STEREOTYPES OF WORKAHOLICS: AN ANALYSIS OF GENDER, PARENTAL STATUS, AND EARNER STATUS

by

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(Under the Direction of Malissa A. Clark)

Workaholics experience a number of negative consequences for their heavy work involvement, yet little is known about how these individuals are perceived by others. Women who are workaholics carry an additional burden as they struggle to balance traditional gender role expectations with their inner compulsion to work. The current study sought to identify the role that gender plays in how others evaluate workaholics and whether parental or earner status impact these evaluations. 793 participants responded to one of eight vignette conditions, which differed on gender, parental status, and earner status. Contrary to hypotheses that women and mothers would receive a "double-strike" and be rated negatively, women workaholics received higher scores than their male counterparts on many variables, including competence, which traditional gender roles would identify as a masculine characteristic. Workaholic mothers also received higher evaluations on family involvement than childless women, suggesting that motherhood may actually improve stereotypes for workaholic mothers. For a subset of the sample, workaholic fathers were rated higher on job performance than men without children and workaholic mothers were rated lower than women without children, partially supporting one of the study's hypotheses. Findings suggest that women workaholics may be admired rather than

scorned for their perceived ability to “do it all,” although it is important to acknowledge that these stereotypes do not change the negative outcomes workaholic women experience.

INDEX WORDS: Workaholism, stereotypes, gender roles, parenting, dual-income

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DEDICATION

This manuscript is dedicated to those who believed in me, even when I struggled to do the same. I would not be who I am today without your unwavering support.

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I want to thank my advisor, Malissa, for her continued support, guidance, and patience. I will be forever grateful for your willingness to step back when I needed the opportunity to find my footing and to step up the moment I was able to move forward.

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Finally, I want to thank God for the lessons He has taught me along the way. I have learned how to handle disappointment, how to persevere, and how to overcome. I am a stronger woman today for taking the long road home.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

In a day and age where the lines between work and home life have become increasingly blended, it is essential to understand how components of familial life alter the stereotypes of individuals addicted to their work life, or workaholics. The concept of throwing oneself entirely into work has become idealized in contemporary culture, identified as the "hustle culture" mindset. The hustle culture perspective is centered around embracing work to the detriment of other areas in life, with a goal of "getting ahead" above all else. Hustle culture goes beyond just working long hours, however, as it requires a level of public dedication expecting employees to "*love* what they do and then promote that love on social media, thus fusing their identities to that of their employers'" (Griffith, 2019). The hustle culture mentality brings many consequences associated with workaholism, including feelings of guilt when an employee cannot meet the culture's demand for excessive work involvement (Griffith, 2019). While a heavy dedication to work may be acceptable for those expected to act as breadwinners or providers, it can be particularly detrimental for women, who are expected to act as family caretakers due to societal gender expectations. Above and beyond gender, parental status, and having a partner also working full-time may cause a woman heavily dedicated to her work to be viewed much more negatively than her childless or single-earner peers.

When it comes to workaholism, there are mixed messages about how workaholics are stereotyped. For instance, in organizations focused on the aforementioned hustle culture, employers may have positive stereotypes of a workaholic, deeming them a desirable employee in

terms of their perceived work ethic and abundance of working hours. This may significantly differ from the views of a coworker, who could feel that a workaholic colleague "upstages" their own work performance, or in contrast, may admire the workaholic's dedication to their work. Furthermore, a spouse or family member could view a workaholic negatively, experiencing the familial strain of workaholism mentioned earlier. In contrast, a layperson may consider them a dedicated worker or provider. Unfortunately, scholars have not formally identified these varying stereotypes for either a general group of workaholics or a specific individual. Gaining a deeper understanding of how workaholics are stereotyped based on different characteristics (e.g., gender, parental status, etc.) could help distinguish attitudes towards workaholics in both the work and non-work domains. To fully understand why workaholics may be perceived differently based on gender, parental status, and earner status, it is essential to examine each of these characteristics and the unique societal expectations placed on subsets of individuals within them.

The purpose of this manuscript is to examine others' stereotypes of workaholics and determine how these stereotypes differ based on the gender and familial characteristics of the workaholic. Assessing varying stereotypes of workaholics will add a new perspective to the literature, as most current studies examine the workaholics themselves rather than how they are viewed by others (Robinson, 1999; Schaufeli, Shimazu, & Taris, 2009; Spence & Robbins, 1992). Examining how workaholics are viewed differently based on gender could help identify sources of bias- either in the workplace or in day-to-day interactions- that negatively impact subsets of workaholics (e.g., in workplace evaluations, perceptions of parenting abilities, etc.). To identify differences in the stereotypes of these subsets of workaholics, vignettes will be provided to participants which differ on demographic characteristics of the workaholic (i.e., gender, parental status, partner employment). In this manner, I will be able to examine how

women who are workaholics, especially those who are parents and in dual-earner households, are viewed as compared to their male, childless, and single-earner counterparts, the former of which may be more negative due to role constraints placed on them by others (Biewen & Seifert, 2018; Carroll & Robinson, 2000; Clark, Beiler, & Zimmerman, 2014; Fuegen, Biernat, Haines, & Deaux, 2004; Heilman, 2012; Ridgeway, 2011; Shimazu, Demerouti, Bakker, Shimada, & Kawakami, 2011).

Identifying negative stereotypes of workaholics is essential, as they can lead to adverse outcomes in both work and family life. For instance, men and women in the workplace may experience negative feedback for not holding to societal gender expectations (Heilman, Wallen, Fuchs, & Tamkins, 2004; Heilman, 2012; Leskinen, Rabelo, & Cortina, 2015). Leskinen, Rabelo, and Cortina (2015) found that women who exhibited stereotypically masculine qualities in the workplace experienced greater levels of harassment than those who showed feminine attributes. For men, adhering to qualities generally considered feminine may result in lower candidate ratings (Bosak, Kulich, Rudman, & Kinahan, 2016). These gender expectations can be particularly impactful for workaholics, as they include expectations for whether an individual should be more involved in work or family. For instance, when both partners are employed full-time, they must navigate household responsibilities alongside their jobs. Women are often expected to take on more household tasks in dual-earner families (Bartley, Blanton, & Gilliard, 2005; Craig & Churchill, 2020; Maume, 2008). This can lead to negative evaluations both as a partner and worker if they invest too much time and energy in one domain or the other (Blair-Loy, 2009; Alice H Eagly & Steven J Karau, 2002; Ridgeway, 2011). Gender, however, is not the only factor that leads to negative evaluations for workers. For both working men and women,

having children may lead to perceptions that the employee is less dedicated to their job (Fuegen et al., 2004).

To further explore the impact of familial characteristics on stereotypes of workaholics, the current manuscript will first provide an overview of the construct of workaholism, followed by a deeper dive into gender and workaholic stereotypes, identifying how workaholic individuals may be evaluated differently based on gender, parental status, and whether the workaholic is a sole- or dual-earner.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

Workaholism

Definition and Components

The term workaholism first appeared in a book by Wayne Oates (1971) to identify individuals with work addiction. Over the last four decades, workaholism has developed into a complex construct, drawing the interest of researchers and organizations alike. Workaholism has been defined in various ways, ranging from expending energy above and beyond what is required of the job (Mudrack & Naughton, 2001) to a syndrome or an obsessive-compulsive disorder (Aziz & Zickar, 2006; Bryan E. Robinson, 1999). In its initial conceptualization, Oates (1971) referred to workaholism as a need to work that interferes with aspects of daily life, including personal, interpersonal, and social experiences.

The term workaholism has undergone many re-conceptualizations since its coinage. Spence and Robbins (1992) expanded the definition of workaholism by specifying three main facets. Specifically, they defined a workaholic as an individual who is highly involved at work, is intrinsically compelled to work, and experiences low levels of enjoyment in their work. Ng, Sorensen, and Feldman (2007) broadened the definition of workaholism by dividing it into three more general dimensions—affective, cognitive, and behavioral. The affective dimension includes positive and negative feelings towards work, including enjoyment while participating in work and guilt associated with time spent away from work. The researchers posit that workaholics have both positive and negative feelings toward work. While a workaholic finds enjoyment in

their work, they also experience negative emotions when they are not working. Ng and colleagues (2007) also describe a workaholic as an individual who obsesses over work (cognitive) and works long hours (behavioral).

Alternatively, some researchers have taken a clinical rather than theoretical approach to workaholism. Robinson was a clinical psychologist who defined workaholism in terms of an obsessive-compulsive disorder that "manifests itself through self-imposed demands, an inability to regulate work habits, and an overindulgence in work to the exclusion of most other life activities" (2014, p. 3). This clinical approach was used to develop a self-administered workaholism survey, the Work Addiction Risk Test (Robinson, 1999). As definitions vary from one researcher to the next, it is crucial to examine commonalities and differences among conceptualizations of workaholism.

Areas of Agreement. While individual definitions of workaholism may differ, contemporary definitions seem to show consensus regarding three main components, which identify workaholics as individuals who are addicted to their work, take part in compulsive thoughts and behaviors regarding work, and work longer hours than their colleagues (Clark, Michel, Zhdanova, Pui, & Baltes, 2016). As with any other addiction, addiction to work is identified by five main components. First, an individual takes part in the desired behavior. They then become preoccupied with that behavior, achieve temporary satiation (fulfillment) that does not last, experience a loss of control, and exhibit disregard for negative consequences associated with the behavior (Steve Sussman & Sussman, 2011).

Compulsive thoughts and behaviors regarding work are the second areas of consensus. Workaholics feel a need to work and cannot simply leave work at work. They continue to think about work or participate in work activities (i.e., checking emails, making phone calls) even

when they are removed from the work environment (Spence & Robbins, 1992). Since its initial conceptualization, the component of compulsive thoughts and behaviors has been incorporated as an aspect of workaholism (Oates, 1971). It has remained an integral part of the definition of workaholism (Clark et al., 2016).

The third area of consensus is working long hours. This is the most commonly identified attribute of a workaholic. However, this may also be the most often misunderstood characteristic of a workaholic. Many individuals in the general public consider a workaholic to simply be an individual who works long hours, even if those hours are a requirement of the position itself. However, rather than just having a heavy workload, a workaholic works hours far beyond those required for the role, to the extent that their non-work life suffers (Ng et al., 2007). These three facets of workaholism are acknowledged in almost every definition by encompassing both the thought process (obsession/compulsion) and behavioral characteristics that are central to the concept of a workaholic.

Areas of Disagreement. One central point of contention arises regarding the inclusion or exclusion of enjoyment in the definition of workaholism. Some definitions include work enjoyment or an affective component as integral to the definition of workaholism (Aziz & Zickar, 2006; Bonebright, Clay, & Ankenmann, 2000; Ng et al., 2007; Spence & Robbins, 1992), while others exclude the construct altogether (Clark et al., 2016; Oates, 1971; Schaufeli, Taris, & Van Rhenen, 2008). Additional complications arise when deciding what level of enjoyment—high or low—indicates workaholism. While some researchers feel that high levels of enjoyment are an integral component of workaholism (Bonebright et al., 2000; Ng et al., 2007), others conclude that work addiction may be associated with low levels of work enjoyment (Clark et al., 2016; Bryan E. Robinson, 1999; Spence & Robbins, 1992). Due to its divisiveness, enjoyment as

a requirement for workaholics has more recently been excluded from workaholism definitions (Clark et al., 2016; Schaufeli, Schimazu, & Taris, 2009). Therefore, Clark and colleagues (2016) developed a comprehensive definition of workaholism as "an addiction to work that involves feeling compelled or driven to work because of internal pressures, having persistent and frequent thoughts about work when not working, and working beyond what is reasonably expected (as established by the requirements of the job or basic economic needs) despite potential negative consequences." This definition captures the complexity of workaholism by integrating affective experiences, actions, cognitions, and motivations and will be used as a framework for the current manuscript.

Differentiating Workaholism from Work Engagement

Workaholism and work engagement are two forms of heavy work investment that are sometimes viewed are interchangeable, although this is not an accurate conceptualization (Shimazu, Schaufeli, Kamiyama, & Kawakami, 2015a). Work engagement has been defined by Schaufeli, Salanova, González-romá, and Bakker (2002) as a positive work mindset comprised of vigor, dedication, and absorption, linked to several positive outcomes, including organizational commitment, employee performance, and employee health (Halbesleben, 2010). Research comparing work engagement with workaholism has found that, although both workaholism and work engagement involves a high level of energy focused on the work environment, they are empirically different constructs in terms of their composition, outcomes, and antecedents (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008; Killinger, 2006; Schaufeli et al., 2008; Shimazu et al., 2015a). Schaufeli et al. (2008) utilized structural equation modeling to identify similarities and differences between workaholism and work engagement. They found that while an absorption scale loaded onto both factors, vigor and dedication were unique to work engagement,

whereas working excessively and drive were unique to workaholism. Shimazu et al. (2015) examined workaholism and work engagement outcomes to better understand the relationship between the two constructs. The researchers identified a slight positive correlation, suggesting that they genuinely are two independent constructs. Over the study's two years, workaholism correlated with reduced life satisfaction and impaired health. On the other hand, work engagement was positively correlated with life satisfaction, performance, and health (Shimazu et al., 2015a). In terms of antecedents, work engagement is an outcome of both organizational and personal resources (Bakker & Demerouti, 2008), while workaholism may result from a need to avoid negative feelings, such as anxiety or guilt, that arise when they are not working (Killinger, 2006). Therefore, while work engagement and workaholism may seem comparable on the surface, they are two unique constructs in terms of their constructs, outcomes, and antecedents.

Workaholism Outcomes

While the concept of an employee obsessed with their work may seem like an organizational asset, research suggests that workaholism is linked to several negative consequences. These outcomes influence all areas of a workaholic's life, including higher levels of job stress, lower job satisfaction at work, lower marital satisfaction, and work-life conflict at home, in addition to lowered physical and emotional health for the individual (Clark et al., 2016). The outcomes of workaholism can best be described by examining those that are directly work-related and those that are not related to the work environment.

Work-related Outcomes. At first glance, the idea of a workaholic may lend itself to thoughts of a successful individual due to the numerous hours spent performing and thinking about work. This may, perhaps, be the most appealing aspect of workaholism. Unfortunately for workaholics, working longer hours may not necessarily result in higher levels of job success,

although research in this area has been inconclusive. Some studies have found that workaholics tend to fare better than their non-workaholic peers (Burke, 2001), specifically in terms of receiving promotions, which may be an identifiable result of good performance. However, this may be more closely linked to the *appearance* of hard work in terms of a very salient organizational presence, as additional studies have found no significant relationship between workaholism and performance (Clark et al., 2016; Shimazu et al., 2015a; Shimazu, Schaufeli, Kubota, & Kawakami, 2012).

Workaholism has been shown to correlate with several negative consequences in the workplace. In a longitudinal study of industrial workers, Shimazu and colleagues (2015b) found that workaholism was related to lower levels of job satisfaction. This lower job satisfaction may be apparent beyond just the employee, as Balducci, Avanzi, and Fraccaroli (2016) found that workaholics and their observers both reported experiencing higher levels of job-related negative affect. Additionally, researchers have identified job stress, exhaustion, and job strain as further outcomes of workaholism (Spence & Robbins, 1992; Taris, Schaufeli, & Verhoeven, 2005).

Unfortunately, workaholism may also result in workplace consequences that extend beyond the individual workaholic. A recent examination of nursing staff revealed that workaholics might be more likely to make mistakes on the job, finding that workaholism was significantly correlated to adverse work-related incidents, including dozing on the job or while driving and harming or nearly harming oneself, patients, or equipment (Andreassen et al., 2018). These findings support those of Galperin and Burke (2006), who identified workaholics as more likely to take part in destructive organizational deviance, or harmful behaviors that go against organizational norms. Therefore, the outcomes of workaholism can extend beyond the individual, resulting in negative consequences for the organization and those involved with it.

Non-work Outcomes. Workaholism outcomes are not limited to the work domain, as they impact the workaholic's familial relationships and individual health and well-being. Balducci et al. (2016) measured health outcomes, finding that workaholism was correlated with high systolic blood pressure and experiences of mental distress a year later. In terms of familial experiences, workaholics have more complex relationships than their non-workaholic counterparts. Bakker, Demerouti, and Burke (2009) used a spillover/crossover model to examine outcomes for partners of workaholics. Partners of workaholics reported lower levels of perceived support and lower relationship satisfaction than partners of non-workaholic employees. In a similar vein, children of workaholics report a strained relationship with their workaholic parent (Matuska, 2010).

Work-Family Conflict. Workaholism has been found to lead to experiences of work-family conflict, which is "a form of inter-role conflict in which the role pressures from the work and family domains are mutually incompatible in some respect" (Greenhaus & Beutell, 1985). This means that responsibilities at work (such as meetings that run late) interfere with familial responsibilities (unable to pick a child up from school). This conflict can also occur in reverse as family-work conflict when domestic duties (a sick child) interfere with work responsibilities (missing a work shift). While work-family conflict can impact workaholic and non-workaholic employees alike, it is an inherent consequence for workaholics who, by definition, work excessively to the detriment of other areas of their lives. Unsurprisingly, workaholism and work-family conflict have consistently been positively correlated (Bakker et al., 2009; Brady, Vodanovich, & Rotunda, 2008; Clark et al., 2016). Therefore, research regarding the outcomes of workaholism shows that it impacts an individual in their work life, home life, and even their ability to manage these two roles concurrently.

However, experiences of workaholism and its consequences may not be the same for all workaholics. For example, women in the workplace already experience difficulties regarding performance evaluations due to gender stereotypes that women should be more heavily involved with the family than with their work. Still, stereotypes associated with workaholism may be more negative for workaholic women because workaholic women further violate gender norms. The current study examines possible differences in the experiences of men and women workaholics and workaholics who are parents and dual earners.

Stereotypes

Stereotypes have been studied for almost a century, beginning with a 1933 Princeton study conducted by Daniel Katz and Kenneth Braly. Students were asked to list the most prominent characteristics of different racial groups (Katz & Braly, 1933). This study launched an entirely new line of research, which has become increasingly complex over the decades. Stereotypes, and more specifically gender stereotypes, gained even more importance in 1989 when the United States Supreme Court ruled in the case of *Price Waterhouse v. Hopkins* that stereotypes cannot be used to justify personnel decisions ("Price Waterhouse v. Hopkins," 1989).

It is important to identify stereotypes, as members of groups with negative stereotypes experience a wide range of physical and psychological consequences. These consequences may be most evident in racial discrimination, as stereotypes have been related to poverty, higher mortality rates, and less access to societal resources (Major, Quinton, & McCoy, 2002; Mays, Cochran, & Barnes, 2007; Zárate, 2009). However, the consequences of stereotypes and discrimination are not isolated to racial groups. Discrimination can lead to several psychological outcomes for any stigmatized individual, including depression, lowered life satisfaction, and distrust of those they feel stigmatized by (Stangor, 2009). The current section will describe the

difference between stereotypes and the related construct of discrimination, examine types of stereotypes, their assessment, and outcomes, and discuss relevant stereotype models that lead to the current manuscript's hypotheses.

Stereotypes and Discrimination

Stereotypes and discrimination are interrelated constructs that explain how individuals make sense of and act on the world around them. Stereotypes have been loosely defined as the characteristics we attribute to a group or its members (Stangor, 2009). On the other hand, discrimination occurs when these stereotypes are activated, resulting in unfair or unequal treatment of individuals (Stangor, 2009). As this manuscript aims to identify the specific characteristics attributed to workaholics, stereotypes rather than discrimination will be the construct addressed.

Descriptive and Prescriptive Stereotypes

Within race and gender stereotype literature, stereotypes are categorized as either prescriptive or descriptive. While prescriptive and descriptive stereotypes both involve assumptions about individuals based on a particular characteristic, they differ in terms of their focus and the types of behaviors they identify.

Descriptive Stereotypes. Descriptive stereotypes are beliefs about individuals' characteristics or how they would *describe* the subgroup of interest (Burgess, 1999). Descriptive stereotypes create a framework of how those within a particular group behave in general and may be useful for helping individuals understand who they are and how they relate to those around them (Ridgeway, 2011). However, these stereotypes are not always positive and can lead to inaccurate beliefs about individuals based on their group (Caprariello, Cuddy, & Fiske, 2009). Descriptive gender stereotypes provide a prime example of how these stereotypes manifest, as

they have shown consistency across both time and culture (Heilman, 2012). Descriptive gender stereotypes characterize men with agentic attributes, such as taking charge, acting rationally, and focusing on achievement (Burgess, 1999; Heilman, 2012). On the other hand, women are stereotyped with communal attributes or a focus on nurturing, acting collaboratively, and being obedient and respectful (Heilman, 2012).

Prescriptive Stereotypes. Prescriptive stereotypes encompass positive and negative beliefs about characteristics an individual *should* possess (Burgess, 1999). These stereotypes rest on an idealized version of the group of interest rather than how they are believed to behave and can differ from descriptive stereotypes of the same group. For example, in an examination of prescriptive and descriptive behavior for men and women, Prentice and Carranza (2002) found that some traits identified as describing women rather than men, such as maturity, were identified as masculine prescriptive stereotypes. Therefore, while participants responded that women *are* considered the more mature gender, they believed men *should be* regarded as the more mature gender.

Although descriptive gender stereotypes have changed as women become more immersed in the workforce, prescriptive stereotypes may still reflect the traditional role expectations and be resistant to change (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Rudman & Phelan, 2008). These pervasive ideas of how a woman should or should not behave may directly influence stereotypes of a workaholic woman compared to a workaholic man, resulting in negative perceptions. Although a workaholic woman may be described as equally competent as men (Prentice & Carranza, 2002), her compulsion to work and focus on work may be seen as a violation of prescriptive female gender norms resulting in negative repercussions (Heilman, 2001 and Heilman and Parks-Stamm, 2007). According to Glick and Fiske (2007), prescriptive gender beliefs stem from this division of

members who conform to beliefs about a group, compared to those who do not. Violations of gender expectations, especially those that are perceived as intentional violations (i.e., a woman choosing to invest more time and energy into her work than necessary) compared to those that are viewed as simply a lack of conformity (i.e., a woman in the workplace) may lead to more negative, hostile reactions (Glick & Fiske, 2007). These adverse reactions may come across as either outright aggression or a more subtle – yet equally discriminatory – patronization in the form of belittling a woman's abilities (Glick & Fiske, 2007). As workaholism in women would likely be perceived as an intentional gender belief violation, prescriptive stereotypes will be the focus of the current manuscript.

Gender Stereotypes

Gender roles are one central area where stereotypes have been identified. These roles strongly influence how men and women workaholics are perceived differently within a given culture. Gender itself has been defined as how an individual ascribes to a set of societal behaviors that are considered either more masculine or more feminine (Anderson, 1988; Ridgeway, 2011). This differentiation acts as a method of identifying and organizing information about the people we encounter and allows us to respond to others in culturally appropriate ways. Gender roles are the sets of expectations that individuals are expected to follow and are traditionally closely related to biological sex (Anderson, 1988; J. Walter, 2018). While gender and gender roles can be helpful in daily interaction, they can also lead to strict expectations regarding others' behavior and possible discrimination when individuals deviate from expected behaviors.

Alice Eagly (1987) developed the social role theory of sex differences to explain why individuals act according to ascribed gender roles. According to this theory, individuals face both

internal and external societal pressures to behave according to what the culture defines as masculine or feminine. Traditionally, men and women have been attributed with far different characteristics. Men are identified as leaders, ambitious, competitive, strong, and self-sufficient, while women are seen as soft-spoken, affectionate, compassionate, sensitive, and loving children (Bem, 1981). These perceptions lead to differing expectations regarding the responsibilities and roles men and women take within the family unit. As the "ambitious leaders," men are expected to be the main financial provider for the family. In fulfilling this role, men are responsible for finding paid employment and investing energy in their job to contribute to the family. Blair-Loy (2009) identifies this investment in the work environment as the "schema of work devotion." Individuals with a work devotion invest heavily in the work environment, and in return, they receive a sense of "advancement, status, collegiality, and interesting work" (Blair-Loy, 2009, p. 6).

On the other hand, women are traditionally viewed as the "compassionate, child-loving partners" are expected to be responsible for caring for the family and household responsibilities (Blair-Loy, 2009; Kusterer et al., 2013). Blair-Loy (2009) identifies this investment in the home and child-rearing duties as the "schema of family devotion." By investing their time and energy into the household, those devoted to the family are rewarded with "fulfillment, intimacy, and community with other mothers" (Blair-Loy, 2009, p. 6). This traditional view of women stems from a combination of biological factors, such as the responsibilities of pregnancy and childbirth falling solely on women, combined with social expectations to perform in a particular role (Wood & Eagly, 2002).

While gender is one of the most highly researched examples relevant to the current manuscript, prescriptive and descriptive stereotypes have also been used to evaluate individuals

based on race, age, religion, and numerous other subgroups (Fiske, Cuddy, & Glick, 2007), one study on parental workaholism found that fathers who self-identify as workaholics report spending less time on parenting, while mothers did not (Buchanan, McFarlane, & Das, 2020). While the differences between men and women may be attributed to gender role differences, workaholism, regardless of gender, may result in a perceived lack of time spent with the family by others resulting in more negative stereotypes for all workaholics. While research on workaholism outcomes in dual-earner families is prevalent (Bakker et al., 2009; Demerouti, Bakker, & Schaufeli, 2005; Shimazu et al., 2011), research comparing single- versus dual-earning families could not be directly identified. This lack of research leaves much to be explored regarding earner type. Therefore, this manuscript will add to the current literature by examining multiple descriptive characteristics of workaholics individually (gender, parental status, and earner status) and their combined effects.

Identifying Stereotypes

Stereotypes can be identified through a variety of measures. This section will provide a brief overview of various methods of identification and their strengths and limitations to better understand how stereotypes are assessed. Lastly, this section will include an overview of how stereotypes will be measured within the current study.

Direct measures can be used to assess explicit feelings and attitudes about certain stereotyped groups (Stangor, 2009). These include self-report assessments, which can be created in several ways. Three of the most popular methods of identifying stereotypes include the checklist method, diagnostic ratios, Likert-style differential scenarios, and vignettes (Dallos & Kovacs, 2021; Katz & Braly, 1933; Hanna Li Kusterer, 2008; McCauley & Stitt, 1978; Stangor, 2009).

Katz-Braly Checklist. Developed by Katz and Braly (1933), the Katz-Braly checklist method is the oldest and most utilized to identify stereotypes. It gives participants an extensive list of adjectives or traits (84 in the original study) and asks them to assign these traits to specific groups. They then examined the highest-ranked adjectives for groups and utilized consensus among participants to develop a stereotype. While this method can help identify basic characteristics of groups, the checklists can be ambiguous, may quickly become outdated, and may not differentiate between social beliefs (those shared within a specific culture) and a respondent's personal views (Devine & Elliot, 1995). Additionally, participants must explicitly compare groups, which could result in the reporting of socially desirable responses (Madon et al., 2001).

Diagnostic Ratios. Diagnostic ratios were created as an extension of the checklist method first utilized by McCauley and Stitt (1978), designed to give more precise measures of stereotype attributes. The diagnostic ratio method examines the probability that members of a particular group are perceived to exhibit a specific trait compared to the percent of individuals in the world with that attribute. Then, these ratios are compared to determine if this attribute is part of a stereotype for the group of interest. More specifically, if the ratio of group members perceived as having the quality compared to members of the population as a whole is statistically different from 1.0, either higher or lower, the stereotype is supported (Block, Aumann, & Chelin, 2012; McCauley & Stitt, 1978). However, one concern with this method is that respondents may exaggerate stereotypes, resulting in skewed results (Allen, 1995). Like the Katz-Braly (1933) method, diagnostic ratios also require direct comparisons of both groups, creating a high level of salience for the participant that may result in social desirability issues.

Differential Scenarios. A final method of identifying group stereotypes is to create differential scenarios (H. L. Kusterer, Lindholm, & Montgomery, 2013). This method allows for the participant to make comparisons of subgroups without making these comparisons directly, as direct comparisons may make biases salient to the respondent (Madon et al., 2001). The differential scenarios approach involves creating an item pool describing attributes of the group of interest (both positive and negative) and mapping them onto separate dimensions. Then, these items are used to create questions regarding the group of interest. Kusterer, Lindholm, and Montgomery (2013) used this method to test perceptions of men and women banking managers by employees working in the banking and insurance industry. In their study, two versions of an evaluation were created to examine characteristics of a banking manager, with half of the items concerning a man banking manager and the other half of the items concerning a woman banking manager. The second version of the evaluation included the same items, but the gender of each item was switched. For instance, a question about warmth was written as "he" in one version, whereas a separate participant would see the same question with the pronoun "she." Therefore, each participant responds to stereotypes about both men and women sub-groups but does not respond to the same item for each. Researchers found that both women and men rated managers according to gender stereotypes. Women managers received higher ratings on communal characteristics, and men managers received higher ratings on agentic attributes (Kusterer, Lindholm, & Montgomery, 2013). While the differential scenarios help attain within-person and between-person scores, they are best utilized when only one characteristic is examined.

Vignettes. Vignettes consist of a written description of a person or scenario, typically containing one or more manipulated variables followed by survey ratings of dependent variables (Aguinis & Bradley, 2014). Vignettes allow for experimental manipulation of independent

variables and have been used to measure stereotypes based on a wide array of characteristics, including gender, race, and social class (Dallos & Kovacs, 2021; Harrits, 2019). To evaluate multiple characteristics parsimoniously, the current study will use a vignette to compare ratings.

Whether measuring hypothetical situations like vignettes or actual encounters with others, commonalities in the structure and content of stereotypes have been identified. Previous research supports a two-dimensional framework for the components of these stereotypes known as the stereotype content model (Fiske, Cuddy, Glick, & Ku, 2002).

Stereotype Content Model

The stereotype content model was developed by Fiske, Cuddy, Glick, and Xu (2002) and has been used to identify how numerous groups are viewed by others (Caprariello et al., 2009; Cuddy & Fiske, 2002; Cuddy, Fiske, & Glick, 2008). According to this model, groups are judged in terms of two dimensions- competence and warmth. Competence refers to the level of intellect that others perceive individuals in a particular group to have, whereas warmth refers to the perceived friendliness of the group of interest (Fiske et al., 2002). The model suggests that competency is highly related to the perceived status of the group, with high-status groups viewed as more competent. Warmth, on the other hand, may reflect how competitive a group is perceived as, with groups that pose greater competition perceived as less warm (Fiske et al., 2002).

Fiske et al. (2002) argue that these dimensions function independently. Therefore, an individual may be stereotyped as high in competence but low in warmth (or vice versa) or high or low in both competence and warmth. This categorization could lead to a particular set of characteristics ascribed to individuals in that group based on the dimensions, resulting in the development of a stereotype. The stereotype content model was tested by Caprariello et al.

(2009), who analyzed participants' perceptions of individuals belonging to high- and low- status (competency) and competitive and non-competitive (warmth) groups. Caprariello and colleagues (2009) found support for the stereotype content model and, in taking the model one step further found that certain combinations of the dimensions elicited unique emotional responses. For instance, groups high in both competency and warmth elicited positive emotions (admiration). In contrast, low competency and low warmth or high competency and low warmth elicited negative emotions (pity and envy). Later studies revealed that when individuals are viewed as having lower social status and lower warmth, this combination produces feelings of contempt (Cuddy & Fiske, 2002). These studies provide supporting evidence that the stereotype content model can accurately identify subgroups who are evaluated negatively by others.

Using these combinations of warmth and competence, judgments can be highly relevant in an organizational setting, where judgments of others may need to be made quickly. According to this framework, individuals expected to be higher on warmth within the organization (i.e., women) may be expected to perform more social roles (Cuddy, Glick, & Beninger, 2011). A workaholic woman's dedication to her work may constitute a perceived violation of warmth, leading to negative evaluations by her peers. Therefore, within the framework of the stereotype content model, workaholic women would likely receive negative evaluations. This argument is further supported by the role congruity theory, developed by Alice H. Eagly and Steven J. Karau (2002). Initially created to examine prejudice toward female leaders, this theory posits that interactions between gender roles and other roles (i.e., leadership) can lead to discrimination. If an individual's other roles fail to align with expected gender roles, they are viewed as incongruent and a violation of expected norms. This incongruency can lead to conflicting appraisals, as conforming to one role may suggest inadequacies in the other role (Alice H. Eagly

& Steven J. Karau, 2002). For workaholic women, their compulsion to work and think about work even when it interferes with home or familial responsibilities could lead to incongruence between their more masculine-typed work propensity and their expected caretaker, feminine gender role. Eagly and Karau (2002) posit that these incongruent roles lead to prejudice for women in terms of their potential leadership and actual evaluations of their leadership. While leadership was examined explicitly in Eagly and Karau's manuscript, the idea that women are evaluated more negatively on masculine-oriented tasks has been substantiated in several studies. Foschi (2000) provides a detailed overview of these double standards, concluding that status characteristics, such as gender, lead to harsher evaluations. Foschi's (2000) review includes a set of prior experiments where participants were found to evaluate female participants on a higher set of standards than males when performing a task they were told men tended to perform better at (Foschi, 1996, 2000). When applied to workaholic women, the perception that strong compulsion to work and obsession with work is incompatible with women's gender role could lead to more negative evaluations in the workplace.

Violating Gender Roles

Women who do not fit the idealized "traditional wife" role by working outside the home may experience several adverse reactions and consequences. Blair-Loy (2009) explains that both the work devotion and family devotion schemas are "greedy," requiring heavy investments of time and energy. Women attempting to take part in both the work and family domains may find that they cannot simultaneously act as the primary role of household caretaker while investing strongly in the work environment, requiring them to adapt the roles to meet their needs. Some may focus more on the family domain, opting for fewer hours or less demanding positions. This can be met with strong resistance in the workplace from colleagues and supervisors, leading to a

negative reputation or a decrease in opportunities for advancement (Bobbitt-Zeher, 2011). Women who opt to invest more heavily in the work domain, including workaholics, must adjust their home environment to meet work demands. This may be done by forgoing motherhood altogether or by utilizing the assistance of others (nannies, housekeepers, etc.) to help manage household responsibilities. In interviews with high-level women executives, very few seem to have considered having their husband take on the caregiving role (Blair-Loy, 2009), which illustrates the pervasiveness of gender role expectations. When women do decide to invest in work, they may be viewed negatively by those around them for forgoing familial responsibilities (Ridgeway, 2011). When individuals act in a manner that does not align with their gender role, adverse reactions may also be evident in the workplace. Both men and women who exhibit atypical gender roles may experience retaliation, backlash, and be overlooked for promotions (Bosak, Kulich, Rudman, & Kinahan; Rudman & Fairchild, 2004; Rudman & Phelan, 2008). Therefore, when a woman invests heavily in the work environment, traditionally seen as a masculine role, she may experience negative responses and retaliatory behaviors.

CHAPTER 3

PROPOSED MODEL AND HYPOTHESES

The Present Study

When couples function in traditional family roles, with the man acting in the work devotion schema and the woman in the family devotion schema, the two roles complement one another and cover all responsibilities. However, this prototypical family structure is not always so cut and dry. Women have taken on an increasingly prevalent role in the workforce, with dual-income and female-as-financial-provider families rising. Between the 1970s and 2000s, instances of husbands as the sole income provider dropped by 25% (Waismel-Manor, Levanon, & Tolbert, 2016). Although attitudes towards working women have become more positive during this time (Donnelly et al., 2015), women, rather than men, are still expected to handle problems that arise between work and family (Groysberg & Abrahams, 2014). This deviation from typical roles can cause both internal struggles (Blair-Loy, 2009) and adverse reactions from family, friends, or colleagues.

Gender and Workaholism

Since the 1970s, women have been steadily increasing their presence in the workplace (Blair-Loy, 2009). This has resulted in changes to both the work environment and women's roles, as they take on workplace responsibilities, including greater representation in the workplace (Kossek, 2005) and management positions (Cohen & Huffman, 2007) while managing social expectations that they act as the primary manager of household and childcare needs (Bobbitt-Zeher, 2011; Wood & Eagly, 2002). Attempting to divide attention between these

responsibilities can result in perceptions that a working woman is either an uncommitted worker or a bad mother or wife (Blair-Loy, 2009; Alice H. Eagly & Steven J. Karau, 2002), which may be exacerbated when a woman is a workaholic.

There are mixed results regarding the influence of gender on workaholism. While most workaholism studies found that experiences do not differ by gender and therefore generalize outcomes to both men and women (Burke & MacDermid, 1999), recent studies suggest that these differences may be masked due to the measures used (Beiler-May et al., 2017). Additionally, some studies examining the experiences of partners of workaholics have found gender differences, while others have not. In an examination of Japanese dual-earner couples, Shimazu et al. (2011) found that husbands of workaholic wives reported higher levels of family-work conflict, while wives of workaholic husbands did not. In contrast, (Bakker et al., 2009) found no differences in work-family conflict for partners of men versus women workaholics. Therefore, while some research focuses on the unique experiences faced by workaholic women (Clark et al., 2014), this manuscript serves to help expand on the scant and contradictory literature by examining how others perceive workaholics regarding their gender. While a workaholic woman is expected to succeed in both the home and work roles, a workaholic man is only expected to succeed at work.

Violating the prescribed gender role expectations likely results in several negative consequences for women who are workaholics that men who are workaholics do not face. First and foremost, a woman who is a workaholic is likely to elicit negative reactions (Glick & Fiske, 2007). These negative reactions, in turn, could lead to the perception that a woman who is a workaholic is less “likable” than a man acting in line with his prescribed gender role. In the workplace, women are likely to encounter experiences of patronization, which is a subversive

undermining of their skills and abilities based on the assumption that they need additional assistance only a man can offer (Glick & Fiske, 2007). Heavy work investment violates expectations not only in the workplace but also in the home. As a woman is expected to take on a greater proportion of household duties than a man (Bobbitt-Zeher, 2011; Wood & Eagly, 2002), working beyond what is required and reducing the number of hours and energy dedicated to these duties may be viewed as selfish, leading to the stereotype that a woman who is a workaholic is more self-absorbed than a man who is a workaholic. The compulsion to dedicate as much time as possible to work combined with the expectation of household responsibilities above and beyond those of men may act as a double-edged sword, leading others to evaluate a woman who is a workaholic as less involved in both roles. These gender expectations lead to Hypotheses 1 and 2 regarding men and women who are workaholics:

Hypothesis 1) Women who are workaholics will be rated lower on (a) likability, (b) family involvement, (c) job involvement, (d) warmth, (e) competence, and (f) job performance than men who are workaholics.

Hypothesis 2) Women who are workaholics will be rated higher on self-absorption than men who are workaholics.

Gender, Parental Status, and Workaholism

In addition to gender, the parental status may also influence the degree to which others perceive a woman who is a workaholic positively or negatively. Even though there is some research to support that parents, in general, are more productive than childless workers (Morgan et al., 2021), the division of responsibility required for a workaholic with children, regardless of gender, may not fall in line with this finding. A workaholic with children at home may be viewed

more negatively than a childless workaholic, as the lack of family involvement on the part of the workaholic may be more pronounced to outsiders when children are involved.

The negative evaluation may not be entirely without merit, as children of workaholics have been found to experience unique negative consequences. Children of workaholics are required to take on responsibilities that children of non-workaholics do not (Carroll & Robinson, 2000; Matuska, 2010; Bryan E. Robinson & Kelley, 1998). In addition to increased household responsibilities, children of workaholics tend to experience higher levels of depression, anxiety, and greater external locus of control than children with non-workaholic parents (Carroll & Robinson, 2000; Bryan E. Robinson, 2000; Bryan E. Robinson & Kelley, 1998).

The negative consequences of workaholism can become more pronounced when children enter the picture. Children of workaholics tend to take on parental and familial responsibilities at an earlier age (Carroll & Robinson, 2000) and have more strained relationships with their parents than children of non-workaholics (Matuska, 2010). The perception that a workaholic is intentionally choosing their work over their relationship with their child is expected to lead to increased ratings of self-absorption for a workaholic parent compared to a workaholic non-parent.

Children of workaholics also have higher experiences of psychological disorders, including anxiety and depression (Robinson & Kelley, 1998). Regarding the stereotype content model, parents – as caretakers – would be expected to have higher levels of warmth. The negative impact a workaholic's heavy work investment has on their child could constitute a violation of this expectation, leading to negative stereotypes of workaholic parents that are not present for childless workaholics, making them less "likable" than a non-parent workaholic.

Viewed as the primary caretaker, the absence or presence of children could impact how a workaholic woman is perceived. Gender roles may become increasingly prominent once children are born, with the expectation that a woman decreases her investment at work to manage the new family environment. This expectation is evidenced by the number of hours spent at work after the family role becomes more complex upon the arrival of a child. After having children, women tend to reduce the number of hours they spend at work, while men tend to increase their hours (Paull, 2008).

For men, parenthood serves to support their devotion to work, allowing them to be viewed as a successful provider. For women, parenthood may make their gender more salient to the organization, resulting in the negative perception that they are not as dedicated to the organization or as capable of workers as men (Clark et al., 2014; Ridgeway, 2011). Workaholic women may experience this negativity to a greater degree, as they do not live up to either the "ideal mother" in their family life because of their investment at work, and yet cannot attain the "ideal worker" status in their work life because of their status as a mother. The expectations of parenting, combined with prescribed gender roles, are expected to take on an additive effect, which results in more negative evaluations of involvement in both domains. Fuegen et al. (2004) tested this mentality by examining evaluations of hypothetical job applicants while manipulating gender and parental status. This study found that, while parents of both genders were viewed as less committed to work than non-parents, men with children were not judged as harshly as men without children or women with children. Therefore, while parenthood may not impact the evaluation of a workaholic man, it may result in increased negative perceptions for a workaholic woman.

By investing heavily in the workplace, a workaholic mother violates expectations for both women and parents. Both parents and women are expected to be warm and caring, and the compulsion to focus on work over family fulfills neither of these expectations. This combination is expected to lead to an interactive effect, wherein workaholic mothers are viewed as less likable and more self-absorbed than women workaholics without children, whereas there will be no differences between workaholic fathers and compared to workaholic men who are not parents.

Hypothesis 3) Gender and parental status will interact, such that women who are workaholics will be rated lower on (a) likability, (b) family involvement, (c) job involvement, and (d) warmth and as a parent than as a non-parent, whereas ratings for workaholic men will not differ due to parental status.

Hypothesis 4) Gender and parental status will interact, such that women who are workaholics will be rated higher on self-absorption as a parent than as a non-parent, whereas ratings for workaholic men will not differ due to parental status.

Regarding these relationships, some research has found that, while having children hurts the career progression of women, it actually helps the career progression of men (Biewen & Seifert, 2018). Biewen and Seifert (2018) examined the impact of the potential for parenthood, finding that as chances of parenthood increased, men's chances of career progression also increased. The correlation was negative for women, whose chances of career progression decreased with increased potential for parenthood. The authors suggest that parenthood acts as a different signal to employers for men and women, implying men are stable or reliable, yet that women will not be able to handle the responsibilities of motherhood and their career (Biewen & Siefert, 2018). It is expected that similar disparities will be found in the current study for role

performance, which includes items related to future career progression. This will be examined through the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 5) Gender and parental status will interact, such that mothers who are workaholics will be rated lower on job performance than childless women who are workaholics, whereas fathers who are workaholics will be rated higher than childless men who are workaholics.

For the remaining dependent variables, the effect of both gender and parental status likely acts as a "double-strike" against women workaholics who are parents. A meta-analysis by Cukrowska-Torzewska and Matysiak (2020) found that mothers consistently received lower wages than non-mothers, a concept which has been identified as the "motherhood wage penalty." The meta-analysis also found that this wage penalty has not decreased over time, including articles from 1979 to 2016. Therefore, this group (women parent workaholics) was expected to experience the most extreme scores of any combination. This leads to the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 6) Gender and parental status will interact, such that mothers who are workaholics will be rated lower than any other group (fathers, childless women, childless men) on (a) likability, (b) family involvement (c) job involvement, and (d) warmth and (e) competence.

Hypothesis 7) Gender and parental status will interact, such that mothers who are workaholics will be rated higher than any other group (fathers, childless women, childless men) on self-absorption.

Examining the combined influence of gender and parenthood on stereotypes of workaholics will aid in addressing the additional hurdle of motherhood that women who are workaholics face within the workplace.

Gender, Earner Status, and Workaholism

A third characteristic that could impact the perception of workaholics is the presence or absence of a second income in the household. For both men and women workaholics, workaholism in dual-income families significantly relates to experiences of work-family conflict and negatively affects their partner's feelings of support (Bakker et al., 2009). Evaluations of dual-earner workaholic women may be more negative, however, as their investment in work results in additional physical and emotional requirements for their partner and reduces their investment in the household.

A 2013 study by Wang, Parker, and Taylor (2013) identified women as the primary or sole income provider in 40.3% of households with children under 18. The vast majority (63%) of these were single mothers acting as the sole provider, while the remaining 37% had women serving as the leading provider for the family. When a woman is the main or sole provider, it may be more socially acceptable for her to take on more gender-atypical or masculine responsibilities within the family, including a strong focus on work. Therefore, a workaholic woman who is the sole provider may be perceived as an essential contributor to her family, ensuring financial stability. Additionally, as there is a partner solely dedicated to taking on household responsibilities, the expected family contribution is lower for a single-earner workaholic woman than a dual-earner workaholic woman. The necessity of the workaholic woman's work investment coupled with decreased familial responsibilities is expected to mitigate the negative stereotypes associated with violating gender norms that dual-earner workaholic women face.

Workaholic women in dual-earner families do not have the same justification for being fully immersed in their work. In dual-earner families, the same level of investment in work as a

single-earner workaholic results in the workaholic's partner having to balance both work and an increased share of household responsibilities, experiencing greater levels of exhaustion and less partner support (Demerouti et al., 2005; Shimazu et al., 2011). Demerouti, Bakker, and Schaufeli (2008) identified crossover effects for both men and women in dual-income families, indicating that the experiences of one partner, specifically exhaustion and life satisfaction, influence the other partner. When both partners are working, traditional gender will dictate that the woman workaholic in a dual-earner relationship dedicate more time to the family. A strong focus on acting as provider and work investment falls within the gender expectations for men; however, men who are workaholics are not expected to experience more negative stereotypes when their partner works. This topic has been examined by Shimazu and colleagues (2011), who surveyed dual-income families with a workaholic partner, finding differing results based on the gender of the workaholic. In dual-income families with a workaholic woman, men reported that family responsibilities interfered with their work responsibilities. On the contrary, women did not report the same interference between family and work responsibilities in families with a workaholic man. The authors speculate that this discrepancy occurs because husbands of women workaholics must take on greater household responsibilities outside of their gender role, whereas working wives of workaholic husbands expect to take on most home responsibilities (Shimazu et al., 2011). It is important to note that this finding could be an artifact of the population examined, as American couples have traditionally distributed household decisions and responsibilities more equally than Japanese couples (Kumagai, 1979). Indeed, Bakker et al. (2009) found spillover-crossover effects in which partners of workaholics felt less supported by their partner and reported lower levels of relationship satisfaction regardless of gender. Therefore, more research

on the combined effect of gender and earner status is necessary to identify whether men who are workaholics are perceived differently based on their partner's earner status.

The lack of support workaholics offer to their spouse, who is left trying to manage their own work responsibilities and a greater majority of household responsibilities due to their partner's physical and psychological absence may result in others evaluating the workaholic more negatively. However, when both partners are working, the perception of the woman workaholic shifts from that of an essential contributor (as sole provider) to that of a secondary contributor, resulting in the perception that her extreme devotion to the work environment is unnecessary or harmful to the family. This results in increased negative evaluations of her involvement in the family, overall likeability, and perceptions of her self-absorption that men dual-earner workaholics are not expected to experience. Additionally, as a dual-earner without her partner fully dedicated to the household, a woman dual-earner is more likely than a man to take time off to deal with familial responsibilities (Maume, 2008). Taking time off to deal with emergencies means that a workaholic dual-earner woman may be viewed as less involved in her job than a single-earner woman workaholic. Lastly, the balance between family and work responsibilities is expected to be more impactful for a woman workaholic in a dual-earner family, leading to negative evaluations of her ability to perform her job well.

Therefore, the next set of hypotheses are as follows:

Hypothesis 8) Gender and earner status will interact, such that women who are workaholics in dual-earner households will be rated lower on (a) likability, (b) family involvement, (c) job involvement, (d) warmth, and (e) job performance than single-earner women workaholics, whereas ratings for men who are workaholics will not significantly differ based on earner status.

Hypothesis 9) Gender and earner status will interact, such that women who are workaholics in dual-earner households will be rated higher on self-absorption than single-earners, whereas ratings for men who are workaholics will not significantly differ based on earner status.

Hypothesis 10) Gender and earner status will interact, such that women workaholics in dual-earner households will be rated lower than any other group (dual-earner men, single-earner men, single-earner women) on (a) likability (b) family involvement (c) job involvement and (d) warmth and (e) competence.

Hypothesis 11) Gender and earner status will interact, such that women who are workaholics in dual-earner households will be rated higher than any other group (dual-earner men, single-earner men, single-earner women) on self-absorption.

Gender, Earner Status, Parental Status, and Workaholism

While workaholics already experience high levels of conflict between their work and family responsibilities (Clark et al., 2016; McMillan et al., 2004; Ng et al., 2007; Shimazu et al., 2011), parenthood may be more difficult to balance for families when both parents are working. Shimazu and colleagues (2020) examined the impact of workaholism on dual-income families with children. Workaholism was negatively related to a parent's happiness and indirectly associated with emotional and behavioral problems in their children. However, further research is needed to clarify these relationships and the mechanisms behind them. (Shimazu et al., 2020).

As stated earlier, parenthood brings with it an expectation of a certain level of warmth and familial dedication necessary to care for children. When only one parent is working, the non-parent's household contribution may be considered sufficient, freeing up the workaholic parent to invest more heavily without being evaluated as harshly. However, workaholics who come

from households where both partners are working and have children are expected to be present in both the work and family and any imbalance in these responsibilities may be more salient to observers. This perceived imbalance of a workaholic may lead to more negative stereotypes regarding the workaholic parent's overall likability, specifically in their ability to be fully involved in both their family and job. In addition to relationships between parental and earner status, it is expected that all three variables—gender, parental status, and earner status—will exacerbate the negative stereotypes for individuals who are viewed less favorably in each category. Mothers and dual-earners tend to take on a greater proportion of childcare responsibility and housework than men (Craig & Churchill, 2020; Ehrenberg, Margaret, Michael, & Brent, 2001; Maume, 2008). This held true even for dual-earner families during the COVID lockdown, when both men and women were in the home (Craig & Churchill, 2020; Shockley, Clark, Dodd, & King, 2020). Familial responsibilities may be challenging for a workaholic dual-earner mother, who experiences internal pressure to work, is constantly working or thinking about work. Generally, workaholic mothers in a household where both spouses work will experience a "triple strike" in terms of their demographic characteristics and are expected to receive the lowest scores across the board on favorable evaluations while receiving the highest scores on unfavorable evaluations. Specifically, dual-earner workaholic mothers are expected to be viewed as unable to be as involved in both their job and family lives as they attempt to balance responsibilities in both. This leads to lower evaluations of competence and job performance at work and lower evaluations of family involvement and warmth at home. Their compulsion to dedicate as much time and energy as possible to their work is expected to result in increased evaluations of self-absorption and decreased likability compared to any other group. This leads to the following set of hypotheses:

Hypothesis 12) Gender, parental status, and earner status will interact, such that mothers who are workaholics in dual-earner households will be rated lower on (a) likability (b) family involvement, (c) job involvement, (d) warmth (e) competence and (f) job performance than any other group.

Hypothesis 13) Gender, parental status, and earner status will interact, such that mothers who are workaholics in dual-earner households will be rated higher on self-absorption than any other group.

Summary

Contemporary literature addresses the effects of stereotypes and negative experiences of women, parents, and dual-earners in the workplace, but not specifically for workaholics. Modern culture, on the other hand, glorifies the experiences of a workaholic as a "go-getter" or "hustler," disregarding the negative consequences that they face. In this dissertation, I argue that workaholic women—particularly those with children and/or in dual-earner households—experience greater stigmatization as they attempt to act on their inner compulsion and drive to focus on work, which runs counter to women's gender role norms and expectations for parents. The impact of earner status in the household will also be examined, as a workaholic whose partner also works may be perceived as neglecting their share of household responsibilities.

The intent of the present manuscript is threefold. First, it expands workaholism literature by identifying how women who are workaholics may be uniquely disadvantaged, particularly those with children or whose spouses also work. This expands research on the experiences of workaholics. Second, this manuscript will contribute to contemporary stereotype literature by identifying stereotypes for workaholics, as well as how familial characteristics such as earner status and parental status may influence these stereotypes. Third, this piece adds to the noticeably

scarce amount of research comparing single- and dual-earner workaholics and how they are perceived. Therefore, the current manuscript will expand on workaholism, stereotype, and gender role research.

CHAPTER 4

METHOD

Pilot Test

Participants. A pilot test was performed on all measures prior to data collection. Pilot analyses consisted of answering a single condition (man, no children) on all scales. The pilot study consisted of 24 participants, including 16 women (66.7%), 7 men (29.2%), and one unspecified. The most common age range was 25 – 34 (33.3%), followed by 18-24, 35-44, and 56-64 (176.7% each), with 2 participants between 45-54 and two unspecified (8.3%). Most participants identified their ethnicity as White or Caucasian (83.3%), with one participant identifying as Hispanic or Black, one as American Indian or Alaska Native, and one as Asian (4.2% each). A complete overview of the pilot study descriptive statistics is available in Table 1.

Pilot Test Results. Reliabilities for the included scales ranged from .63 for likability to .94 for overall job performance. The reliabilities for each scale are presented in Table 2. Although reliability for Likability was low, I was interested in examining how this characteristic may behave differently from warmth, which was correlated ($r = +.57$, $p < .01$). Therefore, all scales were included in the Main Study as well.

Participants

Participants were recruited remotely through online research platforms and social media. To adequately detect the proposed three-way interactions, the goal was 688 participants, or 86 per condition. Data collection began on September 7th, 2021, and concluded on October 21st, 2021.

Recruitment

Participants were recruited through three recruitment strategies. These included the SONA pool of a large, southeastern university, Mechanical Turk, and through word of mouth on social media. While researchers have traditionally been concerned with the use of multiple participant pools, Highhouse and Gillespie (2009) conclude that random assignment is more important than random samples, particularly when the study is intended for a general population, sample characteristics do not interact with measured variables, and the measured variables are relevant to the sample (256). All three of these apply to the current study, so I proceeded with all three recruitment strategies.

SONA participants self-selected to take part in the study through the SONA portal. They were provided with several surveys they could take part in for course credit. Participants recruited through this method were all undergraduate students enrolled in psychology courses. If participants decided they did not want to complete the study, they could do an alternative writing assignment, although no students requested this option. Participants received .5 SONA credits for their participation.

Second, participants were recruited from was the online research participation platform, Mechanical Turk. Like the SONA sample, participants self-selected to participate in the survey after viewing a brief description of the task and time commitment. MTurk participants received an incentive of $1.50 for survey participation.

Lastly, participants were recruited by word of mouth through social media. A brief description of the task and time commitment were shared out on various social media platforms, including Facebook, LinkedIn, and Instagram. Participants volunteered to complete the survey presented as assistance needed with a student's dissertation, with no incentive.

In total, 976 submissions were collected. 76 were removed due to not being complete (7.78%). This completion rate was likely impacted by the length of the survey, as prior studies have found evidence that longer surveys lead to a decrease in response rates (Liu & Wronski, 2017; Marcus et al., 2007). Of the remaining completed surveys, 64 participants (7.1%) were removed due to failing a manipulation pass. Three of these participants failed to correctly identify the gender of the vignette workaholic, 19 failed to correctly identify the parental status, and 47 failed to correctly identify whether the vignette workaholic's partner was employed.

Of the remaining participants, 43 were removed during screening for the following reasons: Eight cases were removed due to responses that indicated they were not paying attention. These cases were initially identified during an outlier screen, as they were shown to be outliers on more than one measure. A closer review of responses indicated they were not paying attention in all eight cases, as responses to reversed items were opposite the direction expected on more than one occasion. An additional five cases were removed because participants responded with a single number to all items for multiple measures, indicating a lack of attention.

The final screening examined the length of time to ensure that participants completed the survey in a reasonable length of time. Participants whose completion times were less than 5 minutes (300 seconds) or greater than 2 hours (7200 seconds) were removed, resulting in the removal of 32 participants (21 under 300 seconds, 11 over 7200 seconds). This resulted in a final sample size of 793 participants, or 81.25% of those who submitted a survey, which surpassed the original goal.

Demographics

A complete summary of the sample demographics can be found in Table 3. The majority of the population identified as women (70.2%) and White (83.0%). Participants were most

frequently between 18-24 (28.5%) and had some form of college education (78.6%). Participants reported a wide range of household income, although the most frequently reported was between $100,000 and $149,999 per year (17.3%). Of the final participants, 333 reported that they heard about the survey through word of mouth (41.1%), 201 through Mechanical Turk (25.3%), and 202 through SONA (25.5%). The remaining participants selected "other" or "word of mouth." Of the 25 who chose "other," all but three mentioned that they had heard about the survey through word of mouth via social media, with the remaining two specifying SONA (2) or MTurk (1). Almost half of participants (48.9%) reported that they were employed full time, and just under a quarter of participants reported that they are full-time students (23.7%).

Participants were very evenly divided in terms of marital and parental status, with 51.2% of participants reported that they did not have children and 48.4% were married. For those who reported that they were married or in a domestic partnership, 69.0% of participants had a partner who worked full-time. Participants with children reported an average of 2 children ($M = 2.39$, $SD = 1.29$). Participants reported a wide variety of occupations, with the most common being education (11.5%), sales and retail (11.3%), business and finance (10.2%), computers and technology (9.2%), healthcare practitioners or technicians (6.8%), healthcare support (6.0%), office or administrative support (5.3%), and art and design (4.1%). A full list of occupation industries, including those for each subgroup, can be found in Table 3.

Procedure

Participants were provided with a link to an online Qualtrics survey. They were presented with a consent form and after giving consent, were asked to read a vignette with one of eight randomly assigned conditions. Conditions varied on gender, parental status, and whether the workaholic is in a single- or dual-income household. The content of this vignette, as well as a list

of the eight specific conditions, can be found in Appendix B. A 35-second timer was included on this page to ensure that participants could not move forward before enough time had passed to read the description. After reading the description, participants answered four questions about the vignette individual to ensure that the manipulation worked. They then went on to complete the measures outlined below. These items include evaluations of the vignette workaholic's likability, self-absorption, warmth, competence, family and job involvement, role-based performance, and work-family and family-work conflict. Participants then completed scales relating to themselves, including a demographic questionnaire.

After completing the survey, participants were thanked for their time. SONA participants received an additional educational debriefing form on this page, as the SONA research program required. Both SONA and MTurk participants were provided with a code that they could use to confirm they had participated in the survey.

Measures

Stereotype Content Measure. Stereotype content was measured using the two-dimension warmth and competence stereotype content measure (Fiske, Cuddy, Glick, & Xu, 2002). This scale consists of 12 items, with six for both warmth and competence, as included in Appendix C. Participants evaluate a group of interest on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree." Warmth items include "warm," "friendly," and "sincere," whereas competence items include "competent," "confident," and "capable." In initial validation studies, alphas for the dimensions were .94 for competence and .90 for warmth (Fiske et al., 2002). In the current study, reliability for warmth (α =.72) and competence (α =.85) was slightly lower but still within an acceptable range.

Likability Scale. Likability was measured using the Reyson Likability scale (Reyson, 2005). This scale consists of 11 items, evaluated on a 7-point Likert scale ranging from "very strongly disagree" to "very strongly agree." Items measure the degree to which the respondent would like to be around the target individual, which in this case is the person in the vignette. All items are included in Appendix D. Reliabilities across three conditions in validation studies ranged from α =.90 - .91 (Reyson, 2005). Reliability in the current study was acceptable (α =.83), although lower than previous studies.

Job Involvement and Family Involvement. Job involvement and family involvement were measured using a revised version of the job involvement scale which focuses on the vignette workaholic rather than the participant, as included in Appendix E (Frone & Rice, 1987; Kanungo, 1982; Mauno & Kinnunen, 2000). Originally created by Kanungo (1982), a short-form, four-item version of the scale developed by Frone and Rice (1987) resulted in reliability measures of .80. This scale consists of a 5-point Likert scale ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree," with items such as "The most important things that happen to me involve my present job role," reworded in the current study as "The most important things that happen to this person involve their present job role" (Frone & Rice, 1987). Mauno and Kinnunen's (2000) reliabilities for the shortened job involvement scale ranged from .73-.76. In the current study, reliability for job involvement was extremely low (α =.57). Removing the one reverse-scored item for this scale did little to improve reliability (α = .63). This may reflect an inability to consistently evaluate job involvement for someone else instead of oneself, particularly when it comes to extreme levels of work involvement, as is the case for workaholics (Clark et al., 2016). Participants may have answered these questions from the perspective of the workaholic, perhaps assuming the workaholic perceives their level of work investment as normal or acceptable. This

did not seem to transfer to participants' ratings of family involvement (α = .78), providing further support that it was determining how the *workaholic* views their work investment that led to the low reliability. To preserve the integrity of the study, job involvement was not included in the analyses.

Family involvement in the current study was measured using the same four items, but with the word "job" replaced with the word "family" in order for the participant to evaluate the vignette workaholic rather than themselves. As an example of this revision, the item "I am very much involved in my family" was revised to read "This person is very much involved in their family." This measure has been revised similarly in previous studies (Frone & Rice, 1987; Mauno & Kinnunen, 2000). The family involvement scale's reliability ranged from .66 to .70 in Mauno and Kinnunen's (2000) study (see Appendix E). Unlike job involvement, family involvement had a reliability of .78 in the current study and was included in the analyses.

Self-absorption Scale. To measure the participant's evaluation of the vignette workaholic's self-absorption, eight items from the private dimension of McKenzie and Hoyle's (2008) self-absorption scale will be revised to reflect an other-focused evaluation rather than self-focused (see Appendix F). This dimension typically evaluates how much an individual thinks about themselves. Items from this scale include "this person thinks about themself more than anyone else" and "this person's mind never focuses on anything other than themself for long," revised from the original "I think about myself more than anyone else" and "my mind never focuses on anything other than myself for long." The scale asks respondents to rate how accurately the descriptions depict the vignette workaholic on a 5-point Likert response, with one indicating "not at all like them" and five indicating "very much like them." In two separate validation studies conducted by McKenzie and Hoyle (2008), reliability found alphas ranging

from .81- .83. Reliability in the current study was slightly higher (α =.87) than in validation studies.

Role-based performance scale. The final evaluation of the vignette workaholic was the role-based performance scale (RBPS). This scale was developed by Welbourne, Johnson, and Erez (1998). This scale was originally used for supervisors to rate subordinates, consisting of dimensions rating the individual regarding their job performance, career progression, innovation, teamwork, and organizational contributions. Each dimension includes four items, rated on a 5-point Likert scale from "needs much improvement" to "excellent." As participants are rating a vignette individual rather than an actual subordinate, directions were altered to ask them to imagine that they are the manager for the individual they read about. Sample evaluation items include "making progress in his/her career," "quality of work output," and "working for the overall good of the company" (see Appendix G). In Welbourne and colleagues' (1998) validity analysis, reliabilities across five different samples ranged from .59 to.87 for the job dimension, .88 to .91 for innovator, .83 to .92 for career, .77 to .87 for team, and .72 to .84 for organization. In line with these analyses, reliability for the job dimension was .86, .88 for innovator, .91 for career, .88 for team, and .83 for organization in the current study.

Demographics. Demographics cover a wide range of characteristics, including age, ethnicity, race, education level, income level, marital status, parental status, employment, and earner status. The demographics measure is presented in Appendix H.

Manipulation Check. The final measure of the study is a manipulation check used to screen out participants who did not read the vignette closely enough to identify the three manipulated variables. This measure includes a brief check of the gender (man, woman), parental

status (parent, nonparent), and earner status (single-earner, dual-earner) of the vignette workaholic (see Appendix I).

Data Analysis

Data Preparation

The variables of interest were reviewed to identify any issues concerning normal distribution, homoscedasticity, independence of observations, and scale reliability. In addition to the low reliability mentioned earlier, job involvement also exhibited a strong negative skew (-1.18), further supporting the decision that this variable did not function properly and needed to be removed to preserve the integrity of the study. All other variables exhibited acceptable distributions.

Analyses examining the three participant types (organic (non-student), student, and Mechanical Turk) showed that the three groups differed in terms of both demographic characteristics and as predictors. The three groups significantly differed on gender ($F = 55.62$, $p < .001$) with the MTurk subgroup consisting of mainly men and the organic and student groups consisting of mostly women (80.2% and 78.2%, respectively), with the MTurk group consisting of mostly men (56.9%). Groups also significantly differed by age ($F = 387.80$, $p < .001$), income, ($F = 31.13$ $p < .001$) and number of children ($F = 14.92$, $p < .001$). Students were considerably younger than the other two groups as they were exclusively between the ages of 18-24 and reported no children. The organic non-student group reported a higher household income bracket than the other two groups, with 40.9% reporting over $100,000 per year (18.8% over $150,000). The most common income brackets for MTurk respondents were $35,000-$49,999 (21.3%) followed by $50,000-$74,000 (20.3%), whereas the most common household income for students was less than $20.000 (35.1%), followed by over $150,000 (19.8%). The disparity in

students' household income responses was likely due to their living situations, with some students living alone and others living with family.

As predictors, there were significant differences based on the participant's sub-group for competence ($F = 48.53$, $p < .001$), likability ($F = 5.04$, $p = .007$), family involvement ($F = 12.92$, $p < .001$), self-absorption ($F = 3.05$, $p = .03$), and all aspects of job performance including job role ($F = 24.43$, $p < .001$), career ($F = 29.33$, $p < .001$), innovation ($F = 21.27$, $p < .001$), team ($F = 29.84$, $p < .001$), organizational ($F = 11.50$, $p < .001$) and overall performance ($F = 30.93$, $p < .001$). Warmth was the only factor where ratings did not significantly differ by group ($F = .012$, $p = .98$) Therefore, analyses were completed both for the overall group and for each of the subgroups to provide a thorough evaluation of all participant groups.

Analyses

The latest version of SPSS, version 27, was used for all computations. ANOVA analyses were used to identify any significant main effects and interactions between gender, parental status, and earner status for each dependent variable. A breakdown of the predictor and outcome variables included in the analyses to test each hypothesis is included below. The F-statistic was examined to determine whether the predictor variable(s) significantly predict the outcome variable, and eta squared (η^2) was reviewed to determine what proportion of the variance could be explained by the predictor(s). For interactions, the interaction variable was included to see if the model is a better fit than the independent variables alone. If significant differences were found, post-hoc analyses were run to determine which relationships were specifically impacted.

The breakdown of these specific analyses are as follows:

For Hypotheses 1 and 2, gender was used as the predictor variable with likability (H1a), family involvement (H1b), job involvement (H1c), warmth (H1d), competence (H1e), job performance (H1f), and self-absorption (H2) as the outcome variables.

For Hypotheses 3, 4, and 5, gender and parental status were used as the predictor variables and likability (H3a), family involvement (H3b), job involvement (H3c), warmth (H3d), self-absorption (H4), and job performance (H5) as the outcome variables. Tukey's test was used for post-hoc analyses.

For Hypotheses 6 and 7, gender and parental status were used as the predictor variables and likability (H6a), family involvement (H6b), job involvement (H6c), warmth (H6d), competence (H6e), and self-absorption (H7) as the outcome variables.

For Hypotheses 8 and 9, gender and earner status were used as the predictor variables with likability (H8a), family involvement (H8b), job involvement (H8c), warmth (H8d), job performance (H8e, and self-absorption (H9) as the outcome variables.

For Hypotheses 10 and 11, gender and earner status were used as the predictor variables with likability (H10a), family involvement (H10b), job involvement (H10c), warmth (H10d), competence (H10e), and self-absorption (H11) as the outcome variables.

For Hypotheses 12 and 13, gender, parental status, and earner status were used as the predictor variables with likability (H12a), family involvement (H12b), job involvement (H12c), warmth (H12d), competence (H12e), job performance (H12f) and self-absorption (H13) as the outcome variables. Tukey's test was used for post-hoc analyses for hypotheses for Hypotheses 3 – 13.

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CHAPTER 5

RESULTS

Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

Table 4 contains the descriptive statistics and correlation matrix for all variables. Self-absorption was negatively correlated with warmth (r = -.20, p < .01), competence (r = -.11, p < .01), likability (r = -.16, p < .01) and team performance (r = -.13, p < .01), organizational performance (r = -.16, p < .01), as well as overall performance (r = -.10, p < .01). Warmth and likability were strongly positively correlated (r = +.63, p < .01), which is not surprising considering that likability is one of the characteristics of warmth. However, likability includes additional interpersonal characteristics beyond those measured by warmth such as knowledge (which would be more closely associated with competence than warmth) and similarity to self (Reyson, 2005). Therefore, both measures were included in the present analyses.

Influence of Gender

For Hypotheses 1 and 2, gender was used as the predictor variable with likability (H1a), family involvement (H1b), warmth (H1d), competence (H1e), job performance (H1f), and self-absorption (H2) as the outcome variables. All results for these hypotheses are presented in Table 5.

Significant results were found for Hypotheses 1a, b, d, and e, as gender did predict evaluations of their levels of likability, $F(1,791) = 14.86$, $p < .001$ (H1a), family involvement, $F(1,791) = 5.92$, $p = .015$ (H1b), warmth, $F(1,791) = 16.76$, $p < .001$ (H1d), competence,

$F(1,791) = 19.09$, $p < .001$ (H1e), and self-absorption, $F(1,791) = 9.535$, $p = .002$ (H2). Job performance was not significant, $F(1,791) = 1.60$, $p = .21$ (H1f).

Each significant result in these analyses, however, was in the *opposite* direction of the hypotheses. Women were rated higher than men on competence (men, $M = 3.66$, $SD = .64$; women, $M = 3.86$, $SD = .68$), warmth (men, $M = 3.18$, $SD = .56$; women, $M = 3.35$, $SD = .62$), likability (men, $M = 2.80$, $SD = .56$; women, $M = 2.96$, $SD = .59$), and family involvement (men, $M = 1.74$, $SD = .59$; women, $M = 1.85$, $SD = .62$). For self-absorption, the sole negative characteristic evaluated, men ($M = 2.83$, $SD = .95$) were evaluated higher than women ($M = 2.63$, $SD = .91$). Effect sizes for these variables were small, ranging from $\eta^2 = .024$ for competence to $\eta^2 = .007$ for family involvement. These results suggest that gender does play a role in evaluations of workaholics, although neither Hypothesis 1 nor Hypothesis 2 were supported.

Influence of Parental Status

While no specific hypotheses were made regarding evaluations of parent workaholics compared to non-parents, there were some statistically significant differences in the evaluations of these groups that are worth noting. All results for parental status are included in Table 6. Parental status significantly impacted ratings of family involvement, $F(1, 791) = 9.69$, $p = .002$, and some aspects of job performance—specifically, team performance, $F(1, 791) = 4.10$, $p = .043$ and organizational performance, $F(1, 791) = 6.83$, $p = .009$. In each case, workaholic parents received higher ratings than childless workaholics. Effect sizes were small for all three variables (family involvement, $\eta^2 = .012$; team performance $\eta^2 = .005$; organizational performance $\eta^2 = .009$). Earner status was also examined to see if it contributed to evaluations regardless of gender, but no analyses were significant for the overall sample.

Influence of Gender and Parental Status

Hypotheses 3 and 4 examined the influence of both gender and parental status on likability (H3a), family involvement (H3b), warmth (H3d), and self-absorption (H4). Gender and parental status were shown to interact in evaluations of family involvement (H3b), $F(1, 789) = 7.54$, $p = .006$ (see Table 7). Contrary to Hypothesis 3b, mothers received higher evaluations ($M = .177$) than childless women ($M = -.07$). These differences were significant for mothers compared to childless workaholic women, $F(1, 395) = 15.60$ ($p < .001$), but were not significantly different for men (see Figure 1). This suggests that parental status does play a role in how women are evaluated, but not for men. However, the direction of these results indicates that parenthood may have a positive influence on evaluations of workaholic mothers. No significant interactions were found for likability, $F(1,789) = 1.02$, $p = 0.31$, warmth, $F(1,789) = 0.035$, $p = 0.85$, or self-absorption $F(1,789) = 0.001$, $p = 0.98$. Therefore, Hypotheses 3 and 4 were not supported.

Hypothesis 5 predicted that job performance ratings would be lower for mothers who were workaholics compared to childless workaholic women, yet higher for fathers who are workaholics compared to childless workaholic men. Analyses of the interaction between gender and parental status on overall job performance was not significant $F(1,789) = .609$, $p = .44$. To examine whether specific aspects of job performance may be impacted, the same analysis was performed using the five individual dimensions of job performance (job, career, innovation, team, and organization). However, none of the individual dimensions were significant. Therefore, Hypothesis 5 was not supported.

Hypotheses 6 and 7 posited that mothers would receive the lowest ratings on likability (H6a), family involvement (H6b), warmth (H6d), competence (H6e), and self-absorption (H7).

Of these, only Hypothesis 6b could be evaluated due to a lack of significance for the influence of gender and parental status on likability, warmth, competence, or self-absorption.

As represented in Figure 1, directly opposite Hypothesis 6b, mothers received the highest evaluations on family involvement (M = 1.97), followed by fathers (M = 1.75), childless men (M = 1.74) and childless women (M = 1.72). The varied order of these results, with both mothers and fathers who are workaholics scoring higher than childless workaholics, could indicate that parental status plays a stronger role than gender in evaluating a workaholic.

Influence of Gender and Earner Status

The next set of analyses focused on gender and earner status as predictors of evaluations of workaholics. Hypotheses 8 and 9 posited that the interaction between these two characteristics would influence evaluations of likability (H8a), family involvement (H8b), warmth (H8d), job performance (H8e) and self-absorption (H9) for women but not for men. Analyses revealed no significant results for any of these variables (likability, $F(1,789)$ .04, p = .85; family involvement $F(1,789)$ .381, p = .53; warmth $F(1,789)$ .35, p = .55; overall performance $F(1,789)$ .74, p = .39). Therefore, Hypotheses 8 and 9 were not supported.

Hypotheses 10 and 11 focused on the order in which men and women dual- and single-earner workaholics were evaluated on likability (H10a), family involvement (H10b), warmth (H10d), competence (H10e), and self-absorption (H11). As groups did not significantly vary on any of these evaluations, the hypotheses were not supported.

Influence of Gender, Parental Status, and Earner Status

Hypotheses 12 and 13 focused on the influence of gender, parental status, and earner status on evaluations of workaholics. Analyses showed no significant three-way interactions for likability (H12a), $F(1,785) = .43$, p = .514, family involvement (H12b), $F(1,785) = .94$, p = .332,

warmth (H12d), $F(1,785) = .539$, $p = .463$, competence (H12e), $F(1,785) = 1.53$, $p = .216$, overall performance (H12f), $F(1,785) = .05$, $p = .832$, or self-absorption (H13), $F(1,785) = .02$, $p = .887$.

Additional Analyses

Subgroup Analyses. Analyses were repeated for each subgroup, examining organic (non-student) participants, student participants, and MTurk participants separately. For Hypotheses 1 and 2, results for the organic (non-student) participants were similar to those of the full sample (see Table 8). Women were rated higher than men on warmth (women, $M = 3.37$, $SD = .55$; men, $M = 3.16$, $SD = .49$; $F(1,385) = 16.25$, $p < .001$), competence (women, $M = 3.63$, $SD = .65$; men, $M = 3.44$, $SD = .64$; $F(1,385) = 16.25$, $p = .004$), likability (women, $M = 3.03$, $SD = .56$; men, $M = 2.84$, $SD = .53$; $F(1,385) = 11.45$, $p = .001$), and family involvement (women, $M = 1.91$, $SD = .61$; men, $M = 1.76$, $SD = .62$; $F(1,385) = 4.92$, $p = .027$), and self-absorption was significantly higher for men ($M = 2.86$, $SD = .92$) than women ($M = 2.60$, $SD = .89$; $F(1,385) = 8.04$, $p = .005$). Due to unequal variances between the three groups, the Games-Howell test for post-hoc analyses was utilized to examine differences between groups.

For MTurk participants are included in Table 9. For these participants, only competence (H1e) was significant, $F(1,198) = 4.08$, $p = .045$, with women ($M = 4.09$, $SD = .69$) rated higher than men ($M = 3.91$, $SD = .63$). Lastly, analyses of student participants revealed similar patterns to the full sample as shown in Table 10, with women receiving significantly higher ratings than men on likability (H1a), (women, $M = 2.88$, $SD = .53$; men, $M = 2.67$, $SD = .49$; $F(1,198) = 8.55$, $p < .001$) warmth (H1d), (women, $M = 3.39$, $SD = .68$; men, $M = 3.12$, $SD = .50$; $F(1,198) = 10.17$, $p = .002$), and competence (H1e), (women, $M = 4.09$, $SD = .61$; men, $M = 3.82$, $SD = .51$; $F(1,198) = 11.98$, $p = .004$, and men receiving significantly higher ratings on self-absorption

(H2), (women, $M = 2.72$, $SD = .80$; men, $M = 2.99$, $SD = .87$; $F(1,198) = 3.79$, $p = .02$). Unlike the full sample, family involvement (H1b) was not significant, $F(1,198) = .947$, $p = .33$. Interestingly, organizational role performance was significant for this student group, $F(1,198) = 3.931$, $p = .049$, with women ($M = 4.23$, $SD = .79$) once again receiving higher ratings than men ($M = 3.99$, $SD = .90$).

The significant results seen for parental status (regardless of gender) on family involvement held for the student participants, with parents ($M = 1.98$, $SD = .54$) receiving higher ratings than non-parents ($M = 1.82$, $SD = .54$; $F(1,198) = 1.23$, $p = .042$), but not for the other two groups (MTurk, $F(1,198) = 3.39$, $p = .067$; Organic, $F(1,385) = 3.04$, $p = 0.82$).

An interesting note is that an evaluation of subgroups showed that organic (non-student) participants were significantly more likely to rate dual-earners ($M = 3.34$, $SD = .53$) higher on warmth than single earners ($M = 3.18$, $SD = .52$; $F(1,387) = 9.85$, $p = .002$). Additionally, for family involvement, dual earners ($M = 1.90$, $SD = .62$) were once again rated higher than single earners ($M = 1.77$, $SD = .61$) among organic (non-student) participants, $F(1,387) = 4.84$, $p = .028$, although neither of these results were significant in the full sample or any other subgroups.

An examination of the interaction hypotheses revealed that the non-student organic sample did show a significant interaction effect for likability (H6a), $F(1,385) = 5.13$, $p = .024$ ($\eta_p^2 = .012$, see Table 11). Contrary to hypotheses, workaholic mothers ($M = 3.11$, $SD = .53$) were rated higher on likability than childless women ($M = 2.94$, $SD = .58$), whereas childless men ($M = 2.88$, $SD = .53$) were rated higher on likability than fathers ($M = 2.79$, $SD = .53$), as shown in Figure 2. Additionally, for overall performance, while the full sample did not show any significant interactions, sub-group analyses do show a significant interaction between gender and parental status for overall performance in the student subgroup, $F(1,198) = 4.99$, $p = .027$ ($\eta_p^2 =$

.025; see Table 12). For this particular group, fathers (M = 4.11, SD = .54) had the highest overall performance rating, followed by childless women (M = 4.05, SD = .65), mothers (M = 3.97, SD = .57), and lastly childless men (M = 3.80, SD = .77), see Figure 3. For this sample, parenthood led to higher performance ratings for men, but lower performance ratings for women supports Hypothesis 5. In the full sample, the interaction was not significant, $F(1, 789) = .61$, p = .44. The directionality of the full sample also did not match this subgroup with mothers receiving the highest overall performance ratings of all groups, and both fathers (M = 3.90, SD = .70) receiving higher ratings than childless men (M = 3.78, SD = .73) and mothers (M = 3.92, SD = .68) receiving higher ratings than childless women (M = 3.89, SD = .71).

As seen in Table 13, the full sample's significant interaction between parental status and gender on family involvement (H6b) only held for the organic non-student participant group, $F(1,385) = 10.40$, p = .001 (η_p^2 = .026). This relationship is represented in Figure 4. While the interaction is significant in both cases, the pattern of the relationship differs between the full sample and non-student participants. Specifically, although mothers receive the highest family involvement ratings in both cases, in the full sample, parents are rated higher on family involvement than non-parents for both men (fathers, M = 1.75, SD = .58; childless men, M = 1.74, SD = .59) and women (mothers, M = 1.97, SD = .59; childless women, M = 1.72, SD = .63). The organic non-student subgroup showed a crossover effect, however, with workaholic mothers (M = 2.05, SD = .56) still rating higher than childless women (M = 1.75, SD = .63), but workaholic fathers (M = 1.71, SD = .62) receiving the lowest rating of any group, including childless men (M = 1.81, SD = .62).

In line with the overall sample, no significant interactions were found for gender and earner status or gender, parental status, and earner status.

Influence of participant gender. Gender was examined as a potential moderator to explain the subgroup differences, as gender make-up differed between the organic non-student and student collectors (78.2% and 80.2% women) and the MTurk collector, which mainly consisted of men (56.9% men). Results indicate that gender impacted the relationship between vignette gender and competence and likability.

Including the participant's gender in the ANOVA had a significant impact on ratings of competence, $F(1,786) = 5.64$, $p = .018$, although the effect size was small $\eta_p^2 = .007$ (see Table 14). An evaluation of the means revealed that women participants gave vignette women the highest competency ratings of all groups ($M = 3.91$, $SD = .67$, 95% $CI = 3.84, 3.99$). On the contrary, men participants gave women workaholics the lowest competency ratings of all groups ($M = 3.64$, $SD = .65$, *95 % CI* $= 3.57, 3.72$). Both men and women rated the man vignette similarly, with men giving an average rating of 3.69 ($SD = .63$) and women giving an average rating of 3.71 ($SD = .70$). These results are represented in Figure 5.

Similar outcomes were seen for likability, $F(1,786) = 4.20$, $p = .041$, although the effect size was small $\eta_p^2 = .005$ (see Table 15). An evaluation of the means revealed that women participants gave vignette women the highest likability ratings of all groups ($M = 2.96$, $SD = .59$, 95% $CI = 2.92, 3.05$). On the contrary, men participants gave women workaholics the lowest likability ratings of all groups ($M = 2.78$, $SD = .56$, *95 % CI* $= 2.70, 2.84$). Ratings of the man vignette were in the middle for both men ($M = 2.86$, $SD = .56$) and women ($M = 2.88$, $SD = .59$), with women giving higher ratings overall. Results are represented in Figure 6.

CHAPTER 6

DISCUSSION

The present study aimed to gain a greater understanding of stereotypes of workaholics, particularly regarding women workaholics. Given previous research on traditional gender roles (Ridgeway, 2011), negative attitudes toward women in the workplace (Cukrowska-Torzewska & Matysiak, 2020; Heilman, 2012), and the struggle women workaholics face in attempting to fulfill their compulsions toward work while balancing familial responsibilities (Clark et al., 2014), hypotheses posited that women workaholics would experience more negative ratings than men workaholics. Furthermore, women workaholics who had children and employed partners were expected to receive even lower ratings than their childless and single-earner counterparts.

The study results indicated that, in some instances, gender and parental status *can* make a difference in determining how a workaholic is stereotyped. However, contrary to the hypotheses, women workaholics received more favorable ratings than men workaholics across numerous characteristics. Specifically, workaholics who are women were rated more favorably on competence, warmth, likability, family involvement, and self-absorption. Additionally, women workaholics with children received more favorable ratings on family involvement than men and childless women. While this was the reverse of the current hypotheses, it shows that there may be emerging changes in how working women, especially working mothers, are evaluated by others. The results suggest that – contrary to the hypotheses – women workaholics were generally viewed positively compared to men workaholics. There may be a few reasons why the current findings did not align with previous research suggesting women violating traditional gender roles would be viewed negatively (Glicke & Fiske, 2007; Ridgeway, 2011). These

reasons include the possibility that ratings reflected ratings of men and women based on traditional gender expectations, the influence of cultural expectations, or perhaps a genuine shift toward acknowledging the contributions and challenges working women face in light of the recent pandemic.

One reason that women who are workaholics may have been evaluated much higher than workaholic men on some of the included characteristics, such as warmth and family involvement, is that overarching gender stereotypes of women and mothers as warm, family-devoted caregivers (Blair-Loy, 2009) were so strong that they prevailed even when the respondent is presented contradictory information. The finding that women were not rated significantly higher on overall performance further supports the possibility that evidence of workaholism may not have been enough to override traditional perceptions of women. While gender stereotypes likely played a role in explaining the findings, other potential explanations warrant examination.

Cultural context may provide a second possible reason why women received higher ratings than men on positive characteristics, including warmth, competence, likability, and family involvement. The United States is still heavily immersed in the "hustle culture" mentality, viewing heavy work investment as an admirable quality by weighing the dedication to the workplace more heavily than the absence from family life. While there has been an emerging trend to move away from hustle culture and acknowledge the burnout that comes with it (Carson & Sherr, 2022; Madhani, 2021), it remains a wildly popular concept on social media platforms like Instagram (Carson & Sherr, 2022). Additionally, working beyond the traditional 40-hour week is common among millennials, who make up approximately 35% of the workforce. According to a survey by Manpower (2020), American millennials reported working an average

of 45 hours per week. While a counter-culture focused on mental health and balance is beginning to gain traction, there may still be a high level of respect for those who choose to "rise and grind" or focus on work far beyond what is required. This admiration may have bled over into evaluations of workaholic women who are investing heavily even while balancing additional familial responsibilities, leading to higher evaluations for vignette workaholics who are women. Coupled with gender role expectations of women as warm and highly involved in their families, the current study's findings begin to make sense. Like taking culture into account, a full evaluation of potential mechanisms behind the study's results would not be complete without considering recent events.

Amid the recent pandemic, in the days, weeks, and months when the world seemed to have stopped, parenthood did not. Families had to quickly pivot as schools and workplaces closed or went remote, the balance between working and caring for the family became increasingly blended, and mothers – especially working mothers – experienced an unprecedented era of visibility. COVID – 19 brought about a high level of awareness regarding the contributions working women make to their households and the workplace, even beyond that of their male partners (Craig & Churchill, 2020; Shockley, Clark, Dodd, & King, 2020). These findings are not prevalent solely within academia but also among mainstream news and media outlets (McGinty, 2021). Since this research was collected during the pandemic, it may have led to a type of 'halo' effect, where evaluators acknowledged the additional responsibilities and pressures put on women who are both working and managing families and used that information to create a stereotype that does not take the extremity of work investment or the consequences it may lead to for a workaholic and their family into account. This would explain the lower ratings

for women on self-absorption, in addition to the higher ratings on warmth, competence, family involvement, and likability.

Limitations

The scope of the current study was limited by the inclusion of a partner in each condition. In this way, it is only possible to evaluate how *married* workaholic men and women are evaluated, rather than generalize to all workaholics. While this made for cleaner comparisons across groups with gender being the primary variable of interest, the non-work responsibilities of married workaholics differ from those of unmarried workaholics and may have received different evaluations. Therefore, future studies would benefit from examining how marital status influences evaluations of workaholics.

Second, the individuals in the vignette were not explicitly identified as workaholics. While the vignette was careful to include descriptions representing each dimension of workaholism (Clark, Smith, & Haynes, 2020), it is possible that the same described behaviors were viewed differently between vignette men and women or parents and non-parents, leading to inconsistency in how the stereotype was triggered. The general population may hold lay beliefs about the attributes of workaholics that do not align with the academic definition. Future research should consider examining whether the same characteristics academics use to define workaholism activate the stereotype of a workaholic by the general population.

The current study's third limitation was the demographic makeup, with women accounting for 78.2% of the total sample. In the present study, the participant’s gender played a significant role in rating a workaholic on two of the variables of interest, likability, and competence, with women giving other women the highest ratings. This in-group bias was

particularly strong for women (Rudman & Goodwin, 2004), as seen in the current study. Although this in-group gender bias is not unexpected, the imbalance of male and female participants should be considered when evaluating the results. Future studies would benefit from collecting more even numbers of men and women participants within the sample.

One final limitation of the current study were the samples included. Using various sample pools is not necessarily a concern, as long as the samples reflect the population of interest (Highhouse & Gillespie, 2009). In this case, although there were significantly different ratings of some characteristics based on the sample collector (organic, student, or MTurk), the direction of the relationship was the same for each variable. The effect sizes for significant findings were small, even for the large, combined sample. It is possible that the sub-group sample sizes did not have enough power to detect such low effect sizes. This was supported by the fact that the organic non-student collector, larger than the student and MTurk collectors, showed more significant results than the other two groups.

Directions for Future Research and Conclusion

Future research should look more in-depth at whether women workaholics are rated higher than men workaholics across additional variables or with different demographic characteristics. For instance, the workaholic was married in each vignette condition in the current study. It would be interesting to look into the impact of marital status or domestic partnership on evaluations of workaholics to see if the additional familial responsibilities, with or without children, are the driving force increasing women workaholics' ratings in the current study.

Second, the current study only examined workaholics. Future research would benefit by looking at how non-workaholics are rated on these same factors compared to workaholics to identify whether the results are solely attributable to participants using established gender role

expectations to answer the scales or whether the heavy work investment of the workaholic had any impact on the results. If women are rated differently as workaholics than non-workaholics, this will provide evidence that the workaholic tendencies described do play a role in how the workaholics in the current study were rated. Suppose women are rated higher as both workaholics and non-workaholics across a wide variety of characteristics, especially on more traditionally masculine characteristics like competence and performance. In that case, it may indicate that attitudes toward working women are shifting. Higher ratings for women across the board would fall in line with research indicating that there has been a shift in attitudes toward working women in the United States over the past few decades, particularly among millennials (Donnelly et al., 2016). However, considering that other researchers have noticed a slow-down or "stall" in the movement toward egalitarianism in the workplace (England, Levine, & Mishel, 2020), it is possible that women, workaholic or not, would only receive significantly higher ratings than their male counterparts on more traditionally feminine characteristics like warmth, family involvement, and communal traits.

Third, the current study focuses on vignette methodology. While this method is useful in gaining information about general characteristics and stereotypes (Aguinis & Bradley, 2014), future research would benefit from surveying those who have a relationship with a workaholic, such as a coworker, family member, or spouse, to gain a deeper understanding in how workaholics are viewed by those who interact with them regularly. Those closest to a workaholic may have additional insight on their behaviors and the potentially negative impact heavy work investment has on their relationships.

There is still much to be learned about the evaluations of workaholics, but this research suggests that women workaholics may be admired for their perceived ability to "do it all" rather

than disparaged. Further research is needed, however, to determine whether this is due to long-term shifting attitudes toward women in the workplace, a byproduct of the recent pandemic, specific characteristics of this study, or other mechanisms not yet uncovered. While this study provides novel insight into stereotypes of workaholics, it is critical to acknowledge that these stereotypes do not necessarily change the negative outcomes of workaholism experienced by workaholic women. However, this research suggests that the contributions and additional expectations placed on women in the home and workplace may be recognized by others and considered when developing stereotypes of workaholics.

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TABLES

Table 1

Pilot Study Descriptive Statistics

Characteristic	Pilot Sample	
	N	%
Total n	***24***	
Gender		
Man	7	30.4%
Woman	16	69.6%
Non-binary / third gender	-	-
Prefer not to answer	-	-
Age		
18-24	4	18.2%
25-34	8	36.4%
35-44	4	18.2%
45-54	2	9.1%
55-64	4	18.2%
65+	-	-
Ethnicity		
White	20	87.0%
Black or African American	1	4.3%
Hispanic or Latino	1	4.3%
American Indian or Alaskan Native	-	-
Asian	1	4.3%
Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander	-	-
Other	-	-
Marital status		
Single (never married)	10	43.5%
Married/ domestic partnership	12	52.2%
Divorced/widowed	1	4.2%
Separated	-	-
Widowed	-	-
Marital Length		
> 1 year	-	-
1-4 years	-	-
5-9 years	3	25%

Table 1 cont'd

Characteristic	Pilot Sample	
	n	%
10-14 years	4	33.3%
30 + years	5	41.7%
Household Income		
> 20,000	6	26.1%
$20,000 - $34,999	2	8.7%
$35,000 - $49,999	1	4.3%
$50,000 - $74,999	4	17.4%
$75,000 - $99,999	-	-
$100,000 - $149,999	10	43.5%
$150,000 +	-	-
Prefer not to say	-	-
Highest educational level		
Less than high school	-	-
High school graduate or equivalent	1	4.2%
Some college, no degree	3	12.5%
Associate Degree	-	-
Bachelor's Degree	12	50.0%
Master's Degree	5	20.8%
Doctorate	2	8.3%
Professional Degree	-	-
Children		
0	13	54.2%
1	2	8.3%
2	8	33.3%
3	1	4.2%
4	-	-
More than 4	-	-
Employment		
Employed Full-time	11	50.0%
Employed part-time	2	9.1%
Student	5	22.7%
Unemployed	1	4.5%
Homemaker	2	9.1%
Self-employed	-	-
Retired	1	4.5%

Table 1 cont'd

Characteristic	Student Sample	
	N	%
Industry		
Education	2	8.3%
Business & Finance	1	4.2%
Computers & Technology	1	4.2%
Military & Government	2	8.3%
Engineering & Architecture	2	8.3%
Total Valid Responses	8	33.3%
System Missing	16	66.6%

Table 2

Pilot Study Scale Reliabilities

Scale	*Reliability*
Warmth	.71
Competence	.74
Likability	.63
Job Involvement	.72
Family Involvement	.73
Self-Absorption	.76
Job Performance – Job	.77
Job Performance – Career	.88
Job Performance – Innovator	.88
Job Performance – Team	.83
Job Performance – Organization	.83
Job Performance – Overall	.94
Gender Egalitarianism	.72
Work-Family Centrality	.78
MWS – Motivation	.88
MWS – Cognitive	.78
MWS – Emotional	.82
MWS – Behavioral	.67
MWS – Overall	.90

Table 3

Demographic Characteristics of Participants

Characteristic	Student Sample		Non-Student Sample		Mturk Sample		Full sample	
	n	%	*n*	%	*n*	%	*n*	%
Total n	***202***		***389***		***202***		***793***	
Gender								
Man	42	20.8%	76	19.5%	115	56.9%	233	29.4%
Woman	158	78.2%	312	80.2%	87	43.1%	557	70.2%
Non-binary / third gender	2	1.0%	-	-	-	-	2	0.3%
Prefer not to answer	-	-	1	0.3%	-	-	1	0.1%
Age								
18-24	202	100.0%	23	5.9%	1	0.5%	226	28.5%
25-34	-	-	129	33.2%	41	20.3%	170	21.4%
35-44	-	-	106	27.2%	71	35.1%	177	22.3%
45-54	-	-	60	15.4%	44	21.8%	104	13.1%
55-64	-	-	54	13.9%	37	1.3%	91	11.5%
65+	-	-	17	4.4%	8	4.0%	25	3.2%
Ethnicity								
White	140	69.3%	349	89.7%	169	83.7%	658	83.0%
Black or African American	18	8.9%	10	2.6%	17	8.4%	45	5.7%
Hispanic or Latino	11	5.4%	12	3.1%	4	2.0%	27	3.4%
American Indian or Alaskan Native	-	-	2	0.5%	9	4.5%	2	0.3%
Asian	26	12.9%	7	1.8%	-	-	42	5.3%
Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander	2	1.0%	8	2.1%	1	0.5%	3	0.4%
Other	5	2.5%	1	0.3%	2	1.0%	15	1.9%
Marital status								
Single (never married)	200	99.0%	52	13.4%	86	42.6%	338	42.6%
Married/ domestic partnership	2	1.0%	287	73.8%	95	47.0%	384	48.4%
Divorced/widowed	-	-	43	11.1%	15	7.4%	58	7.3%
Separated	-	-	4	1.0%	3	1.5%	7	0.9%
Widowed	-	-	3	0.8%	3	1.5%	6	0.8%
Marital Length								
> 1 year	-	-	8	2.8%	-	-	8	2.1%
1-4 years	1	50.0%	45	15.7%	9	9.5%	55	14.3%
5-9 years	1	50.0%	71	24.7%	15	15.8%	87	22.7%
10-14 years	-	-	59	20.6%	25	26.3%	84	21.9%

Table 3 cont'd

Characteristic	Student Sample		Non-Student Sample		Mturk Sample		Full sample	
	n	%	*n*	%	*n*	%	*n*	%
15-19 years	-	-	27	9.4%	12	12.6%	39	10.2%
20-24 years	-	-	23	8.0%	9	9.5%	32	8.3%
25-29 years	-	-	17	5.9%	7	7.4%	24	6.3%
30+ years	-	-	37	12.9%	18	18.9%	55	14.3%
Household Income								
> 20,000	71	35.1%	14	3.6%	20	9.9%	105	13.2%
$20,000 - $34,999	7	3.5%	25	6.4%	37	18.3%	69	8.7%
$35,000 - $49,999	7	3.5%	54	13.9%	43	21.3%	104	13.1%
$50,000 - $74,999	19	9.4%	73	18.8%	41	20.3%	133	16.8%
$75,000 - $99,999	24	11.9%	60	15.4%	32	15.8%	116	14.6%
$100,000 - $149,999	31	15.3%	86	22.1%	19	9.4%	136	17.2%
$150,000 +	40	19.8%	73	18.8%	10	5.0%	123	15.5%
Prefer not to say	3	1.5%	4	1.0%	-	-	7	0.9%
Highest educational level								
Less than high school	-	-	-	-	1	0.5%	1	0.1%
High school graduate or equivalent	117	57.9%	25	6.4%	27	13.4%	169	21.3%
Some college, no degree	81	40.1%	98	25.2%	47	23.3%	226	28.5%
Associate Degree	3	1.5%	47	12.1%	24	11.9%	74	9.3%
Bachelor's Degree	1	0.5%	121	31.1%	83	41.1%	205	25.9%
Master's Degree	-	-	77	19.8%	16	7.9%	93	11.7%
Doctorate	-	-	13	3.3%	2	1.0%	15	1.9%
Professional Degree	-	-	8	2.1%	2	1.0%	10	1.3%
Children								
0	202	100.0%	87	22.4%	117	57.9%	406	51.2%
1	-	-	70	30.8%	24	11.9%	94	11.9%
2	-	-	120	13.9%	29	14.4%	149	18.8%
3	-	-	54	9.0%	17	8.4%	71	9.0%
4	-	-	35	5.9%	11	5.4%	46	5.8%
More than 4	-	-	23	18.0%	4	2.0%	27	3.4%
Employment								
Employed Full-time	1	50.0%	244	62.7%	148	73.3%	393	49.6%
Employed part-time	18	8.9%	33	8.5%	27	13.4%	78	9.8%
Student	174	86.1%	13	3.3%	1	0.5%	188	23.7%
Unemployed	9	4.5%	5	1.3%	6	3.0%	20	2.5%
Homemaker	-	-	33	8.5%	4	2.0%	37	4.7%
Self-employed	-	-	18	4.6%	7	0.5%	25	3.2%
Retired	-	-	34	8.7%	8	3.5%	42	5.3%
Other	-	-	9	2.3%	1	4.0%	10	1.3%

Table 3 cont'd

Characteristic	Student Sample		Non-Student Sample		Mturk Sample		Full sample	
	n	%	*n*	%	*n*	%	*n*	%
Industry								
Education	1	0.5%	46	11.5%	14	6.9%	61	7.7%
Sales & Retail	5	2.5%	20	5.2%	35	17.3%	60	7.6%
Business & Finance	-	-	39	10.1%	15	7.4%	54	6.8%
Computers & Technology	-	-	17	4.4%	32	15.8	49	6.2%
Healthcare Practitioners Technicians	1	0.5%	33	8.5%	2	1.0%	36	4.6%
Healthcare Support	2	1.0%	26	6.7%	4	2.0%	32	4.1%
Office & Admin Support	3	1.5%	13	3.4%	12	5.9%	28	3.5%
Art, Design, & Media	-	-	7	1.8%	15	7.4%	22	2.8%
Food Preparation or Service	4	2.0%	9	2.3%	8	4.0%	21	2.7%
Community & Social Services	-	-	16	4.1%	4	2.0%	20	2.5%
Military & Government	-	-	16	4.1%	-	-	16	2.0%
Production	-	-	9	2.3%	5	3.5%	14	1.8%
Other	-	-	7	1.8%	7	3.5%	14	1.8%
Engineering & Architecture	-	-	9	2.3%	4	2.0%	13	1.6%
Protective Services	-	-	9	2.3%	3	1.5%	12	1.5%
Repair, Installation, & Maintenance	1	0.5%	8	2.1%	3	1.5%	12	1.5%
Management	-	-	10	2.6%	1	0.5%	11	1.4%
Construction	-	-	3	0.8%	8	4.0%	11	1.4%
Transportation	-	-	6	1.5%	5	2.5%	11	1.4%
Life & Social Sciences	2	1.0%	7	1.8%	1	0.5%	10	1.3%
Hospitality	-	-	5	1.3%	4	2.0%	9	1.1%
Legal	-	-	6	1.5%	-	-	6	0.8%
Personal Care or Service	-	-	6	1.5%	-	-	6	0.8%
Farming & Forestry	1	0.5%	1	0.3%	1	0.5%	3	0.4%
Total Valid Responses	20	10.0%	328	84.5%	183	90.6%	531	67.2%
System Missing	182	90.0%	61	15.5%	19	9.4%	262	32.8%

Table 4

Descriptive Statistics and Correlations for Study Variables

Variable	*n*	*M*	*SD*	*1*	*2*	3	4	5	6
1. Competence	793	3.76	0.67	--					
2. Warmth	793	3.26	0.60	.41**	--				
3. Likability	793	2.88	0.58	.34**	.63**	--			
4. Job Involvement	793	4.64	0.45	.09*	-.15**	-.19**	--		
5. Family Involvement	793	1.80	0.61	.01	.25**	.33**	-.52**	--	
6. Self-Absorption	793	2.73	0.93	-.11**	-.20**	-.16**	.04	-.05	--
7. Performance- Job	793	4.17	0.72	.48**	.17**	.19**	.16**	-.11**	-.06
8. Performance – Career	793	4.05	0.86	.49**	.08*	.14**	.16**	-.10**	-.04
9. Performance – Innovation	792	3.65	0.98	.48**	.12**	.16**	.07*	-.09*	-.02
10. Performance – Team	793	3.44	0.96	.37**	.27**	.31**	-.02	.04	-.13**
11. Performance – Organization	793	4.03	0.81	.39**	.30**	.28**	.07	.01	-.16**
12. Performance - all	793	3.87	0.70	.54**	.23**	.27**	.10**	-.05	-.10**

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 4 cont'd

Descriptive Statistics and Correlations for Study Variables

Variable	7	8	9	10	11	12
1. Competence						
2. Warmth						
3. Likability						
4. Job Involvement						
5. Family Involvement						
6. Self-Absorption						
7. Performance - Job	--					
8. Performance - Career	.63**	--				
9. Performance - Innovation	.62**	.73**	--			
10. Performance - Team	.45**	.49**	.61**	--		
11. Performance - Organization	.53**	.50**	.51**	.64**	--	
12. Performance - All	.77**	.82**	.87**	.80**	.78**	--

** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed).

* Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 5

One–way ANOVA for gender

Variable	Men		Women		$F(1,791)$	η^2
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*		
Competence	3.66	.64	3.86	.68	19.09***	.024
Warmth	3.18	.56	3.35	.62	16.76***	.021
Likability	2.80	.56	2.96	.59	14.86***	.018
Family Involvement	1.74	.59	1.85	.62	5.92*	.007
Self-Absorption	2.83	.95	2.63	.91	9.54**	.012
Career Performance	4.00	.85	4.09	.87	1.58	.002
Innovation Performance	3.61	.98	3.69	.99	1.25	.002
Team Performance	3.42	.97	3.47	.95	.37	.000
Organization Performance	4.00	.82	4.07	.80	1.42	.002
Overall Performance	3.84	.72	3.90	.69	1.60	.002

Note. p < .05, p < .01**, p <. 001****

Table 6

One-way ANOVA for parental status

Variable	Childless		Parent		$F(1,791)$	η^2
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*		
Competence	3.76	.69	3.76	.65	.01	.000
Warmth	3.23	.62	3.30	.57	3.18	.004
Likability	2.85	.58	2.90	.58	1.61	.002
Family Involvement	1.72	.61	1.86	.60	9.68**	.012
Self-Absorption	2.70	.94	2.76	.93	.98	.001
Job Performance – All	3.83	.72	3.91	.69	2.52	.003
Job Performance – Job	4.16	.72	4.18	.72	.08	.000
Job Performance – Career	4.02	.87	4.08	.85	1.05	.001
Job Performance - Innovation	3.64	.99	3.67	.97	.16	.000
Job Performance – Team	3.38	.99	3.51	.92	4.10*	.005
Job Performance - Organization	3.96	.85	4.10	.77	6.83**	.009

Note. $p < .05$, $p < .01$**, $p <. 001$****

Table 7

Two-way ANOVA of gender and parental status on family involvement.

Source	*Type III Sum of Squares*	*Df*	*Mean Square*	*F*	*Sig.*	η_p^2
Corrected Model	8.403[a]	3	2.801	7.806	<.001***	.029
Intercept	2559.048	1	2559.048	7131.562	.000***	.900
Vig_Gender	2.156	1	2.156	6.007	.014*	.008
Vig_Parent	3.523	1	3.523	9.817	.002**	.012
Vig_Gender* Vig_Parent	2.706	1	2.706	7.541	.006**	.009
Error	283.120	789	.359			
Total	2851.313	793				
Corrected Total	291.524	792				

Note. a. R Squared = .029 (Adjusted R Squared = .025) *$p < .05$*, $p < .01$**, $p <. 001$****

Table 8

One–way ANOVA for gender, organic (non-student) participants

Variable	Men		Women		$F(1,387)$	η^2
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*		
Competence	3.44	.64	3.63	.65	8.53**	.022
Warmth	3.16	.49	3.37	.55	16.25***	.040
Likability	2.84	.53	3.03	.56	11.45**	.029
Family Involvement	1.76	.62	1.91	.61	4.92*	.013
Self-Absorption	2.86	.92	2.60	.89	8.04*	.02
Job Performance	3.97	.74	4.04	.78	.73	.002
Career Performance	3.77	.88	3.87	.96	.96	.002
Innovation Performance	3.37	1.06	3.52	1.03	2.02	.005
Team Performance	3.21	.97	3.28	.95	.48	.001
Organization Performance	3.87	.82	3.93	.81	.40	.001
Overall Performance	3.63	.73	3.73	.74	1.30	.003

Note. $p < .05$, $p < .01$**, $p <. 001$****

Table 9

One–way ANOVA for gender, MTurk participants

Variable	Men		Women		$F(1,200)$	η^2
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*		
Competence	3.91	.63	4.09	.67	4.08*	.020
Warmth	3.27	.71	3.26	.69	.01	.000
Likability	2.86	.66	2.89	.69	.15	.001
Family Involvement	1.59	.45	1.65	.65	.48	.002
Self-Absorption	2.62	1.04	2.60	2.04	.03	.000
Job Performance	4.21	.61	4.29	.62	.74	.004
Career Performance	4.29	.69	4.31	.66	.05	.000
Innovation Performance	3.93	.78	4.02	.79	.54	.003
Team Performance	3.86	.77	3.86	.80	.01	.000
Organization Performance	4.25	.69	4.19	.73	.33	.002
Overall Performance	4.11	.60	4.13	.58	.77	.000

Note. $p < .05$, $p < .01$**, $p <. 001$****

Table 10

One–way ANOVA for gender, student participants

Variable	Men		Women		$F(1,200)$	η^2
	M	*SD*	*M*	*SD*		
Competence	3.82	.51	4.09	.61	11.98**	.056
Warmth	3.12	.50	3.39	.68	10.17**	.048
Likability	2.67	.49	2.88	.53	8.55**	.041
Family Involvement	1.86	.51	1.93	.57	.947	.005
Self-Absorption	2.99	.87	2.72	.80	5.42*	.026
Job Performance	4.43	.62	4.40	.68	.158	.001
Career Performance	4.18	.82	4.30	.78	1.20	.006
Innovation Performance	3.75	.89	3.71	1.01	.13	.001
Team Performance	3.39	.99	3.43	.97	.10	.000
Organization Performance	3.99	.90	4.23	.79	3.93*	.019
Overall Performance	3.95	.68	4.01	.61	.50	.002

Note. $p < .05$, $p < .01$**, $p <. 001$****

Table 11

Two-Way ANOVA of gender and parental status on likability by collector.

Collector	Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	$F(1, 387)$	Sig.	η_p^2
Nonstudent	Corrected Model	5.217[a]	3	1.739	5.889	<.001***	.044
	Intercept	3339.962	1	3339.962	11309.545	<.001***	.967
	Vig_Gender	3.470	1	3.470	11.751	<.001***	.030
	Vig_Parent	.144	1	.144	.488	.485	.001
	Vig_Gender * Vig_Parent	1.514	1	1.514	5.127	.024*	.013
	Error	113.699	385	.295			
	Total	3469.388	389				
	Corrected Total	118.916	388				
Mturk	Corrected Model	.140[b]	3	.047	.102	.959	.002
	Intercept	1663.490	1	1663.490	3644.865	<.001***	.948
	Vig_Gender	.073	1	.073	.160	.689	.001
	Vig_Parent	.051	1	.051	.111	.739	.001
	Vig_Gender * Vig_Parent	.022	1	.022	.048	.827	.000
	Error	90.366	198	.456			
	Total	1760.554	202				
	Corrected Total	90.505	201				
Student	Corrected Model	2.806[c]	3	.935	3.601	.014*	.052
	Intercept	1557.523	1	1557.523	5996.616	<.001***	.968
	Vig_Gender	2.223	1	2.223	8.558	.004**	.041
	Vig_Parent	.372	1	.372	1.430	.233	.007
	Vig_Gender * Vig_Parent	.207	1	.207	.795	.374	.004
	Error	51.427	198	.260			
	Total	1610.744	202				
	Corrected Total	54.234	201				

Note. *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$, ***$p < .001$.

a. R Squared = .044 (Adjusted R Squared = .036)

b. R Squared = .002 (Adjusted R Squared = -.014)

c. R Squared = .052 (Adjusted R Squared = .037)

Table 12

Two-Way ANOVA of gender and parental status on overall job performance by collector.

Collector	Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	*F*	Sig.	η_p^2
Nonstudent	Corrected Model	1.734[a]	3	.578	1.064	.364	.008
	Intercept	5268.267	1	5268.267	9696.496	<.001***	.962
	Vig_Gender	.772	1	.772	1.420	.234	.004
	Vig_Parent	.523	1	.523	.962	.327	.002
	Vig_Gender * Vig_Parent	.384	1	.384	.706	.401	.002
	Error	209.177	385	.543			
	Total	5489.493	389				
	Corrected Total	210.911	388				
Mturk	Corrected Model	.178[b]	3	.059	.168	.918	.003
	Intercept	3415.541	1	3415.541	9683.405	<.001***	.980
	Vig_Gender	.038	1	.038	.108	.743	.001
	Vig_Parent	.118	1	.118	.335	.564	.002
	Vig_Gender * Vig_Parent	.028	1	.028	.078	.780	.000
	Error	69.839	198	.353			
	Total	3498.928	202				
	Corrected Total	70.016	201				
Student	Corrected Model	3.003[c]	3	1.001	2.454	.064	.036
	Intercept	3199.479	1	3199.479	784.923	<.001***	.975
	Vig_Gender	.207	1	.207	.506	.478	.003
	Vig_Parent	.737	1	.737	1.806	.181	.009
	Vig_Gender * Vig_Parent	2.036	1	2.036	4.989	.027*	.025
	Error	80.783	198	.408			
	Total	3283.070	202				
	Corrected Total	83.787	201				

Note. *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$, ***$p < .001$.

a. R Squared = .008 (Adjusted R Squared = .000)

b. R Squared = .003 (Adjusted R Squared = -.013)

c. R Squared = .036 (Adjusted R Squared = .021)

Table 13

Two-Way ANOVA of gender and parental status on family involvement by collector.

Collector	Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	*F*	Sig.	η_p^2
Nonstudent	Corrected Model	6.865[a]	3	2.288	6.210	<.001***	.046
	Intercept	1304.298	1	1304.298	3539.414	<.001***	.902
	Vig_Gender	1.834	1	1.834	4.978	.026*	.013
	Vig_Parent	1.027	1	1.027	2.788	.096	.007
	Vig_Gender * Vig_Parent	3.833	1	3.833	10.402	.001**	.026
	Error	141.875	385	.369			
	Total	1460.188	389				
	Corrected Total	148.740	388				
Mturk	Corrected Model	1.475[b]	3	.492	1.349	.260	.020
	Intercept	527.101	1	527.101	1446.106	<.001***	.880
	Vig_Gender	.238	1	.238	.653	.420	.003
	Vig_Parent	1.291	1	1.291	3.541	.061	.018
	Vig_Gender * Vig_Parent	.009	1	.009	.024	.877	.000
	Error	72.170	198	.364			
	Total	602.188	202				
	Corrected Total	73.645	201				
Student	Corrected Model	1.586[c]	3	.529	1.795	.149	.026
	Intercept	729.243	1	729.243	2475.750	<.001***	.926
	Vig_Gender	.282	1	.282	.958	.329	.005
	Vig_Parent	1.234	1	1.234	4.189	.042*	.021
	Vig_Gender * Vig_Parent	.076	1	.076	.256	.613	.001
	Error	58.322	198	.295			
	Total	788.938	202				
	Corrected Total	59.907	201				

Note. *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$, ***$p < .001$.

a. R Squared = .046 (Adjusted R Squared = .039)

b. R Squared = .020 (Adjusted R Squared = .005)

c. R Squared = .026 (Adjusted R Squared = .012)

Table 14

Two-Way ANOVA of participant gender and vignette gender on competence.

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	*F*	Sig.	η_p^2
Corrected Model	11.452[a]	3	3.817	8.747	<.001***	.032
Intercept	9163.395	1	9163.395	20996.795	.000***	.964
Vig_Gender	3.603	1	3.603	8.256	.004	.010
Gender	1.073	1	1.073	2.458	.117	.003
Vig_Gender * Gender	2.462	1	2.462	5.642	.018**	.007
Error	343.025	786	.436			
Total	11517.667	790				
Corrected Total	354.477	789				

Note. *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$, ***$p < .001$.

a. R Squared = .032 (Adjusted R Squared = .029)

Table 15

Two-Way ANOVA of participant gender and vignette gender on likability.

Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	*F*	Sig.	η_p^2
Corrected Model	6.341[a]	3	2.114	6.384	<.001***	.024
Intercept	5416.327	1	5416.327	16357.659	.000***	.954
Vig_Gender	2.352	1	2.352	7.103	.008***	.009
Gender	.024	1	.024	.073	.786	.000
Vig_Gender * Gender	1.392	1	1.392	4.203	.041*	.005
Error	260.259	786	.331			
Total	6818.025	790				
Corrected Total	266.601	789				

Note. *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$, ***$p < .001$.

a. R Squared = .024 (Adjusted R Squared = .020)

FIGURES

Figure 1.

Two-way ANOVA of gender and parental status on family involvement.

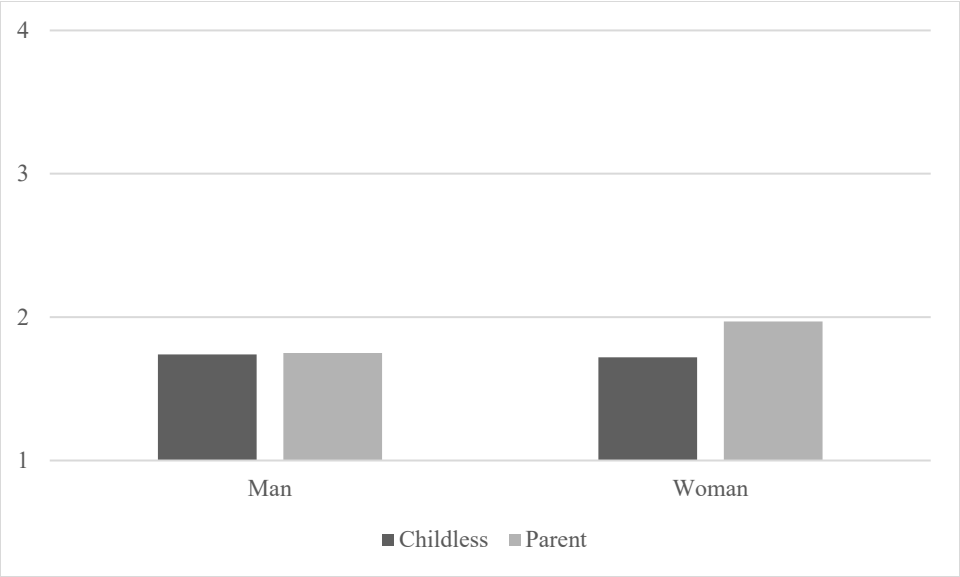


Figure 2

Interaction between gender and parental status on likability for non-student participants.

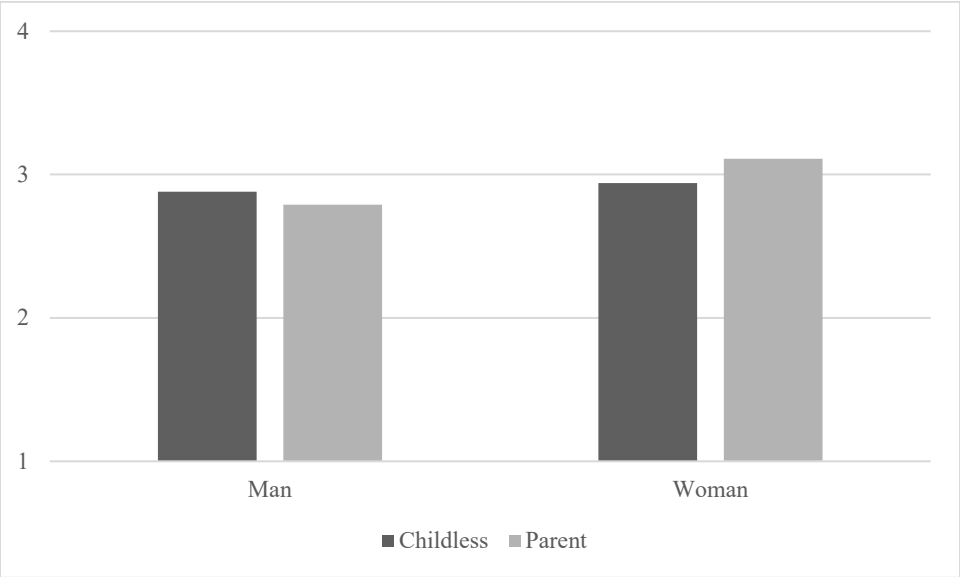


Figure 3

Interaction between gender and parental status on overall performance for student participants.

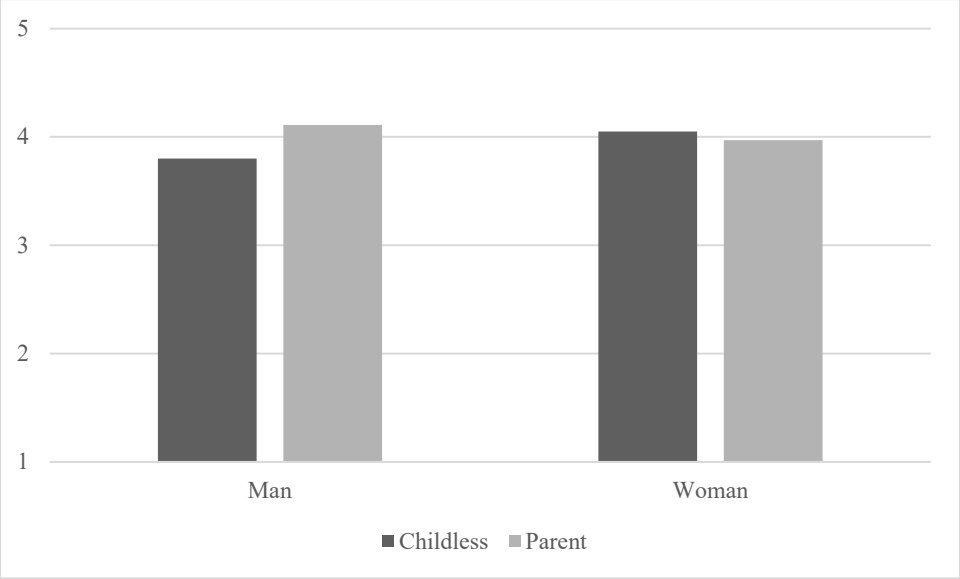


Figure 4

Interaction between gender and parental status on family involvement for non-student participants.

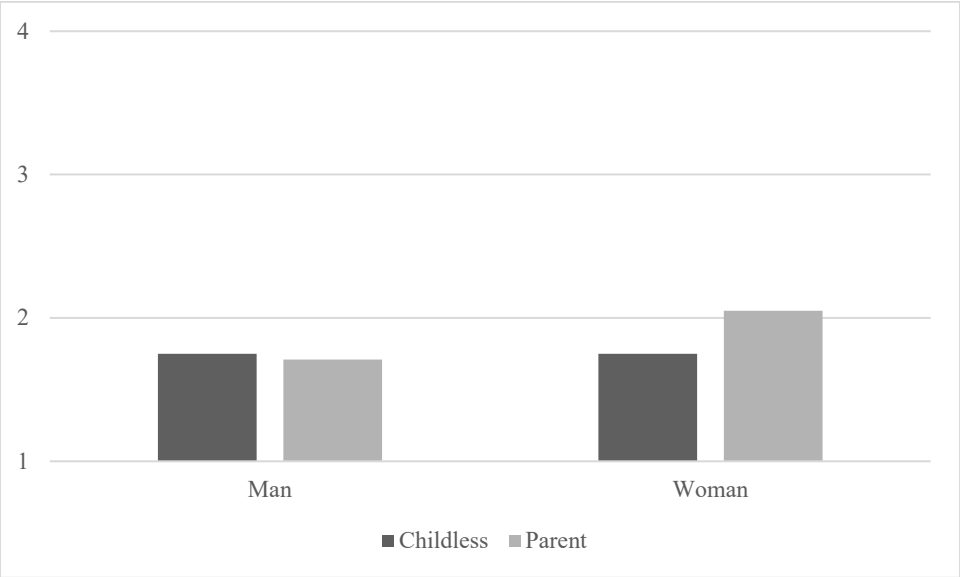


Figure 5

Interaction between participant gender and vignette gender on competence.

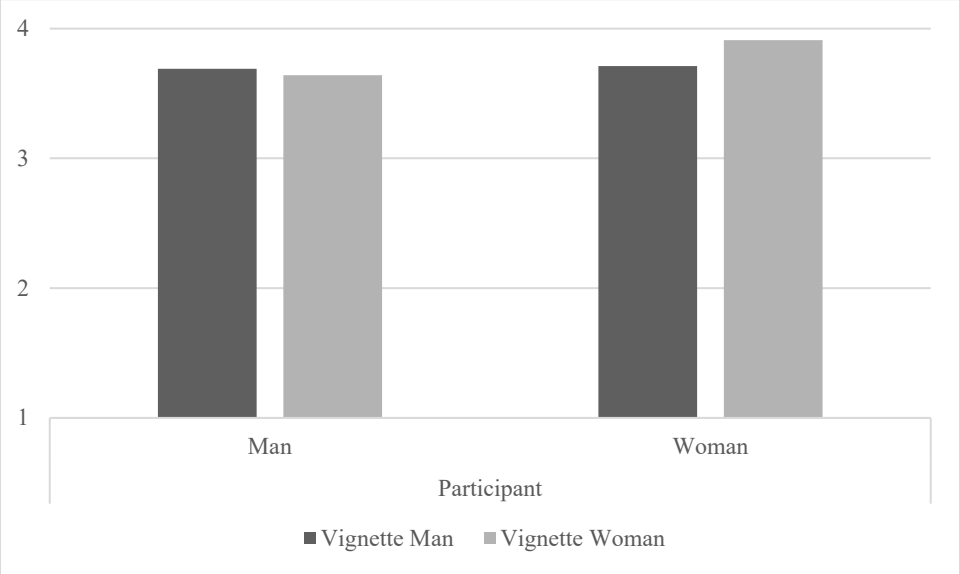
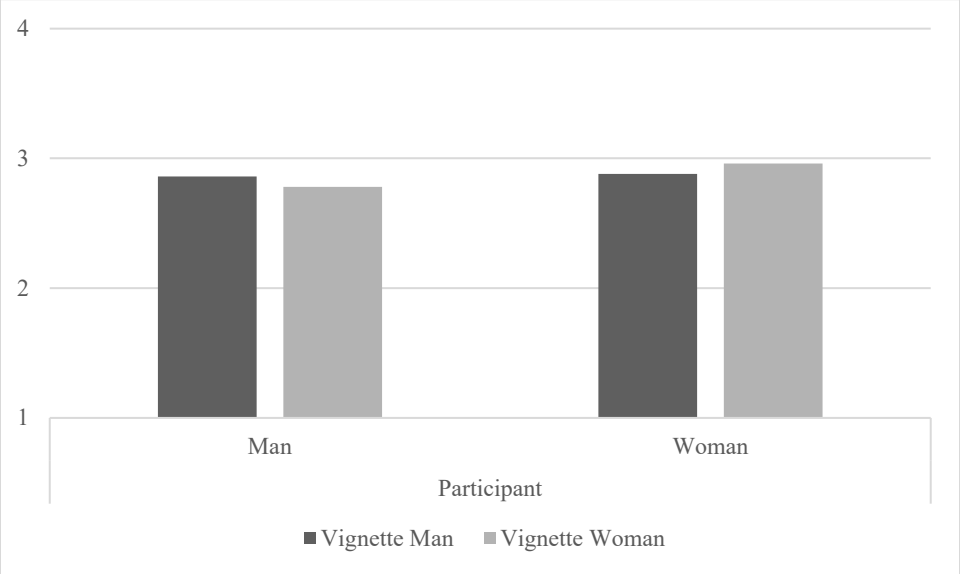


Figure 6

Interaction between participant gender and vignette gender on likability.



Appendix A

INFORMED CONSENT
for a Research Study entitled
Evaluations of Employees

You are invited to participate in a research study to understand perceptions of excessive work involvement. This study is being conducted by Angela May from the Department of Psychology at the University of Georgia.

Your participation will involve reading a description of an individual and then filling out a questionnaire asking you to evaluate them, as well as a questionnaire about yourself. After you provide consent to participate, you will be directed to the description page. Your total time commitment for this study is approximately 20-25 minutes. Your involvement in the study is completely voluntary, and you may choose not to participate or to stop at any time without penalty or loss of benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. We will also ask you if you wish to be contacted for follow-up studies, which you can choose yes or no. Separate consent will be asked of you only if you select "yes" and choose to participate in additional studies.

Your responses will be kept strictly confidential. As the survey is completed entirely online, your confidentiality will be maintained to the degree permitted by the technology used. Specifically, no guarantees can be made regarding the interception of data sent via the Internet by any third parties. The results of the research study may be published or presented at conferences, but your name or any identifying information will not be used. Researchers will not release identifiable results of the study to anyone other than individuals working on the project without your written consent unless required by law.

The findings from this project may provide information on furthering our understanding of how workaholism impacts perceptions of the workaholic. There are no known risks or discomforts associated with this research. In exchange for your time, you may earn extra credit for your participation. If you do not wish to participate, you will have the opportunity to complete a non-research alternative to your participation—equivalent in effort or duration—to earn the credit.

If you have any questions about this research project, please contact Angela May by phone at (623) 208-1003 or send an e-mail to aabeiler@uga.edu. Questions or concerns about your rights as a research participant should be directed to The Chairperson, University of Georgia Institutional Review Board; telephone (706) 542-3199; email address irb@uga.edu.

HAVING READ THE INFORMATION PROVIDED, YOU MUST DECIDE WHETHER OR NOT YOU WISH TO PARTICIPATE IN THIS RESEARCH STUDY.

If you decide to participate, please click on the "I consent" button.

Appendix B

Vignette

[Brian/Beth] is a 35-year-old [man/woman]. [S/he] has been married to [his wife Beth/her husband Brian] for 10 years. They [do not have any/have two] children. [Brian/Beth] is employed in a mid-level corporate position. [Spouse name] does not work. [Brian/Beth] works extremely long hours, often getting in early and leaving late, even though [s/he] is not required to.

When not at work, [s/he] constantly thinks about their job even when trying to focus on other tasks and feels internal pressure to compulsively check work emails or write lists related to [his/her] work. When on vacation with [Spouse name/Spouse name and children] without phone service, [Brian/Beth] feels guilty and stressed, and finds [him/herself] focusing on all the things they want to accomplish when they get back. [S/he] thinks about work both day and night, and often works on holidays when no one else is in the office. [Brian/Beth] has missed multiple events with [Spouse name/Spouse name and children] due to work, even when they were not required to.

CONDITIONS TO BE RANDOMLY ASSIGNED:

1. **Man/no children/single-earner -**
2. **Man/children/single-earner -**
3. **Man/no children/dual-earner -**
4. **Man/children/dual-earner -**
5. **Woman/no children/single-earner -**
6. **Woman/children/single-earner-**
7. **Woman/no children/dual-earner**
8. **Woman/children/dual-earner -**

Note. Workaholism components are highlighted in gray.

Appendix C

Warmth and Competence Stereotype Content (Fiske et al., 2002)

Directions: On a scale of 1-5, with 1 being strongly disagree and 5 strongly agree, how _____ is the individual you read about?

Competence Items:	Warmth Items:
1 ____ Competent*	7 ____ Friendly
2 ____ Confident*	8 ____ Well-intentioned
3 ____ Capable	9 ____ Trustworthy
4 ____ Efficient	10 ___ Warm*
5 ____ Intelligent	11 ___ Good natured
6 ____ Skillful	12 ___ Sincere*

Note. * Indicates item included in short-form version.

Appendix D

Reyson Likability Scale (Reyson, 2005)

Directions: Indicate how strongly you agree with each statement, ranging from 1 (Very Strongly Disagree) to 7 (Very Strongly Agree)

1 ____ This person is friendly.

2 ____ This person is likable.

3 ____ This person is warm.

4 ____ This person is approachable.

5 ____ I would ask this person for advice.

6 ____ I would like this person as a coworker.

7 ____ I would like this person as a roommate.

8 ____ I would like to be friends with this person.

9 ____ This person is physically attractive.

10 ___ This person is similar to me.

11 ___ This person is knowledgeable.

Appendix E

Job Involvement and Family Involvement (Frone & Rice, 1987)

Directions: Identify how strongly you agree that each statement describes the person you read about, ranging from 1 (Strongly Disagree) to 5 (Strongly Agree).

Job Involvement Items

1 ____ The most important things that happen to this person involve their job.

2 ____ Most of this person's interests are centered around their job.

3 ____ This person is very much involved in their job.

4 ____ To this person, their job is only a small part of who they are. (R)

Family Involvement:

1 ____ The most important things that happen to this person involve their family.

2 ____ Most of this person's interests are centered around their family.

3 ____ This person is very much involved in their family.

4 ____ To this person, their family is only a small part of who they are. (R)

Note. (R) indicates reverse scoring.

Appendix F

Revised Self-Absorption Scale (McKenzie & Hoyle, 2008)

Directions: Please indicate to what degree the following statements describe the individual you read about ranging from 1 (not at all like them) to 5 (very much like them).

1 ____ This person thinks about themselves more than anything else.

2 ____ When this person tries to think of something other than themselves, they cannot.

3 ____ When this person has to perform a task, they do not do it as well as they should because their concentration is interrupted with thoughts of themselves instead of the task.

4 ____ This person's mind never focuses on things other than themselves for very long.

5 ____ This person cannot stop their head from thinking thoughts about themselves.

6 ____ Sometimes this person is so deep in thought about their life they are not aware of their surroundings.

7 ____ This person does not spend long amounts of time thinking about themselves. (R)

8 ____ When this person thinks about their life, they keep thinking about it so long they cannot turn their attention to tasks that need to be done.

Note. (R) indicates reverse scoring.

Appendix G

Role-Based Performance Scale, Employee Version (Welbourne et al., 1998)

Directions: Imagine you are the manager for the individual you read about. How would you rate them on the following work characteristics, ranging from 1 "needs much improvement" to 5 "excellent"

Job

1 ____ Quantity of work output

2 ____ Quality of work output

3 ____ Accuracy of work

4 ____ Customer service provided

Career

5____ Obtaining personal career goals

6 ____ Developing skills needed for their future career

7 ____ Making progress in his/her career

8 ____ Seeking out career opportunities

Innovator

9 ____ Coming up with new ideas

10 ___ Working to implement new ideas

11 ___ Finding improved ways to do things

12 ___ Creating better processes and routines

Team

13___ Working as part of a team or work group

14 ___ Seeking out information from others in their work group

15 ___ Making sure their work group succeeds

16 ___ Responding to the needs of others in their work group

Organization

17 ___ Doing things that help others when it is not part of their job

18 ___ Working for the overall good of the company

19 ___ Doing things to promote the company

20 ___ Helping so that the company is a good place to be

Appendix H

Demographics

1. What is your gender?

    1 = Man
    2 = Woman
    3 = Non-binary
    4 = Prefer not to disclose

2. What is your age?

3. Please specify your ethnicity.

    1 = White
    2 = Hispanic or Latino
    3 = Black or African American
    4 = Native American or American Indian
    5 = Asian / Pacific Islander
    6 = Other

4. What is your highest level of education?

    1 = Less than high school
    2 = High school/GED
    3 = Some college
    4 = 2-year college degree (associates)
    5 = 4-year college degree (B.A., B.S.)
    6 = Master's degree
    7 = Doctoral degree
    8 = Professional degree (M.D., J.D.)

5. Do you work?

        1 = yes, full-time (40 or more hours per week on average)
        2 = yes, part-time (less than 40 hours per week on average)
        3 = no

    5a. How many hours per week do you typically work?

    5b. What industry do you work in?

5. Are you married?

1 = yes
2 = no

5a. What is your spouse's gender? (If applicable)
1 = Man
2 = Woman
3 = Non-binary
4 = Prefer not to disclose

5b. Does your spouse work?

1 = yes, full-time (40 or more hours per week on average)
2 = yes, part-time (less than 40 hours per week on average)
3 = no

5c. What industry does your spouse work in?

5d. How long have you been married?

6. Are you employed?

5b. How many hours per week do you work?
5c. What is your occupation (open-ended)?

7. What is your annual **household** salary?

1 = Less than $10,000
2 = $10,000 to $19,000
4 = $20,000 to $29,999
5 = $30,000 to $39,999
6 = $40,000 to $49,999
7 = $50,000 to $59,999
8 = $60,000 to $69,999
9 = $70,000 to $79,999
10 = $80,000 to $89,999
11 = $90,000 to $99,999
12 = $100,000 to $149,999
13 = $150,000 or more

8. Do you have children?

1 = Yes
2 = No

8b. If yes, how old? (One option at a time)

Appendix I

Manipulation Check

Please answer the following questions about the individual you just read about:

The person I read about was a: [man/woman]

The person I read about: [had children/did not have children]

The person I read about: [had a spouse that worked/had a spouse that did not work]