41. Men are more willing to put themselves in danger to protect others.

☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly Agree

☐ Do not answer

42. Men are more willing to take risks than women.

☐ Strongly Disagree ☐ Disagree ☐ Neither Agree nor Disagree ☐ Agree ☐ Strongly Agree

☐ Do not answer