

DISSERTATION
STEREOTYPES OF OLDER ADULT LESBIANS AND GAY MEN

Submitted by
Sara L. Wright
Department of Psychology

In partial fulfillment of the requirements
For the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

Colorado State University
Fort Collins, Colorado

Summer 2005

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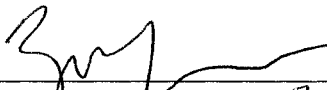
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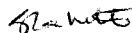


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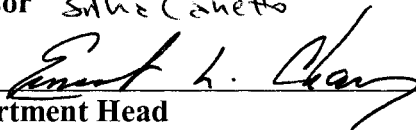
Cheryl L. Asmus



David Macpherson



Advisor Silvia Cahetto



Department Head

ABSTRACT OF DISSERTATION

STEREOTYPES OF OLDER ADULT LESBIANS AND GAY MEN

Past research has examined stereotypes of sexual orientation-unspecified adult and older adult women and men. There has also been research on stereotypes of age-unspecified lesbians and gay men. No research to date, however, has formally focused on stereotypes of older adult lesbians and gay men. This study examined stereotypes of older adult (age 65) lesbians and gay men as compared to stereotypes of older adult heterosexual women and men and stereotypes of adult (age 35) sexual minority and heterosexual women and men. It also considered the possible relationship of the sex and gender ideology of the respondent to stereotyping.

On attributes reflecting conventionally feminine and masculine physical characteristics, role behaviors, and traits, target gender and target sexual orientation together were most related to perceptions. Both 35- and 65-year-old heterosexual women were viewed in similar ways, but different from heterosexual men. However, 35- and 65-year-old lesbians were perceived as similar to 35- and 65-year-old heterosexual men in terms of conventional masculine traits, while 35- and 65-year-old gay men were believed to be like 35- and 65-year-old heterosexual women in terms of conventional feminine and masculine physical characteristics and traits. Stereotypes of gay men were more distinct than stereotypes of lesbians. When age-linked attributes were examined, the age of the target appeared to be most related to stereotypes, as compared to the sex of the target or the sexual orientation of the target. Specifically, older adult sexual minorities were

perceived as similar to older adult heterosexuals on age-related attributes reflecting health and energy. At the same time, older adult sexual minorities were considered different from older adult heterosexuals on attributes reflecting judiciousness, instrumental role behaviors, and conventional feminine physical characteristics. Respondent sex and respondent gender ideology had minimal influence on the content of stereotypes. These findings point to the necessity of considering the relationships among target gender, age, and sexual orientation when conceptualizing gender and aging stereotypes.

Sara L. Wright
Psychology Department
Colorado State University
Fort Collins, CO 80523
Summer 2005

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First, I would like to thank Richard. Your endless support and love have allowed me to complete this work and degree. You have sacrificed so much for me over the past five years.

I would like to thank all of my committee members for their support and persistence throughout this process. Thank you to my advisor, Silvia Sara Canetto. Your modeling and high expectations have helped me to stretch myself intellectually and to become engaged in working toward an egalitarian world. Thank you to my other committee members, Zinta Byrne, Cheryl Asmus, and David MacPhee. Your suggestions and perspectives will continue to assist me in developing this project.

I would also like to thank several other people who have been integral in the completion of this work. Thank you to Jim Zumbrunnen. Your statistical consultation was priceless. Thank you to Samantha Farro, Lily Brown, and Amy VandeWeghe. Your stellar assistance with data collection and statistical entry helped me to complete this project on time.

I would also like to acknowledge the other members of my graduating class (Carolyn, Cathy, Jen C., Jen L., Joe, Kim, and Phebe), all of whom have provided support and laughter over the years. Thanks also to friends from other classes who have done the same. Thank you to my long-time friends, Ann and Evangeline, and my sister, Jess. You have been vital to my growth.

DEDICATION

This dissertation and consequent degree are dedicated to my father, Edward Weisenbach, my mother, Diana Berlin, and my husband, Richard Wright. Your love, compassion, and understanding have made this work possible. My gratitude to you is endless.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Theories of Stereotyping

Stereotypes are commonly defined as overgeneralizations about individuals who belong to a particular group. They can be positive, but are most often negative and defy change (Plous, 2003). According to Deaux and Kite (1993), there are three theories about stereotyping. The sociocultural theory proposes that stereotypes represent dominant belief systems. A second theory is that stereotypes are formed and maintained because they strengthen identity. A third perspective suggests that stereotyping is a cognitive strategy. According to these theories, stereotypes have positive functions for society and/or for the individual. Stereotypes, however, also yield negative effects for both the individual being stereotyped and the stereotyping individual. With regard to the former, there is evidence that stereotyping can influence the ways in which personality traits of the stereotyped group are perceived (e.g., Johnson, Trawalter, & Dovidio, 2000); that stereotypes can result in self-fulfilling prophecies (e.g., Snyder, Berscheid, & Tanke, 1977); and that stereotypes affect the performance of stereotyped groups in stereotyped areas (e.g., Levy & Langer, 1994). With regard to the latter, studies have found that, after being primed with a stereotype of a particular group, stereotyping individuals tend to behave in ways congruent with that stereotype (e.g., Bargh, Chen, & Burrows, 1996).

Identifying the stereotypes associated with various social groups is essential. It can increase understanding of how other's perceptions of individuals belonging to

stereotyped groups might be affected by stereotypes and of how the behavior of individuals belonging to stereotyped groups may be influenced. It can also illuminate the potential harmful effects of stereotyping for individuals doing the stereotyping.

The Current Study

One commonly stereotyped group of persons is older adults. In the United States nearly 13% of the population is aged 65 or older. In the year 2030 this percentage is expected to increase to 20% (APA Working Group on the Older Adult, 1998). Some of these older adults are lesbian or gay. According to Cahill, South, and Spade (2000) 1 million to 2.8 million older adults in the U.S. identify as lesbian or gay. Based upon 2000 U.S. Census data, this number represents approximately 2.9 to 3 percent of older adults (U.S. Census Bureau, 2001).

Past research has examined stereotypes of age-unspecified and sexual orientation-unspecified women and men (e.g., Allen, 1995; Cejka & Eagly, 1999; Conway & Vartanian, 2000; Di Dio, Saragove, Koestner, & Aubé, 1996; Hosoda & Stone, 2000; Krueger, Hasman, Acevodo, & Villano, 2003; Prentice & Carranza, 2002; Six & Eckes, 1991; Spence & Buckner, 2000). There has also been research on stereotypes of sexual orientation-unspecified older adult women and men (e. g., Canetto, Kaminski, & Felicio, 1995; Deutsch, Zalenski, & Clark, 1986; Harris, 1994; Kite, Deaux, & Miele, 1991; O'Connell & Rotter, 1979; Walsh & Connor, 1979). Finally, there has been research on age-unspecified lesbians and gay men (e.g., Eliason, Donelan, & Randall, 1992; Gross, Green, Storck, & Vanyur, 1980; Heaven & Oxman, 1999; Herek, 2002; Karr, 1978; Kite & Deaux, 1987; Krulewitz & Nash, 1980; Laner & Laner, 1979, 1980; Madon, 1997; Millham, San Miguel, & Kellog, 1976; Page & Yee, 1986; Snyder & Uranowitz, 1978;

Taylor, 1983; Weissbach & Zagon, 1975). No research to date, however, has formally examined stereotypes of older adult lesbians and gay men. This study sought to expand our understanding of stereotypes of older adults by focusing on stereotypes of older adult lesbians and gay men (sexual minorities). Specifically, it aimed at comparing stereotypes of older adult (age 65) lesbians and gay men with those of older adult heterosexual women and men. It also sought to understand how stereotypes of older adult sexual minority and heterosexual individuals compare to stereotypes of adult (age 35) sexual minority and heterosexual individuals. Both the content (the kind) and the average valence (how positive or negative) of stereotypes were examined. Consistent with past research on stereotypes, this study also considered the possible relationship of the sex and gender ideology of the respondent to stereotype content and valence. Gender ideology can be conceptualized as the ideas that people hold about the social roles of women and men.

Stereotypes of Age-Unspecified, Sexual Orientation-Unspecified Women and Men

Stereotype content. Studies suggest that women and men are generally believed to be different (Allen, 1995; Cejka & Eagly, 1999; Conway & Vartanian, 2000; Di Dio et al., 1996; Krueger et al., 2003; Prentice & Carranza, 2002; Six & Eckes, 1991; Spence & Buckner, 2000). This assumption reflect two dimensions: (a) beliefs that women are warm, sensitive, and concerned about the well being of others (Crawford & Unger, 2000; Kite, 2001), defined as communal (Bakan, 1966); and (b) beliefs that men are confident, commanding, independent, objective, and aggressive (Crawford & Unger, 2000; Kite, 2001), defined as agentic (Bakan, 1966).

For example, Allen (1995) asked females and males to specify the proportion of females and males who possess a series of traits. Results showed that traits thought to be more prevalent in women included “aware of others’ feelings” (p. 590), “kind” (p. 590), and “understanding” (p. 590). Traits believed to be found more often in men included “independent” (p. 590), “competitive” (p. 590), and “active” (p. 590). Similarly, Di Dio and colleagues (1996) asked females and males to rate the importance of 18 values to the typical woman and the typical man. Values judged to be most important to women included “true friendship” (p. 627), “inner harmony” (p. 627), “mature love” (p. 627), and “family security” (p. 627). Values thought to be most important to men included “social recognition” (p. 627), “national security” (p. 627), “accomplishment” (p. 627), and “freedom” (p. 627). Also, Prentice and Carranza (2002) asked females and males to rate the typicality for women and men of a list of traits that varied in conventional “gender-appropriateness and social desirability” (p. 271). They found that traits such as “warm and kind” (p. 273), “sensitive” (p. 273), and “patient” (p. 273) were more often associated with women than with men, while traits such as “leadership ability” (p. 274), “rational” (p. 274), and “forceful” (p. 274) were more frequently associated with men than with women.

While the aforementioned studies focused on gender stereotypic traits, Deaux and Lewis (1984) provided evidence that information about occupations (e.g., “police officer;” p. 999), role behaviors (e.g., “tends the house;” p. 999), and physical characteristics (e.g., “dainty;” p. 999), is also important in perceptions of women and men. As a result, they argued that stereotypes contain multiple components. In the first part of this study, females and males were provided with information about a person’s

sex and role behaviors, which were described as conventionally feminine (e.g., “takes care of children;” p. 994), conventionally masculine (e.g., “head of household;” p. 994), or mixed (e.g., “takes care of children;” p. 994 and “head of household;” p. 994).

Participants were then asked to estimate the likelihood that the person also possessed a number of traits and physical characteristics and would be in certain occupations. In the second part of this study, a different sample of females and males was provided with information about a target person’s sex and traits, which were described as conventionally feminine (e.g., “emotional;” p. 994), conventionally masculine (e.g., “independent;” p. 994), or mixed (e.g., “emotional;” p. 994 and “independent;” p. 994) and were asked to estimate the likelihood that the person also exhibited a number of role behaviors and physical characteristics, and would be in different occupations. In the third part of this study, a different sample of respondents was asked to indicate the probability that a target woman, man, or person with conventionally feminine, conventionally masculine, or conventionally feminine and masculine role behaviors, occupations (e.g., “truck driver;” p. 994, “school teacher;” p. 994) or physical characteristics (e.g., “soft voice;” p. 999, “strong;” p. 999) possessed other conventionally feminine and masculine attributes representative of the other stereotype components.

Results across this multi-part study illustrated that having knowledge of one stereotype component affected the way that other components were viewed. For example, having information about whether a person’s role behavior is conventionally feminine, masculine, or androgynous affected whether that person was stereotyped as having conventionally masculine, feminine, or androgynous personality traits.

Stereotype valence. Research addressing the average valence of the stereotypes associated with women and men has found that people hold positive, negative, and neutral stereotypes of women and men. Stereotypes associated with women, however, tend to be perceived as more positive than stereotypes associated with men (Kite, 2001). For example, Carpenter (1994) asked females and males to list different types of women and men. A separate group of participants from those who generated the types then rated each type on a scale of “1” (negative) to “7” (positive; it is unknown whether the latter group of participants was uninformed to whether each subtype was associated with a woman or with a man). Subtypes associated with women were significantly more positive than those associated with men.

At the same time, research has shown that stereotypes of women in traditional roles that are not as socially valued (e.g., homemaker) tend to be perceived more positively than stereotypes of women in nontraditional roles that are more highly socially valued (e.g., career woman; Eagly & Mladinic, 1989; Glick, Diebold, Bailey-Werner, & Zhu, 1997; Haddock & Zanna, 1994). For example, respondents in a study by Eagly and Mladinic (1989) perceived women as inferior to men on attributes such as “independent,” “self-confident,” and “makes decisions easily.” Similarly, Haddock and Zanna (1994) demonstrated that feminists were evaluated more negatively than housewives. Together, these research findings suggest that while stereotypes of women are more positive than stereotypes of men, stereotypes of women in more highly valued social roles are appraised more negatively than stereotypes of women that reflect less socially valued, roles.

Respondent sex. Research has examined the potential relationship of respondent characteristics to the stereotype content of women and men. Research examining the relationship between respondent sex and the content of gender stereotypes suggests that females and males tend to agree on these stereotypes (Matlin, 2002). For example, Nesbitt and Penn (2000) found that women and men's ratings of the typical woman and typical man correlated from .89 to .95. Similarly, Hosoda and Stone (2000) showed that females and males agreed about whether an attribute was associated with women or men on 275 of 300 attributes. Also, Six and Eckes (1991), Conway and Vartanian (2000), and Krueger and colleagues (2003) showed that females and males stereotyped women and men similarly. Just one study has examined respondent sex differences with regard to the valence of stereotypes held of women and men (Carpenter, 1994). This study showed that male participants listed equally positive types of women and men, whereas female participants listed more positive types of women than of men.

Respondent gender ideology. The gender ideology held by women and men is also related to gender stereotyping. Belk and Snell (1986) found that women and men who held traditional stereotypes of women, such as views that women are sillier and less decisive than men, tended to also hold more conventional gender ideology with regard to women, such as beliefs that women should be submissive to their husbands in marriage. Furthermore, Spence and Buckner (2000) showed that stereotyping women and men in terms of expressive traits did not predict respondent gender ideology. Males, however, who perceived a large difference between women and men with regard to instrumental traits tended to have a more traditional gender ideology than males who did not perceive

this difference. It is unclear from these studies whether an individual's gender ideology associated with the valence of stereotypes held of women and men.

Stereotypes of Sexual Orientation-Unspecified Older Women and Men

Stereotype content. Studies have also examined stereotypes of sexual orientation-unspecified older women and men. These studies have shown that older women and men tend to be perceived as similar to each other with regard to age-related attributes (Canetto et al., 1995; Kite et al., 1991). For example, Kite and colleagues (1991) asked younger and older female and male respondents to rate the probability on a scale of 0 to 100 that 35-year-old and 65-year-old women and men possess traits, physical characteristics, and role behaviors found to be associated with older adults and with women and men. They found that older women and men were considered similar on all age-related attributes with the exception of "Positive Physical" (p. 23) attributes, which older women were rated as more likely to possess. Older women and men were assigned higher probability ratings on the "Negative Physical" (p. 23) factor (e.g., "wrinkled;" p. 24); the "Negative Personality" (p. 23) factor (e.g., "grouchy;" p. 24); and the "Dejected" (p. 23) factor (e.g., "lonely;" p. 24) than were adult women and men. Finally, older women and men were assigned lower probability ratings on the "Positive Physical" (p. 23) factor (e.g., "healthy;" p. 24) and the "Sociable" (p. 23) factor (e.g., "has lots of friends;" p. 24) than were adult women and men.

Kite and colleagues (1991) as well as other studies (Canetto et al., 1995; Deutsch et al., 1986), however, found that older women tend to be perceived as different from older men with regard to gender-related attributes. For example, older men tend to be rated as more cognitively competent than older women (Canetto et al., 1995) and more

physically attractive than older women (Deutsch et al., 1986; Harris, 1994). Kite and colleagues (1991) found that adult and older adult men were thought more likely to possess conventionally masculine physical characteristics such as “sturdy,” and to engage in conventionally masculine role behaviors such as “assumes financial obligations” than were adult and older adult women. Adult and older adult women were believed more likely to possess conventionally feminine physical characteristics such as “soft;” to possess conventionally feminine traits such as “warm;” and to engage in conventionally feminine role behaviors such as “does the laundry” than were adult and older adult men. Canetto and colleagues (1995) found that older women were perceived as being more passive and dependent than were older men. Older women were also thought of as neater in physical appearance than older men (Canetto et al., 1995), a finding that is consistent with that of Kite and colleagues (1991). Together, research findings on gender and aging stereotypes suggest that older women and men are thought to be similar on age-related attributes, but different with regard to gender-related attributes.

At the same time, some studies have shown that gender-related stereotypes change with age. The most replicated finding is that both female and male older adults are perceived to lose traditionally masculine characteristics with age. Naus (1973) found that older men are perceived as less instrumental and decisive than younger men. Similarly, Gekoski and Knox (1990) showed that undergraduates believe that sex-unspecified older adults become less instrumental with age, while Kite et al. (1991) found that female and male older adults are thought to decrease in masculine characteristics (e.g., “strong,” “assumes financial obligations,” “independent”) with age.

Stereotype valence. It is unclear how the average valence of stereotypes associated with older adults compares to the average valence of stereotypes associated with adults. Research indicates that both negative and positive stereotypes are associated with older adults. The valence of those stereotypes differs, however, depending on the sex of the older adult. Older women are perceived more positively in terms of expressive traits, while older men are perceived more positively in terms of instrumental traits (Canetto et al., 1995; O'Connell & Rotter, 1979).

Respondent sex. Research has examined the potential relationship of respondent characteristics to the stereotype content of older adults. The relationship of respondent sex to the content of stereotypes of older adult women and men has yielded mixed findings. Some studies found that females and males do not differ with regard to the content of the stereotypes they associate with older adults (Canetto et al., 1995; Walsh & Connor, 1979). For example, Canetto and colleagues (1995) found no differences in how female and male respondents rated typical and optimal aging older adult women and men. Other studies have found differences in the content of the stereotypes females and males associate with older adults (Deutsch et al., 1986; Kite et al., 1991). For example, Kite and colleagues (1991) found that females rated older adults as more likely to possess attributes that loaded onto the “Stimulating Personality” (p. 24), “Positive Physical” (p. 24), and “Sociable” (p. 24) factors than did males. The reason for this discrepancy is unclear. While all studies with dissimilar findings used different scales to assess stereotypes, all studies assessed for aging and gender stereotypes, and all included younger and older adult respondents. With regard to the relationship between respondent sex and the average valence of stereotypes of older adult women and men, studies

suggest that females tend to rate older adults more positively than do males (Kite et al., 1991; O'Connell & Rotter, 1979).

Respondent gender ideology. To date, no study has examined how respondent gender ideology may relate to the content of stereotypes associated with older adult women and men. There is also no research on the relationship between respondent gender ideology and the valence of stereotypes associated with older adult women and men.

Stereotypes of Age-Unspecified Lesbians and Gay Men

Stereotype content. Research on stereotypes of lesbians and gay men indicates that sexual minorities are typically assumed to have characteristics that are distinct from those of heterosexual women and men. The dominant perception is that lesbians are like heterosexual men and that gay men are similar to heterosexual women (Eliason et al., 1992; Gross et al., 1980; Herek, 2002; Karr, 1978; Kite & Deaux, 1987; Madon, 1997; Millham et al., 1976; Page & Yee, 1986; Taylor, 1983; Viss & Burn, 1992; Weissbach & Zagon, 1975). This finding has been referred to as the implicit inversion theory (Kite & Deaux, 1987). For example, Kite and Deaux (1987) found that the most frequently mentioned attributes of gay men included “feminine” (p. 88), “high-pitched voice” (p. 88), “feminine qualities” (p. 88), “wears jewelry” (p. 88), “feminine walk” (p. 88), and “feminine mannerisms” (p. 88). Among the respondents’ most frequently mentioned attributes of lesbians were “masculine” (p. 88), “short hair” (p. 88), “masculine appearance” (p. 88), and “wear masculine clothing” (p. 88). Also in Kite and Deaux’ study, the correlation between attributes associated with gay men and attributes associated with heterosexual women was greater than the correlation between attributes associated with gay men and attributes associated with heterosexual men. Likewise, the

correlation between stereotypes of lesbians and stereotypes of heterosexual men was larger than the correlation between stereotypes of lesbians and stereotypes of heterosexual women. Thus, gay men were thought to be more similar to heterosexual women than to heterosexual men, while lesbians were perceived to be more similar to heterosexual men than to heterosexual women,

Likewise, in a study of stereotypes of gay men, Madon (1997) found that female and male college students (81% of whom identified as heterosexual) attributed to gay men qualities which are typically thought of as positive in women, such as “warm-hearted” (p. 677), “sensitive” (p. 677), and “good listeners” (p. 677). Respondents also associated with gay men characteristics that violate conventional male behavior, such as “limp wristed,” (p. 677), “soft voices” (p. 677), and “dainty” (p. 677). Respondents rated qualities that violate conventional male behavior, such as “limp wristed” (p. 679) and “transvestites” (p. 679) as more characteristic of gay men than qualities that are typically thought of as positive in women, such as “warm-hearted” (p. 679) and “sensitive” (p. 679). Similarly, in a study of stereotypes of lesbians, Eliason and colleagues (1992) asked female nursing students between the ages of 19 and 48 (98% of whom identified as heterosexual) to answer three open-ended questions related to perceptions of lesbians. A content analysis revealed that respondents commonly believed that lesbians can be identified by physical characteristics alone, such as masculine dress, hairstyle, and mannerisms.

Stereotype valence. Are stereotypes of sexual minorities more negative or more positive than stereotypes of heterosexuals? To date, no study has examined how the average valence of stereotypes of lesbians and gay men compare to the average valence

of stereotypes of heterosexual women and men. Also, no study has asked whether stereotypes of lesbians are more or less positive than stereotypes of gay men. At the same time, some information about valence can be inferred when examining the content of attributes commonly associated with lesbians and gay men. Overall, it appears that negative, positive, and neutral characteristics are associated with sexual minorities. For example Kite and Deaux (1987) found that negative attributes, such as “strange” (p. 88) and “unattractive” (p. 88) were commonly associated with lesbians, while “lisp” (p. 88) was a common attribute associated with gay men. Positive attributes were also associated with lesbians (e.g., “athletic,” p. 88) and gay men (e.g., “friendly;” p. 88). In addition, neutral descriptors were associated with lesbians (e.g., “short hair;” p. 88) and with gay men (e.g., “wear jewelry;” p. 88). Gay men and heterosexual women tend to be rated more positively than lesbians and heterosexual men with regard to traditionally feminine attributes like “helpful” and “expressive,” while lesbians and heterosexual men tend to be rated more positively than gay men and heterosexual women with regard to traditionally masculine traits such as “ambitious” and “independent” (Taylor, 1983).

Respondent sex. Research has examined the potential relationship of respondent characteristics to the stereotype content of lesbians and gay men (Gross et al., 1980; Herek, 2002; Kite & Deaux, 1987; Madon, 1997; Millham et al., 1976; Page & Yee, 1986). One of the most commonly studied characteristics is the sex of the respondent. Overall, this research indicates that findings are mixed with regard to how females and males stereotype sexual minorities. For example, one study by Kite and Deaux (1987) found no differences in how females and males stereotyped lesbians and gay men on a probability rating scale. Similarly, Madon (1997) found no differences in the stereotypes

that females and males associated with gay men. Specifically, both females and males perceived gay men as having qualities that are typically thought to be positive in women and/ or that violate conventional masculine behavior. Other studies, however, have shown that females and males differ with regard to how they stereotype lesbians and gay men. In some cases, males held more rigid stereotypes of sexual minorities. Herek (2002) found that males were more likely than females to view gay men as child molesters. When respondents freely generate stereotypic attributes, males have also been shown to perceive more similarity between lesbians and heterosexual men and between lesbians and gay men than females (Kite & Deaux, 1987). In one study, however, females were more inflexible in their perceptions of sexual minorities. Millham and colleagues (1976) found that females stereotyped lesbians as having more traditionally masculine characteristics than did males. Still, in yet another study, an interaction was found between participant sex and target sex. Gross and colleagues (1980) asked participants to rate gay and heterosexual males on a scale of one to nine with regard to traits that had previously been associated with heterosexual and/ or gay males (e.g., “aggressive;” p. 310). They also asked participants to rate lesbian and heterosexual females on a similar scale that included traits that had previously been associated with heterosexual and/ or sexual minority females (e.g., “liberated;” p. 310). Results illustrated that males stereotyped gay males more strongly than did females, while females stereotyped lesbians more strongly than did males.

Only one study has examined the relationship between respondent sex and the valence of sexual minority stereotypes. Heaven and Oxman (1999) examined the extent to which females and males agreed with 10 subjectively negative stereotypes of lesbians

and gay men, such as “insecure” (p. 112), “emotional” (p. 112), and “confused” (p. 112). In this study, males viewed sexual minorities more negatively than did females.

Respondent gender ideology. Although research has specified that respondent gender ideology is correlated with negative attitudes toward sexual minorities (e.g., Basow & Johnson, 2000; Louderback & Whitley, 1997), only one study to date has examined the relationship between respondent gender ideology and stereotype content of sexual minorities. Krulewitz and Nash (1980) assessed sex role attitudes and stereotypes associated with a sex-unspecified/ sexual minority person. They found that males with a traditional gender ideology stereotyped sexual minority individuals as more immoral and less well adjusted than did males with a less traditional gender ideology. Female participants were not included in this study. While it is not entirely clear from this study whether respondent gender ideology and the average valence of stereotypes of sexual minorities are related, it seems as though a more traditional gender ideology is related to negative stereotyping of sexual minorities.

This Study: Its Background and its Unique Contributions

The current study is a replication and extension of studies examining the content and valence of stereotypes of age-unspecified, sexual orientation-unspecified women and men (e.g., Allen, 1995; Cejka & Eagly, 1999; Conway & Vartanian, 2000; Di Dio et al., 1996; Hosoda & Stone, 2000; Krueger et al., 2003; Prentice & Carranza, 2002; Six & Eckes, 1991; Spence & Buckner, 2000). It also models itself after studies examining stereotypes of sexual orientation-unspecified older adult women and men (e. g., Canetto et al., 1995; Deutsch et al., 1986; Harris, 1994; Kite et al., 1991; O’Connell & Rotter, 1979; Walsh & Connor, 1979) and studies assessing views of age-unspecified sexual

minorities (e.g., Eliason, et al., 1992; Gross et al., 1980; Heaven & Oxman, 1999; Herek, 2002; Karr, 1978; Kite & Deaux, 1987; Krulewitz & Nash, 1980; Laner & Laner, 1979, 1980; Madon, 1997; Millham et al., 1976; Page & Yee, 1986; Snyder & Uranowitz, 1978; Taylor, 1983; Weissbach & Zagon, 1975). At the same time, the current study is unique in that it also assesses the content and valence of stereotypes of older adult sexual minorities.

Similar to past studies, this study aims to ascertain how respondent sex may relate to the content of stereotypes of adult and older adult heterosexual women and men (e.g., Belk & Snell, 1986; Canetto et al., 1995; Carpenter, 1994; Conway & Vartanian, 2000; Deutsch et al., 1986; Hosoda & Stone, 2000; Kite et al., 1991; Krueger et al., 2003; Nesbitt & Penn, 2000; O'Connell & Rotter, 1979; Six & Eckes, 1991; Walsh & Connor, 1979) and the content and valence of stereotypes of adult sexual minorities (e.g., Gross et al., 1980; Heaven & Oxman, 1999; Herek, 2002; Kite & Deaux, 1997; Madon, 1997; Millham et al., 1976; Page & Yee, 1986). However, unlike these past studies, this study also examines how respondent sex may relate to the content and valence of stereotypes of older adult sexual minorities. Also, consistent with past studies, this study seeks to understand whether respondent gender ideology may relate to the content of stereotypes of adult heterosexual and sexual minority women and men (e.g., Belk & Snell, 1986; Krulewitz & Nash, 1980; Spence & Buckner, 2000). Finally, expanding on past studies, this study also assesses how respondent gender ideology may be related to the content of stereotypes of older adult heterosexuals and older adult sexual minorities, as well as the valence of stereotypes associated with adult heterosexuals and adult sexual minorities and older adult heterosexual and sexual minority individuals.

Aim One: Stereotype content

First, this study sought to understand the content of stereotypes of older adult lesbians and gay men, as compared to the content of stereotypes of older adult heterosexual women and men, and the content of stereotypes of adult sexual minority and heterosexual women and men. Hypotheses are based on past research.

Hypothesis One. Consistent with past research (e.g., Canetto et al., 1995; Kite et al., 1991), it was expected that older adults, regardless of sex or sexual orientation, would be perceived as more likely to possess aging-related attributes, such as “feeble,” “tired,” and “wise” than would adults.

Hypothesis Two. Consistent with previous studies (e.g., Gekoski & Knox, 1990; Kite et al., 1991), it was predicted that older adults, regardless of sex or sexual orientation, would be perceived as less likely to possess traditionally masculine attributes, such as “strong,” “assumes financial obligations,” and “competitive” than would adults.

Hypothesis Three. Consistent with past research (e.g., Eliason et al, 1992; Kite & Deaux, 1987) it was anticipated that adult and older adult lesbians and heterosexual men would be rated as more likely to possess traditionally masculine attributes than would adult and older adult gay men and heterosexual women, while adult and older adult gay men and heterosexual women would be rated as more likely to possess traditionally feminine attributes than would adult and older adult lesbians and heterosexual men.

Aim Two: Stereotype Valence

Second, this study aimed to know the valence of stereotypes of older adult lesbians and gay men, as compared to the valence of stereotypes of older adult heterosexual

women and men and adult sexual minority and heterosexual women and men. One hypothesis, based on past research, was considered.

Hypothesis four. Consistent with research by Taylor (1983), Eagly and Mladinic (1989), and Carpenter (1994) and pursuant with the implicit inversion theory (Kite & Deaux, 1987) it was predicted that the valence of stereotypes of heterosexual women and gay men would be more positive than the valence of stereotypes of heterosexual men and lesbians.

Aim Three: Respondent Sex

Third, this study sought to understand the relationship of respondent sex to the content and valence of stereotypes of adult and older adult lesbians and gay men, and adult and older adult female and male heterosexuals. Hypotheses are consistent with prior research.

Hypothesis five. Because prior research on how respondent sex relates to the content of aging stereotypes is mixed, two different possibilities were considered. On the one hand, research that has found that females and males stereotype older adults in similar ways would lead to the prediction that females and males would be similar in how they stereotyped adults and older adults on age-linked attributes (stereotype content; see Canetto et al., 1995; Walsh & Connor, 1979). On the other hand, research that has found differences in how females and males stereotype older adults would lead to the prediction that females and males would be different in how they stereotyped adults and older adults on age-linked attributes (stereotype content; see Deutsch et al., 1995; Kite et al., 1991).

Hypothesis six. Consistent with prior research (Kite et al., 1991; O'Conner & Rotter, 1979) it was expected that males would view older adults more negatively than would females (stereotype valence).

Hypothesis seven. (a) Based on prior research (e.g., Conway & Vartanian, 2000; Six & Eckes, 1991) it was expected that females and males would not differ in how they stereotyped heterosexual women and men (stereotype content); (b) With regard to differences in how females and males would stereotype sexual minorities, two different possible outcomes were surmised based on prior research. On the one hand, research that has shown no differences in how females and males stereotype sexual minorities would lead to the prediction that females and males would be similar in how they stereotyped lesbians and gay men (stereotype content; see Kite & Deaux, 1987; Madon, 1997; Page & Yee, 1986). On the other hand, research that has shown differences in how females and males stereotype sexual minorities would lead to the expectation that females and males would differ in how they stereotyped lesbians and gay men (stereotype content; see Gross et al., 1980; Herek, 2002; Kite & Deaux, 1987; Millham et al., 1976).

Hypothesis eight. (a) Consistent with prior research (Carpenter, 1994) it was anticipated that male respondents would view heterosexual women and heterosexual men in equally positive/ negative ways, but that female respondents would view heterosexual women more positively than they would view heterosexual men (stereotype valence); (b) In addition, based on research by Heaven and Oxman (1999) male respondents were expected to stereotype sexual minorities more negatively than were female respondents. (stereotype valence).

Aim Four: Respondent Gender Ideology

Lastly, this study aimed to understand the relationship of respondent gender ideology to the content and valence of stereotypes of adult and older adult lesbians, gay men, and female and male heterosexuals. Hypotheses are based on past research.

Hypothesis nine. (a) Consistent with research by Belk and Snell (1986) and Spence and Buckner (2000) it was anticipated that respondents low in sex role egalitarianism would view heterosexual women and men as more likely to possess gender-linked attributes than would respondents high in sex role egalitarianism (stereotype content); (b) Furthermore, based on the implicit inversion theory (Kite & Deaux, 1987) it was expected that respondents low in sex role egalitarianism would view lesbians as more similar to heterosexual men and would view gay men as more similar to heterosexual women on gender-linked attributes than would respondents high in sex role egalitarianism (stereotype content).

Hypothesis ten. Based on research by Krulewitz and Nash (1980) it was anticipated that respondents low in sex role egalitarianism would view sexual minorities more negatively than would respondents high in sex role egalitarianism (stereotype valence).

CHAPTER II

METHOD

Design

The design of this study featured five independent variables: target sex (female or male), target age (35 or 65), target sexual orientation (sexual minority or heterosexual), respondent sex (female or male), and respondent gender ideology (high, middle, or low sex role egalitarianism). The ages of 35 and 65 were selected as target ages to enhance comparability with a past study of perceptions of adults and older adults (Kite et al., 1991). Dependent variables were the content and valence of stereotypes of gender, aging, and sexual orientation.

Participants

Participants signed-up for the study through the “General Psychology” research credits website. The study’s advertisement (see Appendix A) specified that the study examined characteristics that people associate with adults and older adults. The advertisement also outlined the procedures that would be followed during the data collection session and requested that participants bring the names and addresses of two older adult family members or friends (for use in a different study) to the data collection session. The advertisement told potential participants that they would receive one “General Psychology” research credit for participating in the study, which helped them to fulfill course research requirements. Participation in the study was voluntary. Participants completed all measures in groups of no more than 30 students.

Participants were 281 females and 113 males ($N = 394$) between the ages of 18 and 28 ($M = 18.71$) from “General Psychology” classes at a large Western university. One participant who listed her or his age as 17 was excluded from the study. Most (82.4%) of the participants were 18 or 19 years of age. Another 16.1% of participants were between the ages of 20 and 22. The other 1.5% of participants were between the ages of 23 and 28. The majority of participants (73.4%) were in their first year of college, while 14.2%, 7.6%, 3.8%, and 0.8% were in their second, third, fourth and fifth years of college, respectively. Nearly all (97.5%) of the participants identified as “heterosexual.” Two participants (.5%) identified as “lesbian or gay,” two participants (.5%) identified as “bisexual,” while five participants (1.3%) reported being “unsure” of their sexual orientation. Most of the participants (83.5%) described themselves as “European American/ White.” The remaining 16.5% of participants reported their ethnicity as “Latina/ Latino/ Hispanic” (5.8%), “Asian American/ Pacific Islander” (2.3%), “Native American/ American Indian” (.5%), “African American/ Black (.5%), and “Other” (7.1%). Reported socioeconomic backgrounds of participants ranged from “working class” (7.1%), to “middle class” (46.2%), to “upper middle class” (41.1%) to “upper class” (5.3%). About one-third of participants (32.5%) reported growing-up in a “large metropolitan area,” while 28.7% grew-up in a “town,” 27.2% in a “small town,” and 11.7% in a “rural” area. The vast majority of participants (98.5%) reported growing-up in the U.S. Of those who grew-up in the U.S., 59.9% grew-up in the “Rocky Mountain region,” 21.6% in the “Midwest,” 8.4% in the “Southwest,” 2.8% in the “Northwest,” 2.3% in the “Central States,” 2% in the “Northeast,” and 1.3% in the “Southeast.”

Materials

Gender Stereotypes Measure. To assess gender stereotypes, participants were given a 32-item scale, called the Gender Stereotypes Measure (GSM; Appendix B). The GSM was developed by Deaux and Lewis (1983) and adapted by Kite and colleagues (1991). Although a variety of scales have been used to measure gender stereotypes (e.g., see Prentice & Carranza, 2000), most of these include only personality traits commonly associated with women and men. In contrast, the GSM includes six components of gender stereotypes: (a) conventionally feminine and masculine personality traits (e.g., “warm,” “kind,” “self-confident”), (b) conventionally feminine and masculine role behaviors (e.g., “tends the house,” “takes care of children,” “is a head of household”), and (c) conventionally feminine and masculine physical characteristics (e.g., “graceful,” “tall,” “strong”). As previously mentioned, Deaux and Lewis (1984) empirically showed that stereotypes of women and men include not only personality traits, but also role behaviors, physical characteristics, and occupations. For the purposes of the current study and similar to Kite and colleagues (1991), items assessing gender stereotypic occupations were not included.

Personality traits in the GSM scale were adopted by Deaux and Lewis (1983) from the expressive and instrumental scales of the Personal Attributes Questionnaire (Spence, Helmreich, & Stapp, 1974). Physical characteristics and role behaviors were primarily selected by asking females and males to generate descriptors associated with the words “feminine, masculine, male sex role, and female sex role” (Deaux & Lewis, 1983, p. 2). Deaux and Lewis (1983) then had participants rate the probability on a 0-100 point scale that an age-unspecified female or male possesses each attribute. In Deaux and

Lewis' (1983) study, the criteria used for selection of the final set of items were derived from factor analysis and included: a) a statistically significant difference and a large absolute difference between the items; b) a standard deviation of 25 scale points or less; and c) a satisfactory factor loading on the appropriate factor. Alpha coefficients for stereotype components (traits, role behaviors, and physical characteristics) ranged from .66 to .89 (Deaux & Lewis, 1983). Kite and colleagues (1991) used this scale in their study of stereotypes of younger and older adult, sexual orientation unspecified women and men. Kite and Deaux (1987) also used this scale in studying stereotypes of age-unspecified lesbians and gay men. In the current study, one item, "takes initiative with opposite sex" was changed to "takes sexual initiative." This change was made because taking the initiative with the opposite sex would be irrelevant for lesbians and gay men.

Consistent with Deaux and Lewis' (1983), Kite and Deaux' (1987), and Kite and colleagues' (1991) methodology, participants in this study were asked to rate the likelihood on a 0-100 point probability scale that a target person (35-year-old or 65-year-old adult heterosexual woman, heterosexual man, lesbian woman, or gay man) possesses certain stereotypic, gender-related attributes. The average valence of stereotypes was examined by asking participants to rate the valence of each item on a categorical scale ranging from "1" (negative) to "3" (positive).

Aging Stereotypes Measure. To assess aging stereotypes, participants were given a 46-item scale that, for this study, was called the Aging Stereotypes Measure (ASM; Appendix C), which includes stereotypes of older adult women and men developed for a study by Chasteen, Schwarz, and Park (2002). This scale consists of positive and negative attributes associated with sexual orientation-unspecified young and older adults.

Attributes were selected from a pool of 60 traits, which were adopted from studies in which words describing young and/or older people had been pre-tested (Bargh et al., 1996; Hummert, Gartska, Shaner, & Strahm, 1994; Levy, 1996; Rothbaum, 1983; Schmidt & Boland, 1986). Chasteen and colleagues (2002) then asked participants to rate how characteristic each trait was of younger and older adults. From this list, 44 traits were selected that significantly differentiated perceptions of younger and older adults. A second study described in Chasteen and colleagues (2002) demonstrated the utility of these traits by asking younger and older adults to rate how characteristic each trait is of young adults or older adults. Results revealed that traits previously identified as stereotypical of older adults were rated as more typical of older adults than of young adults, while traits previously identified as stereotypical of young adults were rated as more typical of young adults than of older adults.

Two items, “is sexually active” and “is financially stable” were added to the list of items selected by Chasteen and colleagues (2002) for the purpose of the current study. The rationale for this addition is that sex and finances are important domains of human functioning. Without their addition, the aging stereotype questionnaire would have been limited in the arenas of living that it addressed. Consistent with Deaux and Lewis’ (1983), Kite and Deaux’ (1987) and Kite and colleagues’ (1991) methodology, participants in this study were asked to rate the likelihood on a 0-100 point probability scale that a target person (35-year-old or 65-year-old adult heterosexual woman, heterosexual man, lesbian woman, or gay man) possesses certain age-related attributes listed in the modified ASM. The average valence of stereotypes was examined by asking

participants to rate the valence of the aging attribute on a categorical scale ranging from “1” (negative) to “3” (positive).

Sexual Minority Stereotypes Measure. To assess sexual minority stereotypes, participants completed a 31-item scale that, for this study, was called the Sexual Minority Stereotypes Measure (SMSM; Appendix D). Attributes included on the scale were taken from a study by Kite and Deaux (1987). Kite and Deaux asked female and male undergraduates to list all attributes that they associate with heterosexual males, heterosexual females, gay males, and lesbian females. The 31 attributes included in the SMSM were those that in Kite and Deaux (1987) emerged as the most frequently mentioned attributes (i.e., they were mentioned by at least five respondents). For the purposes of this study, the attribute “fag” was not used, so as not to cue participants as to one of the purposes of the study. Also, when the target person was male, the attribute “mother” was changed to “father.”

Consistent with Deaux and Lewis’ (1983), Kite and Deaux’ (1987) and Kite and colleagues’ (1991) methodology, participants in this study were asked to rate the likelihood on a 0-100 point probability scale that a target person (35-year-old or 65-year-old adult heterosexual woman, heterosexual man, lesbian woman, or gay man) possesses certain stereotypic, sexual-orientation-related attributes. The average valence of stereotypes was examined by asking participants to rate the valence of each item on a categorical scale ranging from “1” (negative) to “3” (positive).

Sex Role Egalitarianism Scale (SRES). Gender ideology was measured using King and King’s (1990) 25-item short-form of the SRES (not appended due to copyright restrictions). The SRES contains two short forms (forms BB and KK). Form BB was

selected because it correlated with the full-form B at .95 when both forms were administered on the same occasion. In contrast, form KK correlated with the full-form K at only .83 when both forms were administered on the same occasion (King & King, 1990). The SRES measures “sex-role egalitarianism” (Beere, King, Beere, & King, 1984, p. 564), which is defined by Beere and colleagues (1984) as:

an attitude that causes one to respond to another individual independently of the individual’s sex. One who possesses this attitude believes that the sex of an individual should not influence the perception of an individual’s abilities or the determination of an individual’s rights, obligations, and opportunities (p. 564).

The SRES requires participants to indicate their agreement with statements about women and men assuming nontraditional roles on five-point Likert scale ranging from “strongly agree” to “strongly disagree” (King & King, 1993). High scores indicate an attitude high in sex-role egalitarianism, while low scores indicate an attitude low in sex-role egalitarianism. Five questions for each of five specific domains in which sex-role egalitarianism is relevant are included in form BB. These domains are: marital, parental, employment, social-interpersonal-heterosexual, and educational.

The internal consistency reliability estimate for the short-form BB of the SRES was .94, while the stability coefficient (three-week interval) was .88 (King & King, 1990). Discriminant validity estimates of the short-form BB of the SRES with measures of social desirability have ranged from -.02 in a study of substance abusers and batterers (Stith, Crossman, & Bischof, 1991) to -.14 in a study of police officers (Stith, 1990). Convergent validity of the full-forms of the SRES was found for scales that measure attitudes toward women, such as the Attitudes Toward Women Scale (AWS; Spence &

Helmreich, 1972) and the MacDonald Sex Role Survey (MacDonald, 1974). Correlation coefficients between the AWS and the SRES as well as the MacDonald Sex Role Survey and the SRES ranged from .88 to .81 in studies using college students as participants (King & King, 1986; King, King, Carter, Surface, & Stepanski, 1994).

It should be noted that the SRES measures not only attitudes toward women, but also attitudes toward men. When scores on the AWS were correlated with scores on the subset of items on the SRES that relate to women behaving in a traditionally masculine manner, the relationship was .80, while the relationship between the AWS and scores on the subset of items on the SRES that relate to men behaving in a traditionally feminine manner was .69. Therefore, the subset of items that relate to women engaged in conventional masculine behavior correlated more highly with the AWS than the subset of items that relate to men engaged in conventional feminine behavior, as would be expected. Thus, the SRES appears to measure gender ideology; that is, attitudes about both women and men in traditional and nontraditional roles, rather than only attitudes about women in traditional roles (King & King, 1997).

Demographic Questionnaire. Participants were administered a demographic questionnaire (Appendix E) that asked them to report personal information such as sex, age, sexual orientation, ethnic background, primary language, socioeconomic status of parents, occupation, size of the area in which they grew-up (e.g., rural, small town), region of the U.S. in which they grew-up (if they grew-up in the U.S.; e.g., Midwest, Southwest), the country in which they grew-up (if not the U.S.), and their year in college. In addition, participants were asked a number of questions about their personal contact with older adult women and men and with lesbians and gay men. The first three

questions, which were similar to those used in a previous study of stereotypes of older adult women and men (Canetto et al., 1995), asked participants about the amount of contact they have had with people aged 65 years of age and older, the percentage of that contact which occurred in different life domains (e.g., family, work, school), and the percentage of total contact with people aged 65 years and older that was with women and with men. A modified version of Canetto and colleagues' (1995) questions about contact with older adults was created to measure amount and domains of contact with sexual minorities as well as percentage of contact with lesbians, as compared to percentage of contact with gay men. The last question about contact was adapted from Herek (1988). It asked participants to evaluate on a three-point categorical scale the extent to which their contact with older adult and sexual minority women and men has been positive, neutral, or negative. Higher scores indicate more positive contact.

Procedure

Data were collected in university classrooms by two or three female research assistants, who provided structured verbal instructions to the participants at the onset of the data collection sessions (Appendix F). Potential respondents were asked to sign a consent form (Appendix G) describing the purpose, procedures for, and associated risks and benefits with participating in the study. They were also reminded of the voluntary nature, confidentiality, and anonymity of their responses. Modeling after a procedure used by Kite and Deaux (1987) and Kite and colleagues (1991), participants were given the opportunity to practice making ratings using a probability scale before filling-out the actual study measures. Specifically, on the practice measure, participants were asked to rate an "average" person on six different items (e.g., "how likely or unlikely is it that the

average person has red hair?;” “how likely or unlikely is it that the average person likes pizza?”), then rating how negative or positive they judged each item to be on a three-point Likert scale (Appendix H). For three of those items, participants were given a description of a hypothetical belief about the probability that an “average” person possesses a particular attribute, as well as a completed scale reflecting that belief and how positive or negative that item might be judged to be.

Participants then completed the three stereotype measures, which were interspersed into one measure, as was done by Kite and colleagues (1991). The one measure of stereotypes was named the “People Perceptions Questionnaire” (Appendix I). The item, “head of household,” on the SMSM was changed to “is a head of household” to prevent repeating the item, “is a head of household” from the GSM. To control for ordering effects, one-half of the participants completed probability ratings first, followed by valence ratings. The other half of participants completed valence ratings first, followed by probability ratings. Participants also completed the SRES. The stereotype measures and the SRES were counterbalanced to control for questionnaire ordering effects. On the three stereotype measures, participants were asked to rate the probability that just one of eight target persons (35-year-old heterosexual woman, 35-year-old heterosexual man, 35-year-old lesbian woman, 35-year-old gay man, 65-year-old heterosexual woman, 65-year-old heterosexual man, 65-year-old lesbian woman, or 65-year-old gay man) possesses certain attributes or engages in certain behaviors. A between-participants design was used because previous research has demonstrated that within-participants designs may exaggerate differences between target groups (Kite & Johnson, 1988). Participants completed a demographic form last because it includes

questions about contact with older adults, lesbians, and gay men, which could cue participants as to the purpose of the study and possibly influence responses. Finally, participants were asked to write the names and addresses of two older adult friends and/or family members on stamped envelopes with questionnaire packets inside, and to place the name of the older adult friend or family member on a cover letter to be sent along with the questionnaire packets (see Appendix J). Data from older adult respondents was collected for use in another study. After they completed all measures, participants were given a debriefing form (Appendix K). Each data collection session lasted approximately 45 minutes.

CHAPTER III

RESULTS

Preliminary Analyses

Respondent similarity across independent variables. Pearson chi-square analyses were conducted to check that respondents did not consistently differ across the different levels of the independent variables (target sex, target sexual orientation, target age, respondent sex, and respondent sex role egalitarianism) with regard to various demographic characteristics. An alpha level of .05 was used for all statistical tests. First, results about similarities and differences in demographic characteristics across the different levels of target sex, target age, and target sexual orientation are presented. Respondents who evaluated female targets were similar to respondents who evaluated male targets with regard to ethnic background, $\chi^2(5, N = 393) = 4.48, ns$, the country in which they grew-up, $\chi^2(1, N = 394) = 2.71, ns$, the region of the U.S. in which they grew-up, $\chi^2(6, N = 387) = 2.78, ns$, the size of the city in which they grew-up, $\chi^2(3, N = 394) = 3.03, ns$, sexual orientation, $\chi^2(3, N = 393) = 7.16, ns$, year in college, $\chi^2(4, N = 393) = 1.85, ns$, and socioeconomic status, $\chi^2(3, N = 393) = 3.23, ns$. Respondents who evaluated adult targets were similar to respondents who evaluated older adult targets with regard to ethnic background, $\chi^2(5, N = 393) = 2.98, ns$, the country in which they grew-up, $\chi^2(1, N = 394) = 0.64, ns$, the region of the U.S. in which they grew-up, $\chi^2(6, N = 387) = 8.04, ns$, the size of the city in which they grew-up, $\chi^2(3, N = 394) = 0.50, ns$, sexual orientation, $\chi^2(3, N = 393) = 2.18, ns$, year in college, $\chi^2(4, N = 393) = 3.30, ns$, and socioeconomic

status, $\chi^2(3, N = 393) = 2.83$, *ns*. Respondents who evaluated heterosexual targets were similar to respondents who evaluated sexual minority targets with regard to ethnic background, $\chi^2(5, N = 393) = 4.11$, *ns*, the country in which they grew-up, $\chi^2(1, N = 394) = 0.01$, *ns*, the region of the U.S. in which they grew-up, $\chi^2(6, N = 387) = 2.31$, *ns*, sexual orientation $\chi^2(3, N = 393) = 0.17$, *ns*, year in college, $\chi^2(4, N = 393) = 4.73$, *ns*, and socioeconomic status, $\chi^2(3, N = 393) = 1.23$, *ns*. Respondents evaluating heterosexual targets were different from respondents evaluating sexual minority targets, however, with regard to the size of the city in which they grew-up, $\chi^2(3, N = 394) = 13.48$, $p < .01$. Respondents evaluating sexual minority targets were more likely to have grown up in a “large metropolitan area” than respondents evaluating heterosexual targets, while respondents evaluating heterosexual targets were more likely to have grown-up in a “small town” than respondents evaluating sexual minority targets.

The same analyses were conducted to check for similarities and differences in demographic characteristics across the different levels of respondent sex and respondent sex role egalitarianism. Females and males were similar with regard to ethnic background, $\chi^2(5, N = 393) = 5.20$, *ns*, the region of the U.S. in which they grew-up, $\chi^2(6, N = 387) = 4.03$, *ns*, the size of the city in which they grew-up, $\chi^2(3, N = 394) = 2.89$, *ns*, sexual orientation, $\chi^2(3, N = 393) = 1.26$, *ns*, year in college, $\chi^2(4, N = 393) = 7.48$, *ns*, and socioeconomic status, $\chi^2(3, N = 393) = 2.23$, *ns*. Males were more likely than females, however, to have grown-up outside of the U.S., $\chi^2(1, N = 394) = 4.30$, $p < .05$.

Respondents categorized as low on a measure of sex role egalitarianism were similar to respondents categorized as middle and high on the measure with regard to ethnic background, $\chi^2(10, N = 392) = 4.30$, *ns*, the country in which they grew-up, $\chi^2(2, N$

= 393) = 0.26, *ns*, the region of the U.S. in which they grew-up, $\chi^2(12, N = 386) = 13.88$, *ns*, the size of the city in which they grew up, $\chi^2(6, N = 393) = 6.29$, *ns*, sexual orientation $\chi^2(6, N = 392) = 6.16$, *ns*, year in college, $\chi^2(8, N = 392) = 7.82$, *ns*, and socioeconomic status, $\chi^2(6, N = 392) = 7.93$, *ns*.

To assess whether respondents were similar with regard to the amount and valence of contact they had had with female and male older adults and with female and male sexual minorities on contact variables across the different levels of the independent variables, 2 (target sex) X 2 (target age) X 2 (target sexual orientation) X 2 (respondent sex) X 3 (level of respondent sex role egalitarianism) univariate ANOVAs for unbalanced designs were conducted. An alpha level of .05 was used. Because contact with female and male older adults and female and male sexual minorities is not a primary variable of study and is being used only for descriptive purposes, only main effects are presented.

Respondents at all levels of the independent variables were similar with regard to the amount of contact they reported having with older adults. Of their total contact with older adults, females reported having significantly more contact with female older adults ($M = 58.96$, $SD = 18.40$) than did males ($M = 51.99$, $SD = 15.90$), $F(1, 345) = 6.76$, $p < .05$. Males reported having significantly more contact with male older adults ($M = 47.71$, $SD = 15.99$) than did females ($M = 39.92$, $SD = 17.42$), $F(1, 342) = 9.17$, $p < .01$.

Respondents rating females as compared to males, adults as compared to older adults, heterosexuals as compared to sexual minorities, and respondents categorized as low as compared to medium or high on a measure of sex role egalitarianism did not differ with regard to the amount of contact they reported having with female or male older adults (of their total contact with older adults). Respondents at all levels of all independent

variables were similar with regard to the amount of contact they reported having with older adults in the domains of family, work, school, recreation, public service, and “other” areas, as well as the valence of the contact they reported having with older adults.

Respondents who differed in sex role egalitarianism reported significantly different amounts of contact with sexual minorities, $F(2, 344) = 6.02, p < .01$. Tukey HSD post-hoc analyses revealed that respondents high in sex role egalitarianism reported significantly more contact with sexual minorities ($M = 3.53, SD = 1.62$) than did respondents low in sex role egalitarianism ($M = 4.28, SD = 1.60$). Respondents at all other levels of the independent variables were similar with regard to the amount of contact they reported having with sexual minorities. Of their total contact with sexual minorities, respondents at all levels of all independent variables were similar with regard to the amount of contact they reported having with lesbians and with gay men.

Respondents at all levels of the independent variables were also similar with regard to the amount of contact they reported having with lesbians and gay men in the domains of family and work. Respondents rating females reported having significantly more contact with sexual minorities at school ($M = 28.01, SD = 31.29$) than did respondents rating males ($M = 24.03, SD = 31.81$), $F(1, 330) = 5.03, p < .05$. Respondents at all other levels of the independent variables reported a similar amount of contact with sexual minorities at school. Respondents who differed in sex role egalitarianism reported significantly different amounts of contact with sexual minorities in the recreation domain, $F(2, 312) = 7.15, p < .01$. Tukey HSD post-hoc analyses revealed that respondents high in sex role egalitarianism reported significantly more contact with sexual minorities in the recreation domain ($M = 16.14, SD = 24.66$) than did respondents low in sex role egalitarianism ($M =$

7.73, $SD = 18.50$). Respondents at all other levels of the independent variables were similar with regard to the amount of contact they reported having with sexual minorities in the recreation domain. Males reported having significantly more contact with sexual minorities in the public service sector ($M = 4.54$, $SD = 10.54$) as compared to females ($M = 3.48$, $SD = 8.45$), $F(1, 288) = 4.89$, $p < .05$. Additionally, respondents who differed in sex role egalitarianism reported significantly different amounts of contact with sexual minorities in the public service sector, $F(2, 288) = 4.57$, $p < .05$. Tukey HSD post-hoc analyses, however, revealed no significant differences among the three groups (respondents low, medium, and high in sex role egalitarianism). Respondents at all other levels of the independent variables reported a similar amount of contact with sexual minorities in the public service sector. Respondents rating sexual minorities reported significantly more contact with sexual minorities in “other” domains ($M = 6.28$, $SD = 19.62$) than did respondents rating heterosexuals ($M = 4.12$, $SD = 15.47$), $F(1, 189) = 5.38$, $p < .05$. Respondents who differed in sex role egalitarianism reported significantly different amounts of valence of contact with sexual minorities, $F(2, 341) = 15.60$, $p < .001$. Tukey HSD post-hoc analyses revealed that respondents low in sex role egalitarianism reported significantly more negative contact with lesbians and gay men ($M = 2.20$, $SD = 0.66$) than did respondents who were medium ($M = 2.51$, $SD = 0.58$) and high ($M = 2.71$, $SD = 0.51$) in sex role egalitarianism. Respondents at all other levels of the independent variables were similar with regard to the valence of contact they reported having with sexual minorities.

Gender-Related Attributes. Confirmatory factor analysis for a six-factor model was conducted on the GSM (the scale used to assess stereotypic attributes of women and

men). The goodness of fit ($\chi^2/df = 1198.22/449 = 2.669$) was somewhat poor, as indicated by Sun (2005), while the Goodness of Fit Index adjusted for degrees of freedom (.803) was somewhat adequate, also as indicated by Sun (2005). The Root Mean Square Error of Approximation was .065, which is a reasonable fit, given the upper boundary of .06 recommended by Hu and Bentler (1999). Bentler's Comparative Fit Index was .791 and Bentler and Bonett's Normed Fit Index was .707. Hu and Bentler (1999) recommend a cut-off value of .90.

While these results suggest that the proposed model is a somewhat poor fit, the GSM has never been used with an alternate factor structure. Also, similar to the current study, Deaux and Lewis (1983) used a college student sample in developing the GSM. Using the GSM differently than it has been used in the past on a similar sample to the one in this study would require more convincing evidence than what was obtained from the confirmatory factor analysis. Therefore, the alpha reliability coefficients of the scale's six components from the current study were examined, along with corrected item-total correlations (see Table 1) before pursuing exploratory factor analysis on the GSM. Reliability coefficients and corrected item-total correlations for each of the six components of the GSM were judged to be adequate. Therefore, the six original components of the GSM were retained. Probability ratings assigned to all items composing each component were averaged, resulting in six subscale scores for the GSM. The subscales included in the GSM are Feminine Physical Characteristics (e.g., "dainty"), Masculine Physical Characteristics (e.g., "strong"), Feminine Role Behaviors (e.g., "does the laundry"), Masculine Role Behaviors (e.g., "assumes financial

obligations”), Feminine Traits (e.g., “emotional”), and Masculine Traits (e.g., “self-confident”).

Age-Related Attributes. Probability ratings assigned to the 46 items on the ASM (the scale used to assess stereotypic attributes of adults and older adults) were analyzed with a maximum likelihood factor analysis with a varimax rotation. Data were first evaluated for normality. The first extraction resulted in 10 factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0. Utilizing Cattell’s (1966) scree test resulted in a five-factor solution. A second analysis with a varimax rotation was performed that specified the number of factors to be extracted as five. These five factors accounted for about 38% of the overall variance of the ASM items.

Next, the items to be retained on each factor were determined. Two criteria were used to establish whether or not an item was retained: (a) on one factor the item had to have at least a factor loading of .40; and (b) the item could have no cross-loading on any other factor greater than or equal to .30 (a method utilized by Fischer, Good, Snell, & Tokar, 1998). Also, the internal consistencies of the resulting factors along with the corrected item-total correlations were considered in deciding to retain an item. These criteria resulted in the final form of the ASM consisting of five factors with a total of 31 items. Therefore, 31 of the original 46 items were retained. Table 2 presents the rotated factor matrix for these items. For factor loadings and corrected item-total correlations, refer to Table 3.

The first factor contained 11 items and accounted for 10.41% of the variance. Items that loaded positively on factor one included “knowledgeable,” “wise,” “practical,” “experienced,” “mature,” “generous,” “learned,” “is financially stable,” “patient,”

“sentimental,” and “cautious.” Factor one was labeled “Judicious,” and had an internal consistency value of .83.

The second factor contained seven items and accounted for 9.84% of the variance. Items that loaded positively on factor two included, “energetic,” “excited,” “eager,” “flexible,” “adventurous,” “ambitious,” and “curious.” Factor two was labeled “Spirited,” and had an internal consistency value of .81.

The third factor contained six items and accounted for 8.38% of the variance. Items that loaded positively on factor three included, “impatient,” “greedy,” “irresponsible,” “wasteful,” “tired,” and “vain.” Factor three was labeled “Imprudent,” and had an internal consistency value of .76.

The fourth factor contained seven items and accounted for 7.15% of the variance. Items that loaded positively on factor four included “fragile,” “feeble,” “bitter,” “senile,” “lonely,” “helpless,” and “neglected.” Factor four was labeled “Frail,” and had an internal consistency value of .75. None of the items loaded on factor five, which accounted for 2.35% of the variance. Finally, probability ratings assigned to all items comprising each factor were averaged, resulting in four subscale scores for the ASM.

Sexual Orientation-Related Attributes. Probability ratings assigned to the 31 items on the SMSM (a scale which assessed stereotypic attributes of sexual minorities and heterosexuals) were analyzed with a maximum likelihood factor analysis with a varimax rotation. Data were first evaluated for normality. The first extraction resulted in eight factors with eigenvalues greater than 1.0. Utilizing Cattell’s (1966) scree test resulted in a four-factor solution. A second analysis with a varimax rotation was performed that

specified the number of factors to be extracted as four. These four factors accounted for about 41% of the overall variance of the SMSM items.

Next, the items to be retained on each factor were determined. The same considerations for retaining items on each factor that were used for the ASM were used for the SMSM. These considerations resulted in the final form of the SMSM consisting of four factors with a total of 20 items. Therefore, 20 of the original 31 items were retained. Table 4 presents the rotated factor matrix for these items. For factor loadings and corrected item-total correlations, refer to Table 5.

The first factor contained eight items and accounted for 20.83% of the variance. Items that loaded positively on factor one included “feminine,” “feminine qualities,” “feminine walk,” “wears feminine clothing,” “wears jewelry,” and “high-pitched voice.” Items that loaded negatively on factor one included “wears masculine clothing” and “is a head of household.” Factor one was labeled “Feminine Attributes,” and had an internal consistency value of .89.

The second factor contained eight items and accounted for 9.53% of the variance. Items that loaded positively on factor two included, “friendly,” “intelligent,” “nice looking,” “loving,” “dresses nice,” “normal,” “positive toward males,” and “positive toward females.” Factor two was labeled “Pleasant,” and had an internal consistency value of .75.

The third factor contained three items and accounted for 6.77% of the variance. Items that loaded positively on factor three included, “has children,” “mother/ father,” and “gets married.” Factor three was labeled “Conventional Family Roles,” and had an internal consistency value of .80. No items loaded on factor four, which accounted for

4.08% of the variance. Finally, probability ratings assigned to all items comprising each factor were averaged, resulting in three subscale scores for the SMSM. Table 6 contains means, standard deviations, and intercorrelations for all subscales from the GSM, ASM, and SMSM.

Sex Role Egalitarianism. A reliability analysis showed Cronbach's alpha for the Sex Role Egalitarianism Scale (SRES) to be .92. Ratings from each of the 25 items were summed for each respondent to produce a total SRES score. This total score was then divided by 25 (the number of items on the SRES) to derive the average rating (ranging from 1 to 5) on the SRES. This average rating was used in all subsequent analyses utilizing the SRES, which was a method utilized by Brabeck and Weisgerber (1989). Three categories of SRES scores were formed to relay a more accurate assessment of sex role egalitarianism. SRES scores were split at the 40th and 60th percentiles. Scores falling below the 40th percentile were used as a measure of "low sex role egalitarianism" ($M = 3.64, SD = .34$); scores falling between the 40th and 60th percentiles were used as a measure of "middle sex role egalitarianism" ($M = 4.21; SD = .08$); while scores falling above the 60th percentile were used as a measure of "high sex role egalitarianism" ($M = 4.61, SD = .17$). The overall mean SRES score was 4.15, with a standard deviation of .50. A one-way ANOVA was performed to examine respondent sex differences on the average rating assigned all items. Significant differences were found, $F(1, 391) = 145.76, p < .001$, with female respondents scoring higher on the SRES ($M = 4.31, SD = .38$) than male respondents ($M = 3.74, SD = .53$).

Stereotype Valence. The People Perceptions Questionnaire instructed respondents to rate the valence of each attribute on a scale of one (negative) to three (positive). Before

conducting statistical analyses to answer research questions about valence ratings, it was necessary to examine whether respondents were influenced by target characteristics (target sex, target age, and target sexual orientation) when making their valence ratings. Average valence ratings were computed separately for each factor/ component contained within the ASM, SMSM, and GSM. These scores were then analyzed with 2 (target sex) X 2 (target age) X 2 (target sexual orientation) ANOVAs for unbalanced designs.

The effect of target sex was significant for the Feminine Attributes factor from the SMSM, $F(1, 386) = 161.91, p < .001, \eta^2 = .30$; the Feminine Physical Characteristics component from the GSM, $F(1, 386) = 16.59, p < .001, \eta^2 = .04$; the Masculine Role Behaviors component from the GSM, $F(1, 386) = 6.45, p < .05, \eta^2 = .02$; and the Masculine Traits component from the GSM, $F(1, 386) = 4.76, p < .05, \eta^2 = .01$. Respondents rating females assigned significantly more positive valence ratings to the Feminine Attributes, Feminine Physical Characteristics, and Masculine Traits factors/ components as compared to respondents rating males (see Table 7). Respondents rating males assigned significantly more positive valence ratings to the Masculine Role Behaviors component as compared to respondents rating females (see Table 7).

These effects were qualified by significant target sex X target age interactions for the Feminine Attributes factor, $F(1, 386) = 4.91, p < .05, \eta^2 = .01$; and the Feminine Physical Characteristics component, $F(1, 386) = 7.94, p < .01, \eta^2 = .01$. Simple main effects tests, $F(3, 390) = 52.83, p < .001$, revealed that respondents rating adult females ($M = 2.15, SD = 0.27$) and older adult females ($M = 2.13, SD = 0.27$) gave significantly more positive ratings on the Feminine Attributes factor than did respondents rating adult males ($M = 1.71, SD = 0.35$) and older adult males ($M = 1.82, SD = 0.32$). Valence

ratings provided by respondents rating adult as compared to older adult females on the Feminine Attributes factor did not significantly differ, however. Also, respondents rating adult males did not significantly differ from respondents rating older adult males with regard to their valence ratings on the Feminine Attributes factor. Simple main effects tests, $F(3, 390) = 10.03, p < .001$, also revealed that respondents rating adult males ($M = 1.92, SD = 0.34$) gave significantly more negative valence ratings on the Feminine Physical Characteristics component than did respondents rating adult females ($M = 2.12, SD = 0.22$), older adult males ($M = 2.07, SD = 0.29$), and older adult females ($M = 2.12, SD = 0.30$). No other significant differences among respondents rating these four target groups were found for the Feminine Physical Characteristics component.

Main effects for target sex were also qualified by significant target sex X target sexual orientation interactions for the Feminine Attributes factor, $F(1, 386) = 23.49, p < .001, \eta^2 = .06$; and the Feminine Physical Characteristics component, $F(1, 386) = 5.28, p < .05, \eta^2 = .01$. Simple main effects tests, $F(3, 390) = 62.50, p < .001$, revealed that for the Feminine Attributes factor respondents rating heterosexual females ($M = 2.18, SD = 0.29$) assigned significantly more positive valence ratings than did respondents rating heterosexual males ($M = 1.65, SD = 0.35$) and gay males ($M = 1.86, SD = 0.30$), but respondents rating heterosexual males assigned significantly more negative valence ratings than did respondents rating heterosexual females and lesbian females ($M = 2.10, SD = 0.25$), as well as gay males. Also, respondents rating lesbian females assigned significantly more positive valence ratings than did respondents rating gay males on the Feminine Attributes factor, while respondents rating lesbian females and heterosexual females did not significantly differ in their valence ratings. Simple main effects tests, $F(3,$

390) = 7.81, $p < .001$, also revealed that for the Feminine Physical Characteristics component, respondents rating heterosexual females ($M = 2.13$, $SD = 0.27$) assigned significantly more positive valence ratings than did respondents rating heterosexual males ($M = 1.94$, $SD = 0.32$). Respondents rating heterosexual females on the Feminine Physical Characteristics component did not significantly differ in their valence ratings from respondents rating lesbian females ($M = 2.10$, $SD = 0.26$) or gay males ($M = 2.05$, $SD = 0.31$), while respondents rating heterosexual males did not significantly differ in their valence ratings from respondents rating lesbian females or gay males. Respondents rating lesbian females and gay males also did not significantly differ in their valence ratings.

Target age accounted for significant differences for the Judicious factor from the ASM, $F(1, 386) = 5.96$, $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = .02$; and the Feminine Physical Characteristics component from the GSM, $F(1, 386) = 5.49$, $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = .01$. In both cases, respondents rating older adults assigned significantly more positive valence ratings than did respondents rating adults (see Table 7). The main effect for the Judicious factor was qualified by a significant target sex X target age X target sexual orientation interaction, $F(1, 386) = 7.27$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .02$. Simple main effects tests, $F(7, 386) = 2.54$, $p < .05$ revealed that respondents rating older adult heterosexual females ($M = 2.75$, $SD = 0.20$) assigned significantly more positive valence ratings on the Judicious factor than did respondents rating adult gay males ($M = 2.56$, $SD = 0.31$). Ratings assigned to all of the other groups did not significantly differ from one another.

Differences as a function of target sexual orientation were significant for the Conventional Family Roles factor from the SMSM, $F(1, 386) = 39.70$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .09$;

and the Feminine Attributes factor from the SMSM, $F(1, 386) = 4.29, p < .05, \eta^2 = .01$. Respondents rating heterosexuals assigned significantly more positive valence ratings to the Conventional Family Roles factor as compared to respondents rating sexual minorities, while respondents rating sexual minorities assigned significantly more positive valence ratings to the Feminine Attributes factor as compared to respondents rating heterosexuals (see Table 7).

Stereotype valence and ordering effects. It is possible that the aforementioned significant differences could be accounted for by the order in which respondents provided probability and valence ratings on the PPQ. One-half of respondents were instructed on the PPQ to provide probability ratings, followed by valence ratings (presentation one), while the other half of respondents were instructed to provide valence ratings, followed by probability ratings (presentation two). It is possible that respondents who provided presentation one ratings would be influenced by the target characteristics when making valence ratings, while respondents who provided presentation two ratings would not be influenced by the target characteristics when making valence ratings. To test this possibility, average valence ratings were computed separately for each factor contained within the SMSM, ASM, and GSM. These scores were then analyzed with 2 (target sex) X 2 (target age) X 2 (target sexual orientation) ANOVAs for unbalanced designs. ANOVAs were computed separately for respondents providing presentation one ratings and respondents providing presentation two ratings. Only main effects are presented.

The effect of target sex was significant for the Feminine Attributes factor from the SMSM for presentation one, $F(1, 188) = 85.13, p < .001, \eta^2 = .31$, and for presentation two, $F(1, 190) = 77.09, p < .001, \eta^2 = .29$. The effect of target sex was also significant for

the Feminine Physical Characteristics component from the GSM for presentation one, $F(1, 188) = 12.56, p < .001, \eta^2 = .06$, and for presentation two, $F(1, 190) = 5.47, p < .05, \eta^2 = .03$. For each of these factors/ components, respondents rating females provided significantly more positive valence ratings than did respondents rating males (see Tables 8 and 9).

The main effect of target sex was also significant for the Masculine Role Behaviors component from the GSM for presentation two only, $F(1, 190) = 4.99, p < .05, \eta^2 = .03$; and the Masculine Traits component from the GSM for presentation two only, $F(1, 190) = 4.41, p < .05, \eta^2 = .02$. In the former case, respondents rating males provided significantly more positive valence ratings than did respondents rating females (see Table 9). In the latter case respondents rating females provided significantly more positive valence ratings than did respondents rating males (see Table 9).

Significant differences as a function of target age were found for the Judicious factor from the ASM for presentation two only, $F(1, 190) = 9.42, p < .01, \eta^2 = .05$. Respondents rating older adults gave significantly more positive valence ratings on the Judicious factor than did respondents rating adults (see Table 9). In addition, target age also accounted for significant differences for the Masculine Role Behaviors component from the GSM for presentation one only, $F(1, 188) = 6.06, p < .05, \eta^2 = .03$. Respondents rating adults provided significantly more positive valence ratings on the Masculine Role Behaviors component than did respondents rating older adults (see Table 8). Target age also accounted for significant differences for the Feminine Physical Characteristics component from the GSM for presentation one only, $F(1, 188) = 4.54, p < .05, \eta^2 = .02$.

Respondents rating older adults provided significantly more positive valence ratings than did respondents rating adults (see Table 8).

Target sexual orientation accounted for significant differences for the Conventional Family Roles factor from the SMSM for presentation one, $F(1, 188) = 24.02, p < .001, \eta^2 = .11$; and presentation two, $F(1, 190) = 16.46, p < .001, \eta^2 = .08$. In both cases, respondents rating heterosexuals provided significantly more positive valence ratings than did respondents rating sexual minorities (see Tables 8 and 9).

Ratings for target sexual orientation also accounted for significant differences for the Judicious factor from the ASM for presentation two only, $F(1, 190) = 5.16, p < .05, \eta^2 = .03$. Respondents rating heterosexuals gave significantly more positive valence ratings on the Judicious factor than did respondents rating sexual minorities (see Table 9). In addition, target sexual orientation accounted for significant differences for the Imprudent factor from the ASM for presentation one only, $F(1, 188) = 7.49, p < .01, \eta^2 = .04$. Respondents rating sexual minorities gave significantly more positive valence ratings on the Imprudent factor than did respondents rating heterosexuals (see Table 8).

If the order of presentation did have a clear effect on valence ratings, one would expect significant differences for presentation one (or presentation two) but no significant differences for the opposite order of presentation. It is evident from the aforementioned analyses that the order in which the respondents provided probability and valence ratings did not have a clear effect on their valence ratings. A number of significant differences were found for presentation one and presentation two that were sometimes similar and sometimes different. It is apparent that, in at least some cases, respondents were affected by target characteristics in providing their valence ratings, despite instructions that

indicated valence ratings were to be based on the attribute only. It is, however, impossible to surmise when and which respondents were affected by target characteristics. Therefore, it is not possible to analyze valence ratings with any degree of confidence that the results would be valid. Thus, valence ratings will be analyzed no further and no conclusions about hypotheses related to them will be made (hypotheses four, six, eight, and ten).

Main Analyses

Gender-related stereotypes. Multivariate outliers were identified using Mahalanobis distance. Data were evaluated for multivariate normality. Three outliers were detected and removed from all further analyses. Relationships among all six of the GSM components were examined with bivariate scatterplots. Adequate linearity was judged to exist among the six factors, deeming the use of MANOVA appropriate. The six components of the GSM (Masculine Physical Characteristics, Feminine Physical Characteristics, Masculine Role Behaviors, Feminine Role Behaviors, Masculine Traits, and Feminine Traits) were analyzed with a 2 (target sex) X 2 (target age) X 2 (target sexual orientation) X 2 (respondent sex) X 3 (high, middle, or low level of respondent sex-role egalitarianism) MANOVA for unbalanced designs, using an alpha level of .05.

Results showed significant multivariate effects for target sex, $F(6, 339) = 11.92, p < .001, \eta^2 = .17$; respondent sex, $F(6, 339) = 3.25, p < .01, \eta^2 = .05$; target age, $F(6, 339) = 2.29, p < .05, \eta^2 = .04$; the target sex X target sexual orientation interaction, $F(6, 339) = 16.45, p < .001, \eta^2 = .23$; the target age X target sexual orientation interaction, $F(6, 339) = 3.13, p < .01, \eta^2 = .05$; and the target age X level of respondent sex role egalitarianism interaction, $F(12, 680) = 1.91, p < .05, \eta^2 = .03$.

Univariate effects for target sex were significant for four components: Masculine Role Behaviors, $F(1, 344) = 28.98, p < .001, \eta^2 = .08$; Feminine Role Behaviors, $F(1, 344) = 19.24, p < .001, \eta^2 = .05$; Masculine Physical Characteristics, $F(1, 344) = 7.87, p < .01, \eta^2 = .02$; and Feminine Traits, $F(1, 344) = 4.30, p < .05, \eta^2 = .01$. Males were assigned significantly higher probability ratings on the Masculine Role Behaviors and Masculine Physical Characteristics components, while females were assigned significantly higher probability ratings on the Feminine Role Behaviors and Feminine Traits components (see Table 10). These main effects for target sex were qualified by a significant target sex X target sexual orientation interaction for all six components: Feminine Role Behaviors, $F(1, 344) = 30.41, p < .001, \eta^2 = .08$; Masculine Role Behaviors, $F(1, 344) = 24.32, p < .001, \eta^2 = .07$; Feminine Physical Characteristics, $F(1, 344) = 19.32, p < .001, \eta^2 = .05$; Masculine Traits, $F(1, 344) = 10.91, p < .01, \eta^2 = .03$; Masculine Physical Characteristics, $F(1, 344) = 7.03, p < .01, \eta^2 = .02$; and Feminine Traits, $F(1, 344) = 7.92, p < .01, \eta^2 = .02$. Simple main effects tests for the Masculine Physical Characteristics component, $F(3, 386) = 8.49, p < .001, \eta^2 = .02$ showed that heterosexual females were given significantly lower probability ratings than were heterosexual males, but were rated similarly to lesbian females and gay males. Heterosexual males were given significantly higher probability ratings than gay males and lesbian and heterosexual females (see Table 11). A similar pattern was shown with the Feminine Traits component, $F(3, 386) = 11.71, p < .001$, whereby heterosexual females were given significantly higher probability ratings than were heterosexual males, but heterosexual females were rated similarly to lesbian females and gay males.

Heterosexual males were given significantly lower ratings on the Feminine Traits component than gay males and lesbian and heterosexual females (see Table 11).

With regard to the Feminine Physical Characteristics component, simple main effects tests, $F(3, 386) = 19.97, p < .001$, revealed that heterosexual females and gay males were assigned significantly higher probability ratings than were heterosexual males and lesbian females. Heterosexual females and gay males were assigned similar probability ratings on the Feminine Physical Characteristics component. Lesbian females were assigned significantly lower probability ratings than heterosexual females and gay males, but significantly higher probability ratings than heterosexual males (see Table 11).

For the Masculine Traits component, simple main effects tests, $F(3, 386) = 8.60, p < .001$, showed that heterosexual females and gay males were assigned significantly lower probability ratings than heterosexual males and lesbian females. Heterosexual females and gay males were assigned similar ratings, while heterosexual males and lesbian females were given similar ratings (see Table 11).

For the Masculine Role Behaviors component, simple main effects tests, $F(3, 386) = 37.42, p < .001$, showed that heterosexual females were given significantly lower probability ratings than were heterosexual males, gay males, and lesbian females. Probability ratings for heterosexual males, on the other hand, were significantly higher than those for not only heterosexual females, but also lesbian females and gay males. Sexual minority females and males were assigned similar probability ratings (see Table 11). A similar pattern was found for the Feminine Role Behaviors component, $F(3, 386) = 50.07, p < .001$. Heterosexual females were given significantly higher probability ratings than were heterosexual males, gay males, and lesbian females. Probability ratings

for heterosexual males were significantly lower than those for heterosexual females, lesbian females, and gay males. Lesbian females and gay males were assigned similar probability ratings (see Table 11).

Univariate effects for respondent sex were significant for two components: Masculine Physical Characteristics, $F(1, 344) = 16.41, p < .001, \eta^2 = .05$; and Masculine Traits, $F(1, 344) = 4.63, p < .05, \eta^2 = .01$. In both cases, female respondents provided significantly higher probability ratings than did male respondents (see Table 10).

Univariate effects for target age were significant for two components: Masculine Physical Characteristics, $F(1, 344) = 7.26, p < .01, \eta^2 = .02$; and Masculine Role Behaviors, $F(1, 344) = 4.23, p < .05, \eta^2 = .01$. In both cases, adults were assigned significantly higher probability ratings than were older adults (see Table 10). These main effects for target age were qualified by a significant target age X target sexual orientation interaction for two components: Masculine Role Behaviors, $F(1, 344) = 5.17, p < .05, \eta^2 = .02$; and Feminine Physical Characteristics, $F(1, 344) = 4.81, p < .05, \eta^2 = .01$. Simple main effects tests for the Feminine Physical Characteristics component, $F(3, 386) = 4.29, p < .01$, revealed that adult heterosexuals were assigned significantly lower probability ratings than were older adult heterosexuals. Probability ratings for adult heterosexuals, however, did not significantly differ from those assigned to adult sexual minorities or older adult sexual minorities on the Feminine Physical Characteristics component. Furthermore, adult sexual minorities, older adult sexual minorities, and older adult heterosexuals were rated similarly on the Feminine Physical Characteristics component (see Table 12).

With regard to the Masculine Role Behaviors component, $F(3, 386) = 6.36, p < .001$, adult heterosexuals were given significantly higher probability ratings than were older adult heterosexuals. At the same time, adult heterosexuals were rated similarly to adult and older adult sexual minorities on the Masculine Role Behaviors component. Similarly, older adult heterosexuals were rated significantly lower than adult heterosexuals, adult sexual minorities, and older adult sexual minorities on the Masculine Role Behaviors component. Adult and older adult sexual minorities were rated similarly on the Masculine Role Behaviors component (see Table 12).

Univariate effects for the target age X respondent level of sex role egalitarianism interaction were significant for only the Feminine Physical Characteristics component, $F(2, 344) = 4.99, p < .01, \eta^2 = .03$. Simple main effects tests, however, revealed no significant differences.

The aforementioned results provide partial support for hypothesis two. It was predicted that older adults, regardless of sex or sexual orientation, would be rated as less likely to possess traditionally masculine attributes than would adults. Pursuant with this expectation, results showed that heterosexual and sexual minority older adults were rated as less likely than adults to display attributes on the Masculine Physical Characteristics component. However, only heterosexual older adults were rated as less likely than adults to display attributes on the Masculine Role Behaviors component. Furthermore, older adults were rated similarly to adults on the Masculine Traits component.

The aforementioned results also provide partial support for hypothesis three. It was anticipated that adult and older adult lesbians and heterosexual men would be rated as more likely to possess traditionally masculine attributes than would gay men and

heterosexual women, while gay men and heterosexual women would be rated as more likely to possess traditionally feminine attributes than would lesbians and heterosexual men. Lesbians were thought to be similar to heterosexual men on the Masculine Traits component, but different from heterosexual men on the Feminine Physical Characteristics, Masculine Physical Characteristics, Feminine Role Behaviors, Masculine Role Behaviors, and Feminine Traits components. Gay men were perceived as similar to heterosexual women on the Feminine Physical Characteristics, Masculine Physical Characteristics, Feminine Traits, and Masculine Traits components, but different from heterosexual women on the Feminine Role Behaviors and Masculine Role Behaviors components.

Additionally, the aforementioned results failed to reject hypothesis seven, part a. It was expected that females and males would not differ in how they stereotyped heterosexual women and men. Results revealed no interaction between respondent sex, target sex, and target sexual orientation. Furthermore, hypothesis seven, part b surmised two different possible outcomes with regard to differences in how females and males would stereotype sexual minorities. Some past research has shown differences in how females and males stereotype sexual minorities while other research has not. Results showed no interaction between respondent sex and target sexual orientation.

Lastly, the aforementioned results did not support hypothesis nine, part a. It was anticipated that respondents low in sex role egalitarianism would view heterosexual women and men as more likely to possess gender-linked attributes than would respondents high in sex role egalitarianism. Results showed no interaction between respondent sex role egalitarianism, target sex, and target sexual orientation. Results also

did not support hypothesis nine, part b. It was thought that respondents low in sex role egalitarianism would view lesbians as more similar to heterosexual men and view gay men as more similar to heterosexual women on gender-linked stereotypes than would respondents high in sex role egalitarianism. Results showed no interaction between respondent sex role egalitarianism, target sex, and target sexual orientation.

Age-related stereotypes. Outliers for each factor on the ASM were identified using box plots and removed from all further analyses. The Judicious factor contained three outliers, the Spirited factor contained thirteen outliers, the Imprudent factor contained seven outliers, and the Frail factor contained two outliers. Data were evaluated for normality. Examination of bivariate scatterplots revealed nonlinear relationships among the four factors, deeming MANOVA inappropriate. The four factors composing the ASM were analyzed with 2 (target sex) X 2 (target age) X 2 (target sexual orientation) X 2 (respondent sex) X 3 (high, middle, or low level of respondent sex-role egalitarianism) ANOVAs for unbalanced designs, using an alpha level of .05.

The main effect of target age was significant for the Judicious, $F(1, 344) = 13.96$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .04$; Frail, $F(1, 345) = 18.02$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .05$; and Spirited, $F(1, 334) = 8.93$, $p < .01$, $\eta^2 = .03$ factors. Older adults were given significantly higher probability ratings than were adults for the Judicious and Frail factors, while adults were assigned significantly higher probability ratings than were older adults for the Spirited factor (see Table 13). The effect of target age on the Judicious factor was qualified by a significant target age X target sexual orientation interaction, $F(1, 344) = 5.56$, $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = .02$. Simple main effects tests, $F(3, 386) = 18.09$, $p < .001$, revealed that adult heterosexuals were given significantly lower probability ratings on the Judicious factor than were older

adult heterosexuals and older adult sexual minorities. Older adult heterosexuals were given significantly higher probability ratings on the Judicious factor than were older adult sexual minorities, adult heterosexuals, and adult sexual minorities. Probability ratings assigned to adult and older adult sexual minorities were similar to one another, as were ratings assigned to adult heterosexuals and adult sexual minorities (see Table 14).

The main effect of target sexual orientation was significant for the Imprudent, $F(1, 340) = 13.66, p < .001, \eta^2 = .04$; and Spirited, $F(1, 334) = 6.01, p < .05, \eta^2 = .02$ factors. Sexual minorities were given significantly lower probability ratings on the Imprudent factor and significantly higher probability ratings on the Spirited factor as compared to heterosexuals (see Table 13). The main effect of target sexual orientation was qualified by a significant target age X target sexual orientation interaction for the Imprudent factor, $F(1, 340) = 6.97, p < .01, \eta^2 = .02$. Simple main effects tests, $F(3, 382) = 8.93, p < .001$, revealed that adult heterosexuals received significantly higher probability ratings on the Imprudent factor than did adult and older adult sexual minorities, as well as older adult heterosexuals. Ratings for the latter three target groups were not significantly different from one another (see Table 14).

The main effect of respondent sex role egalitarianism was significant only for the Spirited factor, $F(2, 334) = 6.10, p < .01, \eta^2 = .04$. Tukey post-hoc tests revealed that respondents with high Sex Role Egalitarian Scale (SRES) scores gave significantly higher probability ratings than did respondents with middle SRES scores. Respondents with low SRES scores did not differ significantly from respondents with high or middle SRES scores (see Table 13).

While no main effect of respondent sex was detected for any of the factors on the ASM, there was a significant respondent sex X target sexual orientation interaction for the Frail factor, $F(1, 345) = 4.32, p < .05, \eta^2 = .01$. Simple main effects tests, $F(3, 388) = 2.99, p < .05$, revealed that male respondents rating sexual minorities ($M = 38.97, SD = 12.59$) gave significantly higher probability ratings on the Frail factor than did male respondents rating heterosexuals ($M = 32.27, SD = 13.70$). Male respondents rating sexual minorities and male respondents rating heterosexuals did not assign significantly different probability ratings on the Frail factor from female respondents rating sexual minorities ($M = 34.17, SD = 11.90$) or heterosexuals ($M = 34.30, SD = 13.21$). Also, female respondents rating sexual minorities did not significantly differ in their probability ratings on the Frail factor from female respondents rating heterosexuals.

A significant target age X respondent level of sex role egalitarianism interaction was found for the Imprudent factor, $F(2, 340) = 4.54, p < .05, \eta^2 = .03$. Simple main effects tests, $F(5, 380) = 2.77, p < .05$, revealed that respondents with high SRES scores rating adults ($M = 41.80, SD = 11.62$) assigned significantly higher probability ratings on the Imprudent factor than did respondents with high SRES scores rating older adults ($M = 34.65, SD = 14.88$). Respondents with middle and low SRES scores did not provide significantly different probability ratings to adults ($M = 37.31, SD = 15.93$; and $M = 39.19, SD = 12.68$, respectively) and older adults ($M = 35.51, SD = 11.32$; and $M = 38.66, SD = 13.74$, respectively), nor did they significantly differ in their probability ratings from respondents with high SRES scores rating adults and older adults.

Furthermore, a significant target age X level of respondent sex role egalitarianism X target sexual orientation interaction was found for the Imprudent factor, $F(2, 340) =$

3.59, $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = .02$. Simple main effects tests, $F(11, 374) = 3.82$, $p < .001$, revealed that respondents with middle SRES scores rating adult sexual minorities ($M = 25.58$, $SD = 12.02$) assigned significantly lower probability ratings than did respondents with high, middle, and low SRES scores rating adult heterosexuals ($M = 44.88$, $SD = 10.59$; $M = 42.92$, $SD = 14.61$; and $M = 43.13$, $SD = 12.19$, respectively), and respondents with low SRES scores rating older adult heterosexuals ($M = 40.73$, $SD = 13.24$). In addition, respondents with high SRES scores rating adult heterosexuals provided significantly higher probability ratings than did respondents with high SRES scores rating older adult sexual minorities ($M = 33.02$, $SD = 14.43$). No other significant differences among these aforementioned groups were found. No main effect of target sex was detected for any of the factors on the ASM.

The aforementioned results provide partial support for hypothesis one. It was expected that older adults, regardless of sex or sexual orientation, would be perceived as more likely to possess aging-related attributes than would adults. Pursuant with this expectation, sexual minority and heterosexual older adults were given higher probability ratings than adults on the Judicious and Frail factors, while adults were given higher probability ratings than older adults on the Spirited factor. Unexpectedly, however, older adults and adults were given similar probability ratings on the Imprudent factor. Also unexpectedly, sexual minority older adults were given lower probability ratings as compared to older adult heterosexuals on the Judicious factor.

Hypothesis five stated two different possible outcomes with regard to differences in how females and males would stereotype older adults. On the one hand, research that has found that females and males stereotype older adults in similar ways would lead to

the prediction that females and males would be similar in how they stereotyped older adults. On the other hand, research that has found differences in how females and males stereotype older adults would lead to the prediction that females and males would be different in how they stereotyped older adults. Results supported the former prediction. Results revealed no difference in how females as compared to males stereotyped adults and older adults.

Furthermore, the aforementioned results fail to reject hypothesis seven, part a. It was expected that females and males would not differ in how they stereotyped heterosexual women and men. Results revealed no interaction between respondent sex, target sex, and target sexual orientation. Hypothesis seven, part b surmised two different possible outcomes with regard to how females as compared to males would stereotype sexual minorities. On the one hand, research that has shown no differences in how females and males stereotype sexual minorities would lead to the prediction that females and males would be similar in how they stereotyped lesbians and gay men. On the other hand, research that has shown differences in how females and males stereotype sexual minorities would lead to the expectation that females and males would differ in how they stereotyped lesbians and gay men. Results showed an interaction between respondent sex and target sexual orientation on the Frail factor, but not on the Judicious, Spirited, or Imprudent factors.

Sexual orientation-related stereotypes. Outliers for each factor on the SMSM were identified using box plots and removed from all further analyses. The Feminine Attributes factor contained two outliers, while the Pleasant factor contained six outliers, and the Conventional Family Roles factor contained four outliers. Data were examined

for normality. Examination of bivariate scatterplots revealed non-linear relationships among the three factors, deeming MANOVA inappropriate. The three factors composing the SMSM were analyzed with 2 (target sex) X 2 (target age) X 2 (target sexual orientation) X 2 (respondent sex) X 3 (high, middle, or low level of respondent sex-role egalitarianism) ANOVAs for unbalanced designs, using an alpha level of .05.

The main effect of target sex was significant for the Feminine Attributes factor only, $F(1, 346) = 156.06, p < .001, \eta^2 = .31$. Females were assigned significantly higher probability ratings than were males (see Table 15). This main effect was qualified by a significant target sex X target sexual orientation interaction, $F(1, 346) = 47.98, p < .001, \eta^2 = .12$. Simple main effects tests, $F(3, 388) = 165.47, p < .001$, revealed that probability ratings for each of the four target groups (heterosexual females, heterosexual males, lesbian females, and gay males) were all significantly different from one another. Heterosexual females were rated most likely to possess feminine attributes, followed by lesbian females, followed by gay males, followed finally by heterosexual males ($M = 66.04, SD = 9.85; M = 50.79, SD = 14.65; M = 42.93, SD = 14.68; \text{ and } M = 24.48, SD = 12.99$, respectively).

The Pleasant factor also yielded a significant target sex X target sexual orientation interaction, $F(1, 341) = 5.05, p < .05, \eta^2 = .02$. Simple main effects tests, $F(3, 384) = 4.33, p < .01$, showed that gay males ($M = 70.14, SD = 12.36$) and heterosexual females ($M = 68.80, SD = 10.80$) were rated significantly more likely to possess characteristics on the Pleasant factor than were heterosexual males ($M = 64.80, SD = 9.42$), while probability ratings for gay males and heterosexual females were similar to one another.

At the same time, ratings for lesbian females ($M = 66.87$, $SD = 11.17$) were similar to those of heterosexual females, gay males, and heterosexual males.

The main effect of target sexual orientation was significant for the Conventional Family Roles factor only, $F(1, 343) = 143.11$, $p < .001$, $\eta^2 = .29$. Heterosexuals were rated as significantly more likely to assume conventional family roles than were sexual minorities (see Table 15). The main effects of target age, respondent sex, and level of respondent sex role egalitarianism were not significant for any of the three factors on the SMSM (see Table 15), although a target age X level of respondent sex role egalitarianism interaction was significant for the Feminine Attributes factor, $F(2, 346) = 3.49$, $p < .05$, $\eta^2 = .02$. Simple main effects tests, $F(5, 386) = 1.20$, $p = .31$, however, revealed no significant differences among groups.

The aforementioned results provide partial support for hypothesis three. It was anticipated that lesbians and heterosexual men would be rated as more likely to possess traditionally masculine attributes than would gay men and heterosexual women, while gay men and heterosexual women would be rated as more likely to possess traditionally feminine attributes than would lesbians and heterosexual men. Pursuant with this hypothesis, results showed that gay males and heterosexual females were rated similarly on the Pleasant Personality factor. Unexpectedly, however, gay males and heterosexual females were rated differently from each other on the Feminine Attributes and Conventional Family Roles factor. Furthermore, lesbians were rated differently from heterosexual males on all three factors on the SMSM.

The aforementioned results also fail to reject hypothesis seven, part a. It was expected that females and males would not differ in how they stereotyped heterosexual

females and males. Results revealed no interaction between respondent sex, target sex, and target sexual orientation. Hypothesis seven, part b surmised two different possible outcomes with regard to how females as compared to males would stereotype sexual minorities. On the one hand, research that has shown no differences in how females and males stereotype sexual minorities would lead to the prediction that females and males would be similar in how they stereotyped lesbians and gay men. On the other hand, research that has shown differences in how females and males stereotype sexual minorities would lead to the expectation that females and males would differ in how they stereotyped lesbians and gay men. Results were in line with the former expectation. Results showed no interaction between respondent sex and target sexual orientation on any of the three factors.

Controlling for potential confounds. The amount of contact with older adults and with lesbians and gay men could potentially confound the relationship between stereotype content and target sex, target age, target sexual orientation, respondent sex, and gender ideology. Therefore, 2 (target sex) X 2 (target age) X 2 (target sexual orientation) X 2 (respondent sex) X 3 (high, middle, or low level of respondent sex-role egalitarianism ANCOVAs were conducted on the dependent variables from the ASM and the SMSM with the amount of contact that respondents reported having with older adults and sexual minorities entered as covariates. A 2 (target sex) X 2 (target age) X 2 (target sexual orientation) X 2 (respondent sex) X 3 (high, middle, or low level of respondent sex-role egalitarianism MANCOVA was conducted on the components from the GSM, with the amount of contact that respondents reported having with older adults and sexual minorities entered as covariates. Differences in stereotyping as a function of the

independent variables did not change from results already reported for the GSM, ASM, and SMSM when controlling for contact with older adults and with sexual minorities.

CHAPTER IV

DISCUSSION

This study focused on the content and valence of stereotypes of older adult lesbians and gay men. It aimed to understand how stereotypes of older adult lesbians and gay men compare with those of older adult heterosexual women and men, as well as stereotypes of adult heterosexual and adult sexual minority women and men. It also examined how respondent factors (respondent sex and gender ideology) may relate to stereotyping.

Strengths and Limitations

Several strengths and limitations are related to the composition of the sample. First, most of the respondents in this study described themselves as heterosexual and of European American/ White background. The underrepresentation of sexual minorities in the sample means that this study does not include the views of the constituency who is most affected by perceptions of aging within lesbian and gay culture.

Second, data from this study was collected in a Western Mountain state, whose population has politically conservative views about sexual minorities. One could contend that this is a strength because this study expands understanding of views of sexual minorities. Most past research has been conducted in the Midwest or on the east or west coast of the United States, where the climate toward sexual minorities is more favorable. At the same time, one could argue that the geographical and political specificity of the sample are unique to the Rocky Mountain region.

Third, there are limitations as a result of the choice of measures. By design and to enhance comparability with previous studies, a sexual orientation stereotypes measure (the SMSM) and an aging stereotypes measure (the ASM) were constructed by using attributes that had been found in past studies to be associated with age-unspecified sexual minorities and heterosexuals (the SMSM) and sex-unspecified older and younger adults (the ASM). The attributes used in these measures, however, had never been used together as part of a rating scale. Therefore, it was necessary to rely on exploratory factor analysis in order to reduce the number of items for the SMSM and ASM. As is typically the case with exploratory factor analysis, the resultant factors may be unique to this sample. This means that the conclusions made about stereotypes of adult and older adult sexual minority and heterosexual women and men may be different from conclusions generated using a different sample.

Another issue with regard to the choice of measures is the confirmatory factor analysis conducted on the Gender Stereotypes Measure. The factor analysis revealed a somewhat poor fit. It is, therefore, possible that different results may have been found had attributes included in the GSM been separated into different components than had been used in previous studies (e.g., Kite et al., 1991).

Lastly, it is possible that the attributes included on the stereotype measures do not reflect the best selection of descriptives of the target groups. For example, perhaps many respondents believe that women are very likely to be “submissive,” but the attribute was not included on the stereotype measure. It will be important for future research to address this, as well as the other limitations mentioned.

Stereotype Content

The first part of this study dealt with stereotype content. It examined beliefs about adult and older adult lesbians, gay men, heterosexual women, and heterosexual men held by young adult females and males across gender ideologies. Previous researchers have proposed that perceptions of older adults are complex (e.g., Kite et al., 1991; Kite & Johnson, 1988). The results from the current study support this contention. The relative relationship of gender, age, and sexual orientation to stereotyping appears to depend upon the attributes being considered. Table 16 depicts stereotypes of people varying in sex, age, and sexual orientation.

Target sex and target sexual orientation. The relationship between stereotyping, target sex, and target sexual orientation can be seen in the ratings of gender stereotypic attributes. Heterosexual women of all ages were viewed as more likely to display Feminine Physical Characteristics (e.g., “soft,” “graceful”), engage in Feminine Role Behaviors (e.g., “tends the house,” “cooks the meals”), and possess Feminine Traits (e.g., “emotional,” “gentle”) and Feminine Attributes (e.g., “feminine qualities,” “wears feminine clothing”) than heterosexual men of all ages. Heterosexual men of all ages were seen as more likely to display Masculine Physical Characteristics (e.g., “tall,” “strong”), engage in Masculine Role Behaviors (e.g., “financial provider,” “assumes financial obligations”), and possess Masculine Traits (e.g., “independent,” “self-confident”) than heterosexual women of all ages. These findings are consistent with those of studies on gender stereotypes, which have shown that people tend to view younger and older sexual orientation-unspecified women and men as being different (e.g., Allen, 1995; Canetto et al., 1995; Cejka & Eagly, 1999; Conway & Vartanian, 2000; Di Dio et al., 1996; Kite et

al., 1991; Krueger et al., 2003; Prentice & Carranza, 2002; Six & Eckes, 1991).

Specifically, women have been perceived as more communal and expressive than men, and men have been believed to be more agentic and instrumental than women. Deaux and Lewis (1984) added that information about occupations, role behaviors, and physical characteristics also enter into views of women and men. Findings from the current study suggest that stereotypes of heterosexual women and men have changed very little (if at all) over the past two decades. As expected, and consistent with prior research (e.g., Conway & Vartanian, 2000; Six & Eckes, 1991), females and males did not differ in how they stereotyped heterosexual women and men.

As hypothesized with regard to stereotypes of lesbians and gay men, data supported the implicit inversion theory (Kite & Deaux, 1987). Gay men were perceived as similar to heterosexual women in terms of feminine and masculine physical characteristics, feminine and masculine traits, and the Pleasant factor, which consisted of attributes such as “friendly,” “intelligent,” and “dresses nice.” More specifically, gay men, like heterosexual women, were believed to be less likely than heterosexual men to display masculine physical characteristics and masculine traits, but more likely than heterosexual men to display feminine physical characteristics and feminine traits. These findings are similar to research by Kite and Deaux (1987) and Madon (1997), all of whom found a preponderance of feminine physical characteristics (and a lack of masculine physical characteristics) associated with gay males. These findings are also consistent with research that showed that young adults attributed to gay men personality traits typically thought of as positive in women (Madon, 1997).

Lesbians were perceived as similar to heterosexual men in terms of masculine traits (e.g., “independent,” “makes decisions easily,” “stands up under pressure”). In other words, lesbians, like heterosexual men, were believed to be more likely than heterosexual women to display masculine traits. Unlike the current study, in addition to conventional masculine traits, past research has also found stereotypes of lesbians to consist of attributes describing physical qualities often observed in males (Eliason, 1992; Kite & Deaux, 1987; Madon, 1997). In the current study study, lesbians were viewed as different from heterosexual men with regard to feminine and masculine physical characteristics. Lesbians were also, however, believed to be different from heterosexual women on feminine physical characteristics (e.g., “soft,” “soft voice”). Thus, it appears that in the current study, lesbians were not perceived similarly to heterosexual women or heterosexual men in terms in physical qualities. Perceptions of physical qualities inherent in lesbians seem to fall somewhere between beliefs about physical qualities observed in heterosexual men and physical qualities observed in heterosexual women.

The implicit inversion theory contends that perceptions of lesbians are similar to those of heterosexual men, while perceptions of men are similar to those of heterosexual women (Kite & Deaux, 1987). While findings are consistent with the implicit inversion theory for both lesbians and gay men, beliefs that lesbians are like heterosexual men are not as consistent as beliefs that gay men are like heterosexual women. Lesbians, like heterosexual men, were thought to be more likely to display masculine traits than heterosexual women. At the same time, lesbians were rated similarly to heterosexual women when it came to masculine physical characteristics and feminine traits. Gay men,

on the other hand, were rated differently from heterosexual men on feminine and masculine physical characteristics and feminine and masculine traits.

Kite and Deaux (1987) noted that in their study, respondents saw a larger divergence between gay and heterosexual males than they did between lesbian and heterosexual females. They suggested that gay males are more visible in our culture than lesbians, which has led to the formation of clearer stereotypes for gay men than for lesbians. Findings in the current study suggest that stereotypes of lesbians are also less defined. Alternatively, people's perceptions of lesbians may be changing. It is plausible that what appears to be less clearly formed stereotypes of lesbians reflect beliefs that different kinds of lesbians exist. In professional literature and popular culture two different types of lesbians are discussed. One that is masculine, and frequently termed "butch," and the other that is feminine, often labeled "femme" (see Levitt & Horne, 2002; Levitt & Hiestand, 2005). Recently, the media has aired more images of lesbians who portray traditionally feminine characteristics, such as in the Showtime television series, *The L Word*, as opposed to earlier images of lesbians that depicted solely masculine attributes. In contrast, most televised images of gay men, such as those seen in *Queer Eye for the Straight Guy* and *Will and Grace*, continue to echo only stereotypes that gay men are feminine. Findings suggest that perceptions of lesbians may be more complex than previous stereotype literature indicates. Research that addresses perceptions that there are different kinds of lesbians may help to increase understanding of findings about stereotypes of lesbians.

Contrary to expectations, respondent sex role egalitarianism did not relate to perceptions of heterosexual or sexual minority women and men on gender-linked

attributes. Based on research by Belk and Snell (1986) and Spence and Buckner (2000) it was expected that respondents low in sex role egalitarianism would view heterosexual women and men as more likely to possess gender-linked characteristics than would respondents high in sex role-egalitarianism. Furthermore, based on the implicit inversion theory (Kite & Deaux, 1987) it was expected that respondents low in sex role egalitarianism would view lesbians as more similar to heterosexual men and would view gay men as more similar to heterosexual women on gender-linked characteristics as compared to respondents low in sex role egalitarianism.

One possibility for why findings diverged from previous research is that the Sex Role Egalitarianism Scale (SRES) was used to measure gender ideology, while Belk and Snell (1986) and Spence and Buckner (2000) used the Attitudes Toward Women Scale (AWS; Spence & Helmreich, 1972). The AWS is different from the SRES in that it has been shown to measure only attitudes about women behaving in a traditionally masculine manner. The SRES measures these attitudes in addition to attitudes about men engaged in conventionally feminine behavior.

Another reason for this study's different findings (as compared to previous studies) is that respondents' average scores on the SRES were relatively high. Respondents whose average SRES item score fell below the 40th percentile were classified as low in sex role egalitarianism ($M = 3.64$), between the 40th and 60th percentile as medium in sex role egalitarianism ($M = 4.21$), and above the 60th percentile as high in sex role egalitarianism ($M = 4.61$). Respondents' mean score of 4.15 is slightly higher than the mean score of 3.97 reported by Brabeck and Weisgerber (1989). The gender ideology of respondents in the current study may have been evolved to a point

where it could not serve as an influential variable on the content of stereotypes. Spence and Hahn (1997) found that attitudes toward gender equality are increasing in both women and men. The finding that respondents scored relatively high in sex role egalitarianism supports this contention. Alternatively, Swim, Aikin, Hall, and Hunter (1995) suggested that two forms of sexism exist. The first, termed old-fashioned sexism, is typified by beliefs in traditional gender roles, dissimilar treatment of women and men, and agreement that women are less competent than men. The second, called modern sexism, is characterized by beliefs that discrimination against women does not exist and that affirmative action is unnecessary. It is possible that respondents in the current study held beliefs more congruent with modern sexism than with old-fashioned sexism. The SRES does not measure modern sexism. Another possibility is that respondents hold more traditional attitudes about gender roles than what they revealed on the SRES, but that their answers were influenced by social desirability.

Target age. While target sex and sexual orientation together occupy important roles when it comes to perceptions of others, target age is by no means an invisible player. As hypothesized, older adults, regardless of sexual orientation or gender, were perceived as frailer (e.g., “fragile,” “helpless,” “lonely,” “feeble”) and less spirited (e.g., “energetic,” “excited,” “eager,” “adventurous”) than adults. This finding is consistent with previous research that has shown differences in how older and younger adults are perceived (e.g., Canetto et al., 1995; Chasteen et al., 2002; Deutsch et al., 1986; Kite et al., 1991; O’Connell & Rotter, 1979). For example, older adults in Kite and colleagues’ (1991) study were perceived as less sociable and more dejected than adults. Perceptions about older adults (as compared to adults) in the current study seem to reflect beliefs that

with age, one becomes increasingly concerned with health and more likely to “slow down” and “take it easy.” Also similar to previous research (Kite et al., 1991), both sexual minorities and heterosexuals were thought less likely to possess traditionally masculine physical characteristics (“strong,” “tall,” “broad-shouldered,” and “sturdy”) as they aged.

Respondent sex did not relate to how respondents viewed older adults or adults on age-linked characteristics. Women and men were equally likely to see older adults as frailer and less spirited than adults. Results are similar to Walsh and Connor’s (1979) and Canetto and colleagues’ (1995) findings that females and males did not differ in their perceptions of older and younger adults. These results, however, contradict Kite and colleagues (1991) finding that female respondents viewed older adults as more likely to display “Stimulating Personality” (p. 24), “Positive Physical” (p. 24), and “Sociable” (p. 24) characteristics than did males. Results from the current study also diverge from those of Deutsch and colleagues (1986) who found that females rated older adults as more intelligent than did males.

The mixed findings across the literature about the relationship of respondent sex to age-linked stereotyping may be explained by methodological variations, as well as sample characteristics (e.g., age of respondents). Studies of aging stereotypes have specified that, what may appear to be negligible variations in methodology sometimes influence outcome (Kite & Johnson, 1988). For example, stereotyping studies using within-participants designs tend to find more stereotyping than studies using between-participants designs. Each of the aforementioned studies that examined the relationship of respondent sex to age-related stereotyping used different adjective rating scales in their

assessment of stereotypes. Furthermore, Deutsch and colleagues (1986) examined stereotypes of older adults by giving respondents photographs to rate using an adjective checklist. The other studies used only written descriptors of targets to rate.

Target sexual orientation. Despite the significant relationship that target age and the combination of target sex and sexual orientation have to stereotyping, sexual orientation alone was not inconsequential to the stereotypes detected. Although there was substantial overlap between same-age sexual minorities and heterosexual targets, variations in the ways that older adult sexual minorities and older adult heterosexuals were perceived were noted. Older adult heterosexuals were viewed as more Judicious (e.g., “knowledgeable,” “wise,” “mature,” “experienced”) than older adult sexual minorities, whom were perceived as similar to adult sexual minorities and adult heterosexuals in this regard. This same pattern of results was found for the Masculine Role Behaviors component (“financial provider,” “assumes financial obligations,” “is a head of household,” and “takes sexual initiative”), whereby older adult heterosexuals were perceived as less likely to display Masculine Role Behaviors than older adult sexual minorities, whom were viewed as similar to adult sexual minorities and adult heterosexuals in this regard. In addition, heterosexuals were thought to acquire Feminine Physical Characteristics (“dainty,” “soft,” “soft voice,” and “graceful”) as they age, whereas sexual minorities were not thought to change in this way with age.

Older adult sexual minorities have frequently been labeled as invisible (e.g., Anetzberger, Ishler, Mostade, & Blair, 2004; Berger, 1982; Shankle, Maxwell, Katzman, & Landers, 2003). Grossman, D’Augelli, and O’Connell point out, “Most people have opinions about aging, and many people have thoughts about homosexuality. But few

individuals have considered them simultaneously. ..many scholars, advocates for older adults, and other individuals consider the terms gay and aging to be incompatible” (p. 629). While older adult sexual minorities were perceived as similar to older adult heterosexuals in some respects, the differing perceptions about these two groups may reflect the hidden minority status of older adult lesbians and gay men.

The expected finding that heterosexual older adults were perceived as less likely to engage in masculine role behaviors and have masculine physical characteristics replicates Kite and colleagues’ (1991) study. It is also consistent with studies that have found that people believe that older adults become less instrumental as they age (Gekoski & Knox, 1990; Naus, 1973). Older adults in the Kite and colleagues’ study, however, were also perceived to be less likely than adults to display masculine traits (e.g., “active,” “independent,” “self confident”), whereas in the current study older adults and adults were perceived similarly on masculine traits. Another difference between findings in Kite and colleagues’ (1991) study and the current study is that in the current study heterosexual adults were thought to increasingly display feminine physical characteristics (e.g., “soft,” “soft voice”) with age. It is possible that these variations in results across the aforementioned studies are a function of sample differences. For example, Kite and colleagues’ (1991) study was conducted in the Midwest, whereas data for the current study was collected in the Rocky Mountain region. Furthermore, respondents in Kite and colleagues’ study included older and younger adults, whereas the current study included only younger adult respondents. Alternatively, because it has been nearly twenty years since data was gathered for Kite and colleagues’ study, it is feasible that differences in the current study reflect changing views about older adults. For example, older adults are

currently perceived as more instrumental (in terms of personality traits) than they were years ago.

The aforementioned findings point to differences in how older adult sexual minorities are viewed as compared to older adult heterosexuals. One notable result was obtained, however, that reflects a difference in how adult sexual minorities are viewed as compared to adult heterosexuals. Adult heterosexuals were perceived as more imprudent (that is, more “impatient,” “greedy,” and “irresponsible”) than adult sexual minorities, whom were seen as similar to older adult sexual minorities and older adult heterosexuals in this regard. Adult and older adult sexual minorities, as well as older adult heterosexuals are considered minority groups. It may be that shared minority status among the aged and sexual minorities results in certain perceptions of both groups, such as being less imprudent than the dominant group of adult heterosexuals. Kimmel (2002) points out that old age and minority sexual orientation share certain characteristics. For example, both “evoke discriminatory views that emphasize the importance of fertility and propagation as normative for everyone...” (p. 2), and both “are perceived as being best to avoid if possible; they are both dealt with by ‘Don’t ask, don’t tell’ policies” (p. 2). The privileged status of being an adult heterosexual appears to be perceived as increasing the likelihood that one will view one’s self as entitled. Older adults and sexual minorities appear to be exempted from such beliefs (about them) by way of their minority status. This finding points to the necessity of research that examines beliefs about people based on minority status alone.

Other findings from this study point to the relationship of sexual orientation to perceptions regardless of the age of the person being stereotyped. Both lesbians and gay

men were perceived as being more behaviorally androgynous (Feminine Role Behaviors and Masculine Role Behaviors) than heterosexual women and men, whom were thought to engage in more sex-typed behavior. In their study on stereotypes of lesbians and gay men, Kite and Deaux (1987) found a similar pattern of beliefs regarding masculine role behaviors, but showed that gay men were thought to engage in feminine role behaviors even more than heterosexual women. It has been approximately 20 years since data was gathered for the Kite and Deaux (1987) study. Differences between the current study's results and those found by Kite and Deaux (1987) may be accounted for by increasingly relaxed views about expected effeminate behavior displayed by gay men.

Lesbians and gay men were also believed as less likely to be engaged in conventional family roles ("mother/ father," "has children," and "gets married") as compared to heterosexual women and men. Although lesbians and gay men are denied marriage licenses in most states and are less likely to have children than heterosexuals (Fredricksen, 1999), the myth that they do not have children is false (Fredriksen, 1999). Such beliefs may reflect discriminatory practices toward lesbians and gay men, such as withholding custody and visitation with their biological children and barring them from adopting or becoming foster parents (Editors of the Harvard Law Review, 1990; Falk, 1989; Shapiro, 1996).

Sexual minorities were also seen as more Spirited (e.g., "energetic," "excited," "eager," "adventurous") than heterosexuals. This positive view of sexual minorities has not been identified in past literature. Its discovery in the current study reveals the incomplete picture that past studies have relayed when it comes to beliefs about sexual minorities.

In most respects, female and male respondents did not differ in how they perceived sexual minorities. Females and males rated sexual minorities in similar ways on all factors, except the Frail factor, in which case males gave higher probability ratings to sexual minorities than to heterosexuals, while females did not differ in their ratings of sexual minorities and heterosexuals. Findings are generally consistent with studies by Page and Yee (1986), Kite and Deaux (1987), and Madon (1997), all of who showed no differences in how females and males perceive sexual minorities. Findings from the current study are inconsistent, however, with studies that have found differences in how females and males stereotype sexual minorities (Gross et al., 1980; Herek, 2002; Kite & Deaux, 1987; Millham et al., 1976). As was previously mentioned, what may appear to be insignificant discrepancies in methodology sometimes influence outcome (Kite & Johnson, 1988). All of the studies that found no differences in how females and males stereotype sexual minorities used adjective rating scales to assess stereotypes. The studies that found differences in how females and males stereotype lesbians and gay men, on the other hand, utilized different kinds of instruments. Millham and colleagues (1976) and Herek (2002) embedded their assessment of stereotypes in attitude questionnaires, and Kite and Deaux (1987) used an open-ended response method. While Gross and colleagues (1980) used an adjective rating scale, they first asked respondents to watch a video of a lesbian or gay male. None of the studies that found similarities in how females and males view sexual minorities included a videotape stimulus. Overall, it appears that the way in which stereotypes are measured influences whether or not differences are found with regard to how females and males stereotype sexual minorities.

Stereotype Valence

The valence of stereotypes associated with the various targets could not be analyzed due to differences in how respondents made their valence ratings. Some respondents appeared to have made their valence ratings based on information about the target (e.g., a 65-year-old heterosexual male), while others appeared to have rated the valence of the attribute without regard to target characteristics. It was impossible to ascertain which respondents made their valence rating with the target in mind and which respondents did not. In the future, research that focuses on the valence of stereotypes associated with target groups may consider asking separate groups of respondents to provide stereotype probability ratings and stereotype valence ratings. Had such a method been employed in this study, the first group of respondents would have been asked to make ratings on the likelihood that target persons possessed each attribute (probability ratings). The second group of respondents would have been asked to assign valence ratings to each attribute without being provided any information about the target. The average valence rating assigned to each attribute could then be combined with the probability ratings made by the first group of respondents to provide information about the valence of stereotypes associated with target groups.

Conclusions

This study examined the content of stereotypes of people varying in sex, age, and sexual orientation. It also considered how stereotype content might be related to respondent sex and gender ideology. Findings suggest that whether information about gender, age, or sexual orientation is most heavily appraised in forming perceptions of other people depends on the kind of characteristics being considered. When gender-

linked and sexual orientation-linked attributes are considered, sexual orientation and gender frequently interact in shaping perceptions. In general, when age-linked attributes are examined, the age of the target appears to be more heavily related to beliefs. For example, the propensity for (particularly heterosexual) older adults to tend to be viewed as less likely to possess traditionally masculine attributes did not preclude respondents from perceiving older adults in gender-stereotypic ways (for heterosexuals) or in inverse gender-stereotypic ways (for sexual minorities). Lastly, minority status itself, with regard to age and sexual orientation, also appears to be related to how people are viewed. In this study, minorities were perceived as less imprudent than non-minorities. In conclusion, findings suggest that sexual orientation, gender, and age interact in shaping perceptions of others. Furthermore, it provides a beginning understanding of how older adult sexual minorities are viewed.

Future Directions

The current study is the first to formally assess stereotypes of older adult lesbians and gay men. Therefore, there are many avenues for future research. First, research into how people of different populations perceive older adult sexual minorities is needed to validate findings. Although studies on college students from diverse geographic regions of the country would serve a useful contribution, research into how older adults view older adult sexual minorities is especially needed. Also valuable would be research that examines perceptions of lesbians and gay men of different ages about older adult sexual minorities. Kimmel and Sang (1995) indicate that ageism is particularly prevalent in the gay male community. Thus, younger gay men may stereotype older gay men in particularly negative ways.

Second, future research on stereotypes of older adult sexual minorities would benefit from including an open-ended response measure of stereotypes. As previously implied, it is quite possible that respondents in the current study hold views of older adult lesbians and gay men that were not addressed by the attributes included in the stereotype measures. Allowing respondents to generate their own stereotypes of older adult sexual minorities may provide further insight into how people view this group.

Third, common beliefs held about sexual minorities likely exist together with more detailed subtypes of sexual minorities. Past research has shown that people hold multiple stereotypes of older adults (e.g., Hummert, 1990; Schmidt & Boland, 1986) and of women and men (e.g., Eckes, 1994; Edwards, 1992). Research that examines multiple stereotypes that people may hold of sexual minorities of all ages is needed. Rosch (1978) theorized that humans organize information into superordinate, basic level, and subordinate categories. It is likely that the current study tapped into perceptions at the superordinate (e.g., women) and basic (e.g., older lesbian woman) levels, though did not examine subordinate categories, typically referred to as subtypes.

Lastly, future research would benefit from paying close attention to issues of methodology when it comes to measuring respondent differences in stereotyping. Even though the current study did not find differences in how females and males and respondents differing in gender ideology stereotyped the target groups, it is feasible that results are influenced by issues inherent in methodology, such as the kind of instrument used to measure stereotyping.

The current study provides a window into young adults' views of older adult sexual minorities. With the aging of the baby-boomers, the time is ripe for further

explorations into perceptions of older adult sexual minorities. It is essential that stereotypes associated with this “invisible population” (Shankle et al., 2003, p. 159) come out of the closet. Not only will this knowledge increase understanding of how older adult sexual minorities may be influenced by other’s views of them, but it will also provide insight into beliefs within our culture that need to be targeted for change.

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Table 1

Reliability of the Gender Stereotype Measure Factors and Corrected Item-Total Correlations

Factor	Cronbach's α	Corrected item-total correlation
Masculine Physical Characteristics	.67	
Broad-shouldered		.33
Strong		.55
Sturdy		.57
Tall		.37
Feminine Physical Characteristics	.73	
Dainty		.45
Graceful		.44
Soft		.60
Soft voice		.60
Masculine Role Behaviors	.62	
Assumes financial obligations		.40
Financial provider		.56
Is a head of household		.40
Takes sexual initiative		.26
Feminine Role Behaviors	.74	
Cooks the meals		.62
Does the laundry		.60

(continued)

Table 1 continued

Factor	Cronbach's α	Corrected item-total correlation
Takes care of children		.35
Tends the house		.58
Masculine Traits	.70	
Active		.30
Competitive		.40
Feels superior		.27
Independent		.41
Makes decisions easily		.35
Never gives up easily		.43
Self-confident		.45
Stands up under pressure		.54
Feminine Traits	.79	
Able to devote self to others		.40
Aware of feelings of others		.55
Emotional		.29
Gentle		.55
Helpful		.53
Kind		.61
Understanding		.52
Warm		.55

Table 2

Aging Stereotypes Measure Items and Factor Matrix Loadings for a Five Factor Solution with Varimax Rotation

Item	Factor loadings				
	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5
Adventurous	.048	<u>.571</u>	.011	-.022	-.082
Afraid	.040	.229	.176	.375	-.455
Ambitious	.083	<u>.550</u>	.033	-.051	-.208
Bitter	-.045	.034	.257	<u>.506</u>	-.272
Carefree	.182	.378	.031	.170	.104
Cautious	<u>.418</u>	.049	.099	.255	-.194
Curious	.097	<u>.516</u>	.013	.126	-.061
Disrespectful	-.183	.156	.326	.197	-.196
Eager	.091	<u>.617</u>	.077	.102	.072
Energetic	.087	<u>.734</u>	.101	-.132	.067

(continued)

Table 2 continued

Item	Factor loadings				
	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5
Excited	.188	<u>.675</u>	.043	-.030	.090
Experienced	<u>.623</u>	-.150	.089	.055	-.192
Feeble	.194	.130	.102	<u>.576</u>	-.058
Flexible	-.009	<u>.577</u>	.001	-.044	-.018
Forgetful	.282	-.089	.413	.375	-.104
Fragile	.189	-.030	.095	<u>.662</u>	-.063
Generous	<u>.529</u>	.289	-.173	.146	.211
Greedy	-.059	.087	<u>.660</u>	.011	-.135
Healthy	.341	.383	-.179	-.224	.117
Helpless	-.125	-.017	.291	<u>.489</u>	-.008
Impatient	-.023	.028	<u>.720</u>	.112	-.071

(continued)

Table 2 continued

Item	Factor loadings				
	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5
Inexperienced	-.311	.332	.145	.168	.203
Inflexible	.162	-.260	.348	.171	.114
Irresponsible	-.255	.163	<u>.591</u>	.246	.043
Is financially stable	<u>.487</u>	.234	-.027	-.138	.042
Is sexually active	-.071	.420	.151	-.449	-.053
Knowledgeable	<u>.719</u>	.166	-.104	.017	-.002
Lazy	-.072	-.020	.607	.304	.026
Learned	<u>.513</u>	.046	.038	-.118	-.023
Lonely	-.081	.020	.113	<u>.491</u>	.084
Loud	-.108	.223	.372	.188	.195

(continued)

Table 2 continued

Item	Factor loadings				
	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5
Mature	<u>.615</u>	-.073	-.202	-.019	.001
Neglected	-.117	.181	.129	<u>.468</u>	.148
Optimistic	.494	.386	-.111	.065	.281
Patient	<u>.459</u>	.290	-.244	.092	.274
Practical	<u>.645</u>	.104	-.008	-.038	-.068
Rebellious	-.309	.464	.203	.134	.235
Reckless	-.363	.340	.309	.240	.159
Sage	.221	.208	.149	.198	.050
Senile	.068	-.145	.191	<u>.503</u>	-.009
Sentimental	<u>.423</u>	.156	-.044	.172	.167
Tired	.223	-.191	<u>.509</u>	.235	-.120

(continued)

Table 2 continued

Item	Factor loadings				
	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4	Factor 5
Vain	-.124	.184	<u>.502</u>	.150	.037
Vigorous	.111	.345	.300	.033	.300
Wasteful	-.232	.067	<u>.564</u>	-.002	.024
Wise	<u>.655</u>	-.027	-.173	.197	.040

Note. Items with underlined factor loadings were included on the subscale derived from the factor.

Table 3

Reliability and Factor Loadings for the Aging Stereotypes Measure

Item	Factor loading	Corrected item-total correlation
Factor 1: Judicious		
Knowledgeable	.72	.68
Wise	.66	.63
Practical	.65	.56
Experienced	.62	.48
Mature	.62	.57
Generous	.53	.52
Learned	.51	.46
Is financially stable	.49	.46
Patient	.46	.46
Sentimental	.42	.43
Cautious	.42	.35
Cronbach's $\alpha = .83$		
% variance = 10.41		
Factor 2: Spirited		
Energetic	.73	.67
Excited	.68	.61
Eager	.62	.59

(continued)

Table 3 continued

Item	Factor loading	Corrected item-total correlation
Flexible	.58	.47
Adventurous	.57	.51
Ambitious	.55	.49
Curious	.52	.47
Cronbach's $\alpha = .81$		
% variance = 9.84		
Factor 3: Imprudent		
Impatient	.72	.61
Greedy	.66	.59
Irresponsible	.59	.54
Wasteful	.56	.50
Tired	.51	.40
Vain	.50	.45
Cronbach's $\alpha = .76$		
% variance = 8.38		
Factor 4: Frail		
Fragile	.66	.54
Feeble	.58	.48
Bitter	.51	.48

(continued)

Table 3 continued

Item	Factor loading	Corrected item-total correlation
Senile	.50	.47
Lonely	.49	.42
Helpless	.49	.48
Neglected	.47	.41
Cronbach's $\alpha = .75$		
% variance = 2.35		

Note. ^a A reverse-scored item.

Table 4

Sexual Minority Stereotypes Measure Items and Factor Matrix Loadings for a Four Factor Solution with Varimax Rotation

Item	Factor loadings			
	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
Athletic	-.071	.199	-.142	.102
Can look like any person	-.038	.287	-.359	.038
Dresses nice	.172	<u>.490</u>	-.019	-.017
Father/ Mother	-.052	.150	<u>.740</u>	-.134
Feminine	<u>.874</u>	.199	.004	.272
Feminine mannerisms	.880	.195	.006	.307
Feminine qualities	<u>.865</u>	.175	.008	.273
Feminine walk	<u>.831</u>	.147	.030	.268
Friendly	.010	<u>.657</u>	-.032	-.042
Gets married	.004	.003	<u>.582</u>	-.026

(continued)

Table 4 continued

Item	Factor loadings			
	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
Has children	-.056	.081	<u>.934</u>	-.058
Is a head of household	<u>-.433</u>	.184	.125	.097
High pitched voice	<u>.420</u>	.123	-.102	.167
Intelligent	.087	<u>.581</u>	.082	.004
Lisp	.145	.001	-.141	.183
Loving	.119	<u>.531</u>	.183	.003
Masculine	-.797	-.008	.061	.413
Masculine appearance	-.829	.014	-.014	.461
Negative toward males	.045	-.246	-.142	.201
Nice looking	.174	<u>.579</u>	-.058	.019
Normal	-.011	<u>.493</u>	-.024	-.166

(continued)

Table 4 continued

Item	Factor loadings			
	Factor 1	Factor 2	Factor 3	Factor 4
Positive toward females	.041	<u>.469</u>	-.164	.001
Positive toward males	.004	<u>.486</u>	.140	.012
Short hair	-.386	.108	.058	.023
Shy	.100	.089	-.026	.350
Strange	.011	-.228	-.081	.310
Strong	-.157	.292	-.022	.183
Unattractive	-.073	-.221	-.037	.260
Wears feminine clothing	<u>.810</u>	.049	.084	.012
Wears jewelry	<u>.514</u>	.169	.081	.051
Wears masculine clothing	<u>-.752</u>	.018	-.041	.265

Note. Items with underlined factor loadings were included on the subscale derived from the factor.

Table 5

Reliability and Factor Loadings for the Sexual Minority Stereotypes Measure

Item	Factor loading	Corrected item-total correlation
Factor 1: Feminine Attributes		
Feminine	.87	.83
Feminine qualities	.87	.82
Feminine walk	.83	.81
Wears feminine clothing	.81	.83
Wears masculine clothing ^a	.75	.68
Wears jewelry	.51	.55
Is a head of household ^a	.43	.39
High-pitched voice	.42	.43
Cronbach's $\alpha = .89$		
% variance = 20.83		
Factor 2: Pleasant		
Friendly	.66	.54
Intelligent	.58	.51
Nice looking	.58	.50
Loving	.53	.46
Dresses nice	.49	.45
Normal	.49	.40
(continued)		

Table 5 continued

Item	Factor loading	Corrected item-total correlation
Positive toward males	.49	.40
Positive toward females	.47	.43
Cronbach's $\alpha = .75$		
% variance = 9.53		
Factor 3: Conventional Family Roles		
Has children	.93	.75
Mother/ father	.74	.65
Gets married	.58	.54
Cronbach's $\alpha = .80$		
% variance = 4.08		

Note. ^a A reverse-scored item.

Table 6

Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations of Dependent Variables

Variable	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.	10.	11.	12.	13.
1. Fem. Phys.	42.05	15.56													
2. Masc. Phys.	46.44	13.33	.00												
3. Fem. Role Beh.	55.75	17.34	.47	.07											
4. Masc. Role Beh.	58.08	15.00	-.09	.43	-.03										
5. Fem. Traits	65.44	12.47	.54	.13	.56	.13									
6. Masc. Traits	54.52	11.66	.12	.54	.24	.50	.36								
7. Judicious	64.13	12.10	.40	.18	.40	.21	.76	.40							
8. Spirited	52.79	13.83	.33	.40	.35	.33	.45	.55	.24						
9. Imprudent	38.72	14.30	.09	-.28	-.02	.15	.13	.19	-.16	.10					
10. Frail	34.93	13.30	.32	.08	.08	-.12	.11	.03	.09	.04	.37				
11. Fem. Attributes	45.96	19.94	.58	-.18	.60	-.43	.37	-.07	.16	.20	.02	.16			
12. Pleasant	67.06	12.27	.38	.20	.45	.24	.70	.39	.75	.33	-.14	-.07	.21		
13. Conv. Fam. Roles	51.69	24.34	.06	.09	.03	.06	.03	.08	.21	-.14	.24	-.08	.00	.10	

Note. $N = 394$. Correlations $\geq .11$ are significant at $p \leq .05$.

Table 7

Mean Valence Scores by Target Sex, Target Age, and Target Sexual Orientation

Factor	<u>Target sex</u>		<u>Target age</u>		<u>Target sexual orientation</u>	
	Female (<i>n</i> = 197)	Male (<i>n</i> = 197)	35 (<i>n</i> = 199)	65 (<i>n</i> = 195)	Sexual minority (<i>n</i> = 200)	Heterosexual (<i>n</i> = 194)
<i>Sexual Minority Stereotypes Measure</i>						
Feminine Attributes	2.14	1.76	1.93	1.97	1.98	1.92
Positive Personality	2.65	2.69	2.65	2.69	2.66	2.68
Conventional Family Roles	2.35	2.37	2.34	2.38	2.22	2.51
<i>Aging Stereotypes Measure</i>						
Judicious	2.65	2.65	2.61	2.68	2.62	2.67
Spirited	2.54	2.52	2.54	2.52	2.51	2.55
Imprudent	1.32	1.34	1.34	1.33	1.35	1.31
Frail	1.39	1.36	1.38	1.37	1.39	1.36

(continued)

Table 7 continued

Factor	<u>Target sex</u>		<u>Target age</u>		<u>Target sexual orientation</u>	
	Female	Male	35	65	Sexual minority	Heterosexual
Gender Stereotypes Measure						
Masculine Physical	2.24	2.29	2.29	2.24	2.26	2.27
Feminine Physical	2.11	2.00	2.02	2.09	2.07	2.03
Masculine Role Behaviors	2.32	2.40	2.39	2.33	2.35	2.37
Feminine Role Behaviors	2.38	2.42	2.41	2.39	2.37	2.43
Masculine Traits	2.50	2.44	2.48	2.46	2.45	2.50
Feminine Traits	2.72	2.69	2.70	2.72	2.71	2.71

Table 8

Presentation One Mean Valence Scores by Target Sex, Target Age, and Target Sexual Orientation

Factor	<u>Target sex</u>		<u>Target age</u>		<u>Target sexual orientation</u>	
	Female (<i>n</i> = 98)	Male (<i>n</i> = 98)	35 (<i>n</i> = 99)	65 (<i>n</i> = 97)	Sexual minority (<i>n</i> = 100)	Heterosexual (<i>n</i> = 96)
Sexual Minority Stereotypes Measure						
Feminine Attributes	2.15	1.75	1.92	1.98	1.98	1.92
Pleasant	2.64	2.68	2.65	2.67	2.65	2.67
Conventional Family Roles	2.36	2.31	2.31	2.36	2.19	2.49
Aging Stereotypes Measure						
Judicious	2.64	2.65	2.64	2.65	2.63	2.65
Spirited	2.52	2.50	2.53	2.49	2.47	2.56
Imprudent	1.34	1.33	1.32	1.35	1.39	1.28
Frail	1.37	1.35	1.36	1.36	1.40	1.32

(continued)

Table 8 continued

Factor	<u>Target sex</u>		<u>Target age</u>		<u>Target sexual orientation</u>	
	Female	Male	35	65	Sexual minority	Heterosexual
Gender Stereotypes Measure						
Masculine Physical	2.26	2.29	2.30	2.25	2.26	2.29
Feminine Physical	2.12	1.99	2.01	2.09	2.06	2.04
Masculine Role Behaviors	2.33	2.39	2.41	2.30	2.37	2.35
Feminine Role Behaviors	2.37	2.42	2.44	2.35	2.38	2.41
Masculine Traits	2.49	2.45	2.50	2.44	2.44	2.50
Feminine Traits	2.72	2.70	2.71	2.71	2.71	2.72

Table 9

Presentation Two Mean Valence Scores by Target Sex, Target Age, and Target Sexual Orientation

Factor	<u>Target sex</u>		<u>Target age</u>		<u>Target sexual orientation</u>	
	Female (<i>n</i> = 99)	Male (<i>n</i> = 99)	35 (<i>n</i> = 100)	65 (<i>n</i> = 98)	Sexual Minority (<i>n</i> = 100)	Heterosexual (<i>n</i> = 98)
<u>Sexual Minority Stereotypes Measure</u>						
Feminine Attributes	2.13	1.77	1.93	1.97	1.99	1.91
Pleasant	2.65	2.70	2.65	2.71	2.67	2.69
Conventional Family Roles	2.35	2.42	2.36	2.41	2.25	2.53
<u>Aging Stereotypes Measure</u>						
Judicious	2.65	2.65	2.59	2.71	2.61	2.69
Spirited	2.55	2.55	2.55	2.55	2.55	2.55
Imprudent	1.30	1.35	1.35	1.31	1.31	1.35
Frail	1.40	1.38	1.41	1.37	1.38	1.41

(continued)

Table 9 continued

Factor	<u>Target sex</u>		<u>Target age</u>		<u>Target sexual orientation</u>	
	Female	Male	35	65	Sexual Minority	Heterosexual
Gender Stereotypes Measure						
Masculine Physical	2.22	2.30	2.28	2.24	2.26	2.25
Feminine Physical	2.11	2.01	2.03	2.09	2.09	2.03
Masculine Role Behaviors	2.31	2.42	2.37	2.36	2.34	2.39
Feminine Role Behaviors	2.39	2.42	2.38	2.43	2.37	2.45
Masculine Traits	2.51	2.43	2.47	2.48	2.45	2.49
Feminine Traits	2.73	2.68	2.69	2.72	2.71	2.70

Table 10

Mean Probability Gender Stereotypes Measure Scores by Target Sex, Target Age, Target Sexual Orientation, Respondent Sex, and Respondent Gender Ideology

	<u>Target sex</u>		<u>Target age</u>		<u>Target sexual orientation</u>		<u>Respondent sex</u>		<u>Gender Ideology</u>		
	Female	Male	35	65	Sexual minority	Heterosexual	Female	Male	Low	Middle	High
	Masculine Physical Characteristics										
<i>M</i>	44.06	48.70	48.85	43.84	46.34	46.39	48.00	42.33	44.18	45.79	48.73
<i>SD</i>	13.06	13.11	13.07	13.03	12.38	14.18	12.68	13.90	13.58	14.24	12.18
<i>N</i>	196.00	194.00	197.00	193.00	199.00	191.00	278.00	112.00	155.00	73.00	162.00
	Feminine Physical Characteristics										
<i>M</i>	44.45	39.83	40.61	43.72	42.58	41.71	42.24	41.93	42.59	39.70	42.84
<i>SD</i>	14.79	15.90	14.43	16.42	15.21	15.84	15.14	16.44	16.51	16.19	14.13
<i>N</i>	196.00	194.00	197.00	193.00	199.00	191.00	278.00	112.00	155.00	73.00	162.00

(continued)

Table 10 continued

	<u>Target sex</u>		<u>Target age</u>		<u>Target sexual orientation</u>		<u>Respondent sex</u>		<u>Gender Ideology</u>		
	Female	Male	35	65	Sexual minority	Heterosexual	Female	Male	Low	Middle	High
	Masculine Role Behaviors										
<i>M</i>	52.33	63.51	60.05	55.69	59.32	56.40	58.32	56.83	55.87	57.55	59.98
<i>SD</i>	14.73	12.66	14.24	15.11	12.81	16.57	15.08	14.17	15.18	14.27	14.52
<i>N</i>	196.00	194.00	197.00	193.00	199.00	191.00	278.00	112.00	155.00	73.00	162.00
	Feminine Role Behaviors										
<i>M</i>	62.51	49.38	57.01	54.93	57.66	54.22	56.60	54.43	53.45	55.76	58.49
<i>SD</i>	14.51	17.28	16.95	17.49	13.65	20.19	17.65	16.12	17.12	19.15	16.14
<i>N</i>	196.00	194.00	197.00	193.00	199.00	191.00	278.00	112.00	155.00	73.00	162.00

(continued)

Table 10 continued

	<u>Target sex</u>		<u>Target age</u>		<u>Target sexual orientation</u>		<u>Respondent sex</u>		<u>Gender Ideology</u>		
	Female	Male	35	65	Sexual minority	Heterosexual	Female	Male	Low	Middle	High
	Masculine Traits										
<i>M</i>	54.03	54.97	56.17	52.79	55.02	53.95	55.31	52.48	53.08	53.87	56.14
<i>SD</i>	11.48	11.57	11.57	11.25	10.76	12.27	11.15	12.21	11.66	11.67	11.18
<i>N</i>	196.00	194.00	197.00	193.00	199.00	191.00	278.00	112.00	155.00	73.00	162.00
	Feminine Traits										
<i>M</i>	67.82	63.26	64.28	66.85	66.95	64.10	67.03	61.88	63.64	62.97	68.55
<i>SD</i>	11.93	12.30	13.46	10.89	12.00	12.49	12.06	12.22	12.80	13.25	10.75
<i>N</i>	196.00	194.00	197.00	193.00	199.00	191.00	278.00	112.00	155.00	73.00	162.00

Table 11

Mean Probability Ratings of the Gender Stereotypes Measure by Target Sex and Target Sexual Orientation

Target Sex	Target Sexual Orientation			
	Sexual minority		Heterosexual	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Masculine Physical Characteristics				
Female	46.32	13.05	41.76	12.73
Male	46.36	11.74	51.18	14.07
Feminine Physical Characteristics				
Female	39.83	14.80	49.18	13.28
Male	45.31	15.20	34.00	14.56
Masculine Role Behaviors				
Female	57.68	12.93	46.87	14.51
Male	60.94	12.54	66.23	12.28
Feminine Role Behaviors				
Female	58.32	14.28	66.79	13.52
Male	57.01	13.05	41.26	17.59
Masculine Traits				
Female	57.31	10.84	50.69	11.20
Male	52.76	10.24	57.31	12.47

(continued)

Table 11 continued

Target Sex	Target Sexual Orientation			
	Sexual minority		Heterosexual	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
	Feminine Traits			
Female	66.99	12.34	68.67	11.50
Male	66.91	11.72	59.38	11.75

Note. Sample size per cell is as follows: Female sexual minority, $n = 99$; male sexual minority, $n = 100$; female heterosexual, $n = 97$; male heterosexual, $n = 94$.

Table 12

Mean Probability Ratings of the Gender Stereotypes Measure by Target Age and Target Sexual Orientation

Target Age	Target Sexual Orientation			
	Sexual minority		Heterosexual	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Masculine Physical Characteristics				
35	47.36	12.74	50.38	13.30
65	45.32	11.97	42.28	13.95
Feminine Physical Characteristics				
35	43.25	14.89	37.90	13.48
65	41.91	15.57	45.63	17.15
Masculine Role Behaviors				
35	59.70	12.89	60.40	15.56
65	58.93	12.77	52.27	16.63
Feminine Role Behaviors				
35	58.11	14.21	55.87	19.39
65	57.21	13.12	52.53	20.95
Masculine Traits				
35	55.63	11.10	56.73	12.06
65	54.41	10.42	51.08	11.88

(continued)

Table 12 continued

Target Sex	Target Sexual Orientation			
	Sexual minority		Heterosexual	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
	Feminine Traits			
35	67.27	12.70	61.19	13.59
65	66.63	11.31	67.09	10.50

Note. Sample size per cell is as follows: 35-year-old sexual minority, $n = 100$; 65-year-old sexual minority, $n = 99$; 35-year-old heterosexual, $n = 97$; 65-year-old heterosexual, $n = 94$.

Table 13

Mean Probability Aging Stereotypes Measure Scores by Target Sex, Target Age, Target Sexual Orientation, Respondent Sex, and Respondent Gender Ideology

	<u>Target sex</u>		<u>Target age</u>		<u>Target sexual orientation</u>		<u>Respondent sex</u>		<u>Gender Ideology</u>		
	Female	Male	35	65	Sexual minority	Heterosexual	Female	Male	Low	Middle	High
	Judicious										
<i>M</i>	65.80	63.20	60.96	68.08	63.80	65.22	65.62	61.69	62.82	63.64	66.47
<i>SD</i>	11.28	11.31	11.02	10.57	11.32	11.38	11.40	10.78	11.68	11.00	10.95
<i>N</i>	195.00	195.00	196.00	194.00	198.00	192.00	279.00	111.00	154.00	73.00	163.00
	Spirited										
<i>M</i>	53.22	52.39	55.81	49.78	55.61	49.94	53.00	52.28	52.21	48.78	55.09
<i>SD</i>	11.33	13.34	11.51	12.51	11.86	12.27	12.43	12.29	11.34	11.99	13.04
<i>N</i>	188.00	191.00	190.00	189.00	191.00	188.00	272.00	107.00	152.00	68.00	159.00

(continued)

Table 13 continued

	<u>Target sex</u>		<u>Target age</u>		<u>Target sexual orientation</u>		<u>Respondent sex</u>		<u>Gender Ideology</u>		
	Female	Male	35	65	Sexual minority	Heterosexual	Female	Male	Low	Middle	High
	Imprudent										
<i>M</i>	36.76	39.62	39.98	36.40	35.43	41.06	37.65	39.55	38.93	36.37	38.29
<i>SD</i>	13.73	13.16	12.92	13.87	13.20	13.25	13.99	12.15	13.18	13.65	13.76
<i>N</i>	193.00	193.00	193.00	193.00	197.00	189.00	277.00	109.00	152.00	71.00	163.00
	Frail										
<i>M</i>	36.20	33.14	31.29	38.14	35.59	33.72	34.23	35.77	36.45	34.53	33.03
<i>SD</i>	13.18	12.34	11.13	13.57	12.27	13.37	12.57	13.50	13.20	12.42	12.53
<i>N</i>	196.00	195.00	198.00	193.00	199.00	192.00	278.00	113.00	156.00	73.00	162.00

Table 14

*Mean Probability Ratings of the Aging Stereotypes Measure by
Target Age and Target Sexual Orientation*

Target Age	Target Sexual Orientation					
	Sexual minority			Heterosexual		
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>
Judicious						
35	61.86	11.58	99	60.05	10.40	97
65	65.75	10.76	99	70.50	9.84	95
Spirited						
35	58.08	11.09	94	53.59	11.54	96
65	53.22	12.14	97	46.14	11.90	92
Imprudent						
35	36.31	12.65	98	43.76	12.14	95
65	34.55	13.73	99	38.34	13.82	94
Frail						
35	33.86	11.36	100	28.66	10.30	98
65	37.34	12.96	99	38.99	14.20	94

Table 15

Mean Probability Sexual Minority Stereotypes Measure Scores by Target Sex, Target Age, Target Sexual Orientation, Respondent Sex, and Respondent Gender Ideology

	<u>Target sex</u>		<u>Target age</u>		<u>Target sexual orientation</u>		<u>Respondent sex</u>		<u>Gender Ideology</u>		
	Female	Male	35	65	Sexual minority	Heterosexual	Female	Male	Low	Middle	High
	Feminine Attributes										
<i>M</i>	58.34	33.89	46.49	45.73	46.84	45.37	46.00	46.39	46.61	43.46	46.83
<i>SD</i>	14.63	16.64	18.69	21.04	15.15	23.79	19.60	20.60	19.86	20.71	19.51
<i>N</i>	196.00	196.00	198.00	194.00	199.00	193.00	280.00	112.00	155.06	73.00	163.00
	Pleasant										
<i>M</i>	67.83	67.54	66.36	69.03	68.52	66.83	69.21	63.90	65.02	65.48	71.19
<i>SD</i>	11.00	11.34	11.38	10.80	11.87	10.34	11.26	9.98	10.56	11.55	10.65
<i>N</i>	194.00	193.00	195.00	192.00	196.00	191.00	276.00	111.00	153.00	72.00	162.00

(continued)

Table 15 continued

	<u>Target sex</u>		<u>Target age</u>		<u>Target sexual orientation</u>		<u>Respondent sex</u>		<u>Gender Ideology</u>		
	Female	Male	35	65	Sexual minority	Heterosexual	Female	Male	Low	Middle	High
	Conventional Family Roles										
<i>M</i>	51.96	51.79	50.34	53.45	35.03	69.70	53.49	47.89	50.40	54.96	51.93
<i>SD</i>	24.64	24.07	23.94	24.68	20.08	13.16	24.41	23.74	24.91	25.08	23.41
<i>N</i>	195.00	194.00	197.00	192.00	200.00	189.00	277.00	112.00	156.00	72.00	161.00

Table 16

Perceptions of 35- and 65-Year-Old Lesbians, Gay Men, and Heterosexual Women and Men

Target Group	Stereotypes
35-year-old lesbian females	Feminine Physical Characteristics Feminine Role Behaviors Masculine Role Behaviors Feminine Traits Masculine Traits Spirited Pleasant
35-year-old gay males	Feminine Physical Characteristics Feminine Role Behaviors Masculine Role Behaviors Feminine Traits Spirited Pleasant
35-year-old heterosexual females	Feminine Physical Characteristics Feminine Role Behaviors Feminine Traits Spirited Imprudent Feminine Attributes Pleasant Conventional Family Roles
35-year-old heterosexual males	Masculine Physical Characteristics Masculine Role Behaviors Masculine Traits Spirited Imprudent Conventional Family Roles
65-year-old lesbian females	Feminine Physical Characteristics Feminine Role Behaviors Masculine Role Behaviors Feminine Traits

(continued)

Table 16 continued

	Masculine Traits Frail Pleasant
65-year-old gay males	Feminine Physical Characteristics Feminine Role Behaviors Masculine Role Behaviors Feminine Traits Frail Pleasant
65-year-old heterosexual females	Feminine Physical Characteristics Feminine Role Behaviors Feminine Traits Judicious Frail Feminine Attributes Pleasant Conventional Family Roles
65-year-old heterosexual males	Feminine Physical Characteristics Masculine Traits Judicious Frail Conventional Family Roles

APPENDIX A
STUDY ADVERTISEMENT

Characteristics people associate with a diversity of people

- Study description:* This research study will examine characteristics that people associate with adults and older adults. You will be asked to fill-out a questionnaire that asks you to describe the characteristics you associate with different kinds of people, a second questionnaire that asks you how you feel about a number of behaviors of women and men, and a demographic questionnaire. To receive credit for participating in this study, you must also bring to the research session for which you are signed-up to participate, the names and home addresses of two older adult (60 years of age or older) family members and/or friends and place their names on a letter (which we will provide) inviting them to participate in the study. We are including students and older adults as participants in our study. The older adults that you refer for participation in this study will receive a cover letter describing this study to them, as well as the same questionnaires that you receive during the study. You will earn one PY100 research credit for participation in this study.
- Special requirements:* You must be between the ages of 18 and 30 to participate in this study.
- Credits:* 1
- Contact:* Sara Wright

APPENDIX B
GENDER STEREOTYPES MEASURE

Gender Stereotypes Measure (GSM)

Instructions: On a scale of 0-100, rate the probability that a [target person specified here] possesses each of the following attributes or engages in each of the following behaviors. You may use the same probability rating more than once. Your probability ratings do not need to add up to 100. Mark your answer on the line next to each attribute.

After you have assigned a probability rating to a particular attribute or behavior, please indicate the valence of that attribute or behavior. For example, if in your opinion that attribute/ behavior is negative, circle "1." If you feel that the attribute/ behavior is neutral, circle "2." If you feel that the attribute/ behavior is positive, circle "3." Please refer to the key below to remind yourself what number to circle for each item.

	<u>Probability (0-100)</u>	<u>Valence of the Attribute</u>		
		Negative	Neutral	Positive
Able to devote self to others	_____	1	2	3
Active	_____	1	2	3
Assumes financial obligations	_____	1	2	3
Aware of feelings of others	_____	1	2	3
Broad-shouldered	_____	1	2	3
Competitive	_____	1	2	3
Cooks the meals	_____	1	2	3
Dainty	_____	1	2	3
Does the laundry	_____	1	2	3
Emotional	_____	1	2	3
Feels superior	_____	1	2	3
Financial provider	_____	1	2	3
Gentle	_____	1	2	3
Graceful	_____	1	2	3
Helpful	_____	1	2	3
Independent	_____	1	2	3
Is a head of household	_____	1	2	3

		<u>Negative</u>	<u>Neutral</u>	<u>Positive</u>
Kind	_____	1	2	3
Makes decisions easily	_____	1	2	3
Never gives up easily	_____	1	2	3
Self-confident	_____	1	2	3
Soft	_____	1	2	3
Soft voice	_____	1	2	3
Stands up under pressure	_____	1	2	3
Strong	_____	1	2	3
Sturdy	_____	1	2	3
Takes care of children	_____	1	2	3
Takes sexual initiative	_____	1	2	3
Tall	_____	1	2	3
Tends the house	_____	1	2	3
Understanding	_____	1	2	3
Warm	_____	1	2	3

APPENDIX C
AGING STEREOTYPES MEASURE

Aging Stereotypes Measure (ASM)

Instructions: On a scale of 0-100, rate the probability that a [target person specified here] possesses each of the following attributes or engages in each of the following behaviors. You may use the same probability rating more than once. Your probability ratings do not need to add up to 100. Mark your answer on the line next to each attribute.

After you have assigned a probability rating to a particular attribute or behavior, please indicate the valence of that attribute or behavior. For example, if in your opinion that attribute/ behavior is negative, circle "1." If you feel that the attribute/ behavior is neutral, circle "2." If you feel that the attribute/ behavior is positive, circle "3." Please refer to the key below to remind yourself what number to circle for each item.

	<u>Probability (0-100)</u>	<u>Valence of the Attribute</u>		
		Negative	Neutral	Positive
Adventurous	_____	1	2	3
Afraid	_____	1	2	3
Ambitious	_____	1	2	3
Bitter	_____	1	2	3
Carefree	_____	1	2	3
Cautious	_____	1	2	3
Curious	_____	1	2	3
Disrespectful	_____	1	2	3
Eager	_____	1	2	3
Energetic	_____	1	2	3
Excited	_____	1	2	3
Experienced	_____	1	2	3
Feeble	_____	1	2	3
Flexible	_____	1	2	3
Forgetful	_____	1	2	3
Fragile	_____	1	2	3

		<u>Negative</u>	<u>Neutral</u>	<u>Positive</u>
Generous	_____	1	2	3
Greedy	_____	1	2	3
Healthy	_____	1	2	3
Helpless	_____	1	2	3
Impatient	_____	1	2	3
Inexperienced	_____	1	2	3
Inflexible	_____	1	2	3
Irresponsible	_____	1	2	3
Is financially stable	_____	1	2	3
Is sexually active	_____	1	2	3
Knowledgeable	_____	1	2	3
Lazy	_____	1	2	3
Learned	_____	1	2	3
Lonely	_____	1	2	3
Loud	_____	1	2	3
Mature	_____	1	2	3
Neglected	_____	1	2	3
Optimistic	_____	1	2	3
Patient	_____	1	2	3
Practical	_____	1	2	3
Rebellious	_____	1	2	3
Reckless	_____	1	2	3
Sage	_____	1	2	3
Senile	_____	1	2	3
Sentimental	_____	1	2	3
Tired	_____	1	2	3
Vain	_____	1	2	3
Vigorous	_____	1	2	3
Wasteful	_____	1	2	3
Wise	_____	1	2	3

APPENDIX D
SEXUAL MINORITY STEREOTYPES MEASURE

Sexual Minority Stereotype Measure (SMSM)

Instructions: On a scale of 0-100, rate the probability that a [target person specified here] possesses each of the following attributes or engages in each of the following behaviors. You may use the same probability rating more than once. Your probability ratings do not need to add up to 100. Mark your answer on the line next to each attribute.

After you have assigned a probability rating to a particular attribute or behavior, please indicate the valence of that attribute or behavior. For example, if in your opinion that attribute/ behavior is negative, circle "1." If you feel that the attribute/ behavior is neutral, circle "2." If you feel that the attribute/ behavior is positive, circle "3." Please refer to the key below to remind yourself what number to circle for each item.

	<u>Probability (0-100)</u>	<u>Valence of the Attribute</u>		
		Negative	Neutral	Positive
Athletic	_____	1	2	3
Can look like any person	_____	1	2	3
Dresses nice	_____	1	2	3
Feminine	_____	1	2	3
Feminine mannerisms	_____	1	2	3
Feminine qualities	_____	1	2	3
Feminine walk	_____	1	2	3
Friendly	_____	1	2	3
Get married	_____	1	2	3
Has children	_____	1	2	3
Head of household	_____	1	2	3
High-pitched voice	_____	1	2	3
Intelligent	_____	1	2	3
Lisp	_____	1	2	3
Loving	_____	1	2	3
Masculine	_____	1	2	3
Masculine appearance	_____	1	2	3

		Negative	Neutral	Positive
Mother	_____	1	2	3
Negative toward males	_____	1	2	3
Nice-looking	_____	1	2	3
Normal	_____	1	2	3
Positive toward females	_____	1	2	3
Positive toward males	_____	1	2	3
Short hair	_____	1	2	3
Shy	_____	1	2	3
Strange	_____	1	2	3
Strong	_____	1	2	3
Unattractive	_____	1	2	3
Wears feminine clothing	_____	1	2	3
Wears jewelry	_____	1	2	3
Wears masculine clothing	_____	1	2	3

APPENDIX E
DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONNAIRE

Demographic Questionnaire

I. Respondent Information

1. Participant # _____ (leave blank)

2. Are you a:

CSU student

Or the CSU student's

Grandparent (couple)*

Aunt or Uncle

Grandparent

Older friend (couple)*

Aunt/Uncle (couple)*

Older friend

Other (specify) _____

*(if both members of a couple are filling out the questionnaire)

3. If you are a CSU student, what is your current year in college?

first

fourth

graduate student

second

fifth

third

sixth and beyond

4. SEX:

female

male

other

5. AGE: _____

6. SEXUAL ORIENTATION:

heterosexual

transgender

lesbian or gay

unsure

bisexual

7. RELATIONSHIP STATUS:

single

divorced

married or living with partner

widow/er

separated

other (please describe) _____

8. ETHNIC BACKGROUND (Check all that apply):

- Native American/American Indian
Specify:
- African American/ Black
Specify:
- Latina/ Latino/Hispanic
Specify:
- Asian American/ Pacific Islander
Specify:
- European American/White (non Hispanic)
Specify:
- Other
Specify:

9. PRIMARY LANGUAGE:

- English
- Spanish
- Other language
Specify:

10. NUMBER OF YEARS OF EDUCATION: _____ (in years, beginning with 1st grade)

11. DEGREES (Mark highest received):

- | | |
|---|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Ph.D. or Professional Degree | <input type="checkbox"/> High School |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Masters Degree | <input type="checkbox"/> Some High School |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Some Graduate School | <input type="checkbox"/> Junior High (7 th to 9 th grade) |
| <input type="checkbox"/> College Degree | <input type="checkbox"/> Elementary to 6 th grade |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Some College | <input type="checkbox"/> Elementary under 6 years |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Associates Degree | |

12. WHAT IS YOUR SOCIOECONOMIC STATUS? (for students, please refer to your parents' socioeconomic status)

- Working class
- Middle class
- Upper middle class
- Upper class

13. OCCUPATION:

- | | |
|---|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> student | <input type="checkbox"/> retired |
| <input type="checkbox"/> employed full time | <input type="checkbox"/> unemployed |
| <input type="checkbox"/> employed part-time | <input type="checkbox"/> other (please describe) |
- _____

(if employed, please specify occupation by circling the appropriate number below. If unemployed or retired, please specify occupation prior to unemployment or retirement)

- executive, proprietor of large concerns, profession
- administration, proprietor of small business, minor profession
- homemaker
- clerical and sales; technician
- skilled manual
- semi-skilled work
- unskilled work
- student
- other (specify) _____

14. WHERE DID YOU GROW UP?

- rural
- small town
- town (mark here if you are from Fort Collins)
- large metropolitan area

15. IN WHAT REGION OF THE U.S. DID YOU GROW UP? (If you grew up in the U.S.)

- | | |
|---|--|
| <input type="checkbox"/> Northeast | <input type="checkbox"/> Rocky Mountain Region |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Southeast | <input type="checkbox"/> Northwest |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Midwest | <input type="checkbox"/> Southwest |
| <input type="checkbox"/> Central States | |

16. COUNTRY IN WHICH YOU GREW-UP (If not U.S.): _____

II. Contact

A. With older adults

(1) How much contact do you have with people aged 65 or older?

- | | |
|--|---|
| <input type="checkbox"/> daily | <input type="checkbox"/> once a month |
| <input type="checkbox"/> weekly | <input type="checkbox"/> two to five times a year |
| <input type="checkbox"/> two to five times a month | <input type="checkbox"/> once a year |

public service _____% of my public service interaction is with lesbians and/or
gays.
other (specify) _____% of my other interaction is with lesbians and/or gays

(3) Of my total contact with lesbian and/or gay individuals,
_____ % is with lesbian women
_____ % of with gay men
(column total should equal 100%)

(4) The contact that I have with lesbians and gays is generally (circle one):

1	2	3
Negative	Neutral	Positive

APPENDIX F
INTRODUCTION TO THE STUDY

Introduction to the Study

Good Morning/ Afternoon. Thank you for signing-up to participate in this study, entitled “Characteristics people associate with a diversity of people.” You will receive one research credit for participation in this study.

For the duration of this study, there is to be absolutely no talking. In a moment, you will be given a packet of questionnaires. At the beginning of the packet are two copies of an “Informed consent to participate in a research project” form. Please read this form carefully, and if you agree to its terms and conditions, sign and date it. Also, please initial and date at the bottom of each page of the consent form. Keep the second consent form for your own records. A research assistant will collect the consent forms. If you have signed the consent form and choose to participate, she will then give you a packet of questionnaires. Complete each questionnaire in order by reading the directions on each form. Please answer all questions on every questionnaire. With the exception of signing the consent form, do not put your name on any of the forms. There are no right or wrong answers associated with any of the questions that you are about to answer. After you have completed the packet of questionnaires, raise your hand and a research assistant will collect your forms.

You were also asked to bring with you the valid names and home addresses of two older adult (60-years of age or older) friends or family members. If you have not brought the valid names and home addresses of two older adult (60 years of age or older) friends or family members, you will not receive credit for participating in this study. When the research assistant collects your questionnaires, she will give you two stamped envelopes, each of which includes a packet of questionnaires just like those that you will fill-out today, to be sent to two of your older adult family members or friends (age 60 or older). Attached to each envelope is a letter that will be sent to your older adult family member or friend along with the packet of questionnaires. Please write the name of one of the older adult persons on the blank line at the top of the letter. Next, put the letter in one of the envelopes so that it’s the first sheet of paper in the envelope, then put the valid name and home address of your older adult family member or friend on the outside of that envelope and seal the envelope. Repeat this process for the second older adult family member or friend. Lastly, drop both of the envelopes in the bag (*display the bag*) located in the front of the room. You may then sign your name on the attendance sheet located in the front of the room (*display attendance sheet*). You will have now received one PY100 research credit for participating in this study. Please pick-up a debriefing form on your way out.

Again, thank you for participating in the study. If you have any questions or concerns during the course of this study, please do not hesitate to raise your hand, and a research assistant will get to you shortly.

APPENDIX G
INFORMED CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN A RESEARCH PROJECT

COLORADO STATE UNIVERSITY
INFORMED CONSENT TO PARTICIPATE IN A RESEARCH PROJECT

TITLE OF PROJECT: Characteristics people associate with a diversity of people

NAME OF PRINCIPAL INVESTIGATOR: Silvia Sara Canetto, Ph.D.

NAME OF CO-INVESTIGATOR: Sara Wright, M.S.

CONTACT NAME AND PHONE NUMBER FOR QUESTIONS/PROBLEMS: Silvia Sara Canetto, Ph.D. (970-491-5415) or Sara Wright, M.S. (saraw@lamar.colostate.edu)

PURPOSE OF THE RESEARCH: The purpose of this research study is to understand characteristics people associate with a diversity of people.

PROCEDURES/METHODS TO BE USED: You will be asked to complete two measures and a demographic survey. One measure will ask you to rate the probability that a person possesses certain characteristics and asks you to rate how negative or positive you judge each of those characteristics to be. The other measure will ask whether you agree or disagree about statements that pertain to behaviors of women and men. There are no right or wrong answers on any of the measures. You are also asked to provide the names and addresses of two older adult (60 years of age or older) friends or family members. You are asked to write the names and addresses of your older adult friends or family members on the provided stamped envelopes. Please also put the name of the person you are referring to the study on the blank line at the top of the letter. Your older adult friend or family member will receive the same questionnaires as you will fill-out for this study. This study is expected to last approximately 30 to 45 minutes. You will receive one "General Psychology" research credit for participation in this study.

RISKS INHERENT IN THE PROCEDURES: There are no known risks involved with participation in this study. It is not possible to identify all potential risks in research procedures, but the researchers have taken reasonable safeguards to minimize any known and potential, but unknown, risks.

BENEFITS: Through participation in this study you may gain a fuller understanding of how you view a certain kind of person.

CONFIDENTIALITY: The confidentiality of your participation in this study is ensured. Data will be stored in a locked lab. Electronic database files storing the data and results will be kept on the hard drive of the co-investigator (Ms. Wright) and on a back up disk (which will be stored in the locked lab). Anonymity is also ensured. At no time will you be asked to use your name on any of the questionnaires. Instead, questionnaires will be identified through the use of code numbers.

Page 1 of 2 Participant's initials _____ Date _____

LIABILITY: The Colorado Governmental Immunity Act determines and may limit Colorado State University's legal responsibility if an injury happens because of this study. Claims against the University must be filed within 180 days of the injury.

Questions about participants' rights may be directed to Celia Walker at (970) 491-1563.

PARTICIPATION: Your participation in this research is voluntary. If you decide to participate in the study, you may withdraw your consent and stop participating at any time without penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled.

Your signature acknowledges that you have read the information stated and willingly sign this consent form. Your signature also acknowledges that you have received, on the date signed, a copy of this document containing 2 pages.

Participant name (printed)

Participant signature

Date

Witness to signature (project staff)

Date

Page 2 of 2 Participant's initials _____ Date _____

APPENDIX H
PRACTICE RATING SCALE

People Perceptions Questionnaire

This questionnaire asks you to rate the probability, on a scale of 0-100, that a particular person possesses certain attributes or engages in certain behaviors. To gain practice in using a probability scale, please complete the practice task below.

Practice Task

Practice Items Instructions: To gain practice in using a probability scale such as the one that you are about to complete, please read the first three example practice items and complete the last three practice items on your own.

For each of the following six items, rate on a scale of 0-100 how likely or unlikely it is that the average person possesses each of the following attributes or displays each of the following behaviors. You may use the same probability rating more than once. Your probability ratings do not need to add up to 100. Mark your answer on the first line next to each attribute.

After you have assigned a probability rating to a particular attribute or behavior, please indicate the valence of that attribute or behavior. That is, specify if in your opinion that attribute/ behavior is negative, circle "1." If you feel that attribute/ behavior is neutral, circle "2." If you feel that attribute/ behavior is positive, circle "3." Please refer to the key below to remind yourself what number to circle for each item.

PRACTICE ITEMS

<u>Probability</u> (0-100)	<u>Valence of the attribute/ behavior</u>		
	Negative	Neutral	Positive

What is the probability that an individual:

- | | | | | |
|--|----|---|---|---|
| 1. Likes pizza: I believe that 95% of people like pizza and liking pizza is a neutral behavior. | 95 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 2. Has red hair: I believe that 10% of people have red hair and that having red hair is a neutral attribute. | 10 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 3. Is female: I believe that 50% of people are female and that being female is a neutral attribute. | 50 | 1 | 2 | 3 |

What is the probability that an individual:

- | | | <u>Negative</u> | <u>Neutral</u> | <u>Positive</u> |
|--------------------------------|-------|-----------------|----------------|-----------------|
| 4. Likes roller coasters | _____ | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 5. Has siblings | _____ | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| 6. Weighs more than 200 pounds | _____ | 1 | 2 | 3 |

APPENDIX I
PEOPLE PERCEPTIONS QUESTIONNAIRE

PEOPLE PERCEPTIONS QUESTIONNAIRE

Instructions: On a scale of 0-100, rate the probability that a [target person specified here] possesses each of the following attributes or engages in each of the following behaviors. You may use the same probability rating more than once. Your probability ratings do not need to add up to 100. Mark your answer on the line next to each attribute.

After you have assigned a probability rating to a particular attribute or behavior, please indicate the valence of that attribute or behavior. For example, if in your opinion that attribute/ behavior is negative, circle "1." If you feel that the attribute/ behavior is neutral, circle "2." If you feel that the attribute/ behavior is positive, circle "3." Please refer to the key below to remind yourself what number to circle for each item.

		<u>Probability (0-100)</u>	<u>Valence of the Attribute/ Behavior</u>		
			Negative	Neutral	Positive
Able to devote self to others	_____	1	2	3	
Active	_____	1	2	3	
Adventurous	_____	1	2	3	
Afraid	_____	1	2	3	
Ambitious	_____	1	2	3	
Assumes financial obligations	_____	1	2	3	
Athletic	_____	1	2	3	
Aware of feelings of others	_____	1	2	3	
Bitter	_____	1	2	3	
Broad-shouldered	_____	1	2	3	
Can look like any person	_____	1	2	3	
Carefree	_____	1	2	3	
Cautious	_____	1	2	3	
Competitive	_____	1	2	3	
Cooks the meals	_____	1	2	3	
Curious	_____	1	2	3	
Dainty	_____	1	2	3	

		<u>Negative</u>	<u>Neutral</u>	<u>Positive</u>
Disrespectful	_____	1	2	3
Does the laundry	_____	1	2	3
Dresses nice	_____	1	2	3
Eager	_____	1	2	3
Emotional	_____	1	2	3
Energetic	_____	1	2	3
Excited	_____	1	2	3
Experienced	_____	1	2	3
Father	_____	1	2	3
Feeble	_____	1	2	3
Feels superior	_____	1	2	3
Feminine	_____	1	2	3
Feminine mannerisms	_____	1	2	3
Feminine qualities	_____	1	2	3
Feminine walk	_____	1	2	3
Financial provider	_____	1	2	3
Flexible	_____	1	2	3
Forgetful	_____	1	2	3
Fragile	_____	1	2	3
Friendly	_____	1	2	3
Generous	_____	1	2	3
Gentle	_____	1	2	3
Gets married	_____	1	2	3
Graceful	_____	1	2	3
Greedy	_____	1	2	3
Has children	_____	1	2	3
Healthy	_____	1	2	3
Helpful	_____	1	2	3
Helpless	_____	1	2	3
High-pitched voice	_____	1	2	3

		<u>Negative</u>	<u>Neutral</u>	<u>Positive</u>
Impatient	_____	1	2	3
Independent	_____	1	2	3
Inexperienced	_____	1	2	3
Inflexible	_____	1	2	3
Intelligent	_____	1	2	3
Irresponsible	_____	1	2	3
Is a head of household	_____	1	2	3
Is financially stable	_____	1	2	3
Is sexually active	_____	1	2	3
Kind	_____	1	2	3
Knowledgeable	_____	1	2	3
Lazy	_____	1	2	3
Learned	_____	1	2	3
Lisp	_____	1	2	3
Lonely	_____	1	2	3
Loud	_____	1	2	3
Loving	_____	1	2	3
Makes decisions easily	_____	1	2	3
Masculine	_____	1	2	3
Masculine appearance	_____	1	2	3
Mature	_____	1	2	3
Negative toward males	_____	1	2	3
Neglected	_____	1	2	3
Never gives up easily	_____	1	2	3
Nice looking	_____	1	2	3
Normal	_____	1	2	3
Optimistic	_____	1	2	3
Patient	_____	1	2	3
Positive toward females	_____	1	2	3
Positive toward males	_____	1	2	3

		<u>Negative</u>	<u>Neutral</u>	<u>Positive</u>
Practical	_____	1	2	3
Rebellious	_____	1	2	3
Reckless	_____	1	2	3
Sage	_____	1	2	3
Self-confident	_____	1	2	3
Senile	_____	1	2	3
Sentimental	_____	1	2	3
Short hair	_____	1	2	3
Shy	_____	1	2	3
Soft	_____	1	2	3
Soft voice	_____	1	2	3
Stands up under pressure	_____	1	2	3
Strange	_____	1	2	3
Strong	_____	1	2	3
Sturdy	_____	1	2	3
Takes care of children	_____	1	2	3
Takes sexual initiative	_____	1	2	3
Tall	_____	1	2	3
Tends the house	_____	1	2	3
Tired	_____	1	2	3
Unattractive	_____	1	2	3
Understanding	_____	1	2	3
Vain	_____	1	2	3
Vigorous	_____	1	2	3
Warm	_____	1	2	3
Wasteful	_____	1	2	3
Wears feminine clothing	_____	1	2	3
Wears jewelry	_____	1	2	3
Wears masculine clothing	_____	1	2	3
Wise	_____	1	2	3

APPENDIX J

LETTER TO OLDER ADULT FAMILY MEMBERS AND FRIENDS

Dear _____:

Your family member or friend has participated in a research study on perceptions of a variety of people, entitled "Characteristics people associate with a diversity of people." The research, which is being conducted by Dr. Silvia Canetto and Ms. Sara Wright at the Department of Psychology of Colorado State University, focuses on how young adults and older adults think about different kinds of people.

The research involves the participation of students and their older adult friends or family members. A friend or family member has addressed this envelope to you so that you may be invited to participate.

Your participation is completely voluntary, and you may withdraw from this study at any time with no penalty. By returning the enclosed questionnaires, you are consenting to participate in this research study. There are no known risks associated with participation in this research. Through participation in this study, you may gain a fuller understanding of how you view a certain kind of person. The information obtained will serve to further understand how young and older adults think about different kinds of people

Please fill-out the enclosed questionnaires and return them to Dr. Silvia Canetto in the enclosed stamped and addressed envelope as soon as possible within the next four weeks. You are asked to complete two questionnaires and a demographic survey. One questionnaire will ask you to rate the probability that a kind of person possesses certain characteristics and also asks you to rate how negative or positive you consider each of those characteristics. The other questionnaire will ask whether you agree or disagree about statements that pertain to behaviors of women and men. There are no right or wrong answers on any of the measures. You may keep this letter for your own records. To ensure anonymity, please do not provide your return address on the enclosed stamped envelope. At no time will you be asked to use your name on any of the questionnaires. Instead, questionnaires will be identified through the use of code numbers. All responses will remain confidential and will be stored in a locked lab. Your referring family member or friend will not see your responses to the questionnaires, and vice-versa. The questionnaires take about 30 to 45 minutes to complete.

If you would like to learn more about the questions this study asks through a debriefing form, you can go to <http://psy.psych.colostate.edu/sara/> beginning on December 1st, 2004. The debriefing form will be posted on that website until February 1st, 2004.

If you have any further questions about this study, you can contact Dr. Silvia Canetto, Department of Psychology, at (970) 491-5415. If you have any questions about your rights as a research participant, you may contact Ms. Celia Walker at (970) 491-1563.

Thank you for your help.

Sincerely,

Silvia Canetto, Ph.D.
Professor

Sara Wright, M.S.
Doctoral Candidate

APPENDIX K
DEBRIEFING FORM

Debriefing Form

Thank you for your participation in the present study concerning characteristics that people associate with different kinds of people. In this study you were asked to rate how likely it is that one of eight kinds of persons (65-year-old heterosexual man, 65-year-old heterosexual woman, 65-year-old gay man, 65-year-old lesbian woman, 35-year-old heterosexual man, 35-year-old heterosexual woman, 35-year-old gay man, or 35-year-old lesbian woman) possesses certain attributes and displays certain behaviors. You were also asked how negative or positive you judged each of those attributes and behaviors to be. In addition, you completed a scale that asked you about your opinion on behaviors of women and men.

Research has indicated that people associate different characteristics with women and men, lesbians and gays, and with older adults and younger adults. Furthermore, research has shown that how people feel about women's and men's social roles, referred to as *gender ideology*, influences the stereotypes and attitudes that people have toward women and men and toward lesbians and gays.

The present study hopes to increase our understanding of stereotypes of lesbians and gays by focusing on stereotypes of older adult lesbians and gays. Specifically, it compares stereotypes of older adult lesbians and gays with those of older adult heterosexual women and men. It also seeks to understand how stereotypes of older adult lesbians and gays and heterosexual individuals compare to stereotypes of adult lesbians and gays and heterosexual individuals. This study also considers how the sex, age, and gender ideology of the participant may influence stereotype content and valence.

Again, we thank you for your participation in this study. If you know anyone who may participate in this study, we ask that you do not discuss it with that person until after they have had the opportunity to participate. Prior knowledge of the study's purpose can distort the results. We appreciate your cooperation with this matter.

If you have any questions regarding this study, please feel free to ask the research assistant at this time. You can also e-mail or phone Dr. Silvia Canetto (e-mail: scanetto@lamar.colostate.edu; telephone: 491-5415) or Ms. Sara Wright (e-mail: saraw@lamar.colostate.edu). Thanks again for your participation.