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„Gender stereotype threat and ego depletion
in the work context:
A diary study examining subjective job performance“

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Introduction

Stereotype threat has long been a well-researched topic in all disciplines of modern sociology and psychology. First defined as a situational predicament in which an individual is in fear of being judged primarily on the basis of their belonging to a certain group rather than on individual characteristics or personal merit (Steele & Aronson, 1995), stereotype threat can target all sociocultural groups. When confronted with negative beliefs about one's in-group, the social group one pertains to, individuals tend to conform to those negative stereotypes, i.e. they perform worse, behave differently, and last but not least take over those stereotypes as being accurate for them personally.

Particularly gender-related stereotypes have been rocking the corporate world which is known to enormously over-represent men in managerial and other leadership positions. This is due to the fact that masculinity is strongly associated with the exact same qualities that seem so invaluable in a leader: decisiveness, drive, ambition and strength, to mention only a few. Masculinity therefore equals leadership, at least according to common societal standards. Left undeliberated, these beliefs lead to female employees facing a number of crushing stereotypes. Being considered communal, sensitive and giving, women often face the double issue of having to work twice as hard to get to the same point as male employees, and then unavoidably facing harsh criticism for not following social protocol and conforming to gender etiquette. In order to deal with this strain and the negative emotions associated with it, the targets of stereotype threat have to self-regulate. The heightened demands on their self-control capacity is yet another psychological burden on female employees in a work and organizational context where gender stereotyping is common practice.

It is necessary to understand to what degree fighting negative gender stereotypes actually depletes our self-control capacity since it is a necessary resource for dealing with other job-related stressors and performing well at one's job. Additionally, it serves a very practical function to examine what possible buffers might exist that inhibit the incapacitating effects that gender stereotypes have on women. One such buffering variable might be the degree to which a person prescribes to the norms and beliefs society has about their gender in-group. This so-called gender role orientation has been shown to have highly negative effects on women in a variety of ways, e.g. a high risk of suffering from physical and mental health impairments (e.g. Bassoff & Glass, 1982; Schulz & Beach, 1999). Furthermore, self-efficacy beliefs are proven to buffer against a huge array of stressors, enhancing a person's endurance,

optimism and objectively measureable outcomes in the face of a challenging situation (e.g. Bandura, 1977).

While there is a huge body of research confirming the crippling effects that gender stereotype threat has on test performances in girls and women of any age and academic background, to this date there is no research looking at the connection of the amount of gender stereotype threat an individual is subjected to and their job performance. This paper seeks to close this gap and shine an additional light on the interaction between gender stereotype threat and ego depletion.

I also aim to enhance the current literature in the following ways: While self-efficacy has been shown to be a good predictor of academic outcome (Bandura, 1993) by mediating the effect of gender in certain areas (Pajares & Miller, 1994), the potentially moderating effect of self-efficacy beliefs on ego depletion has not yet been tested. Likewise, gender role orientation is associated with the depletion of internal resources and might therefore moderate the connection between gender stereotype threat and ego depletion.

In my study, I apply a longitudinal design with seven measurement points assessing subjective job performance, ego depletion, and gender stereotype threat across the span of an entire working week. Furthermore, the moderating effects of gender role orientation and self-efficacy are being looked at. The aim of this thesis is to address unresolved issues and deduce possible implications for practitioners in the work and organizational context. Ideally, the results of my research should allow for evidence-based interventions to educate about gender stereotype threat and build a more equal playing field for all sexes and genders in the corporate world. This may not only significantly improve the working atmosphere in regards to prejudice and stereotyping, but also enhance employee satisfaction, effort and performance.

Theoretical background

As highlighted above, stereotype threat is the focus of a long body of research across all fields of psychology. Research has shown that especially a person's gender and ethnicity are prone to eliciting stereotype threat. This may be due to these two characteristics being most identifiable when looking at a person we don't know. Instead of seeing them as a complete stranger, their gender and race along with the characteristics we associate with said categories allow us to at least know something about them. But also categories like age, religious

affiliation and sexual orientation are predisposed to quick and undifferentiated judgment, and therefore stereotype threat.

While labels for and classifications of others serve an important role as short-cuts and heuristics in every-day-life that help us position ourselves and feel more at ease in interactions with people that are different from us, stereotypes also have a huge impact on how each person sees herself or himself in social situations. Stereotype threat can have a positive influence on the individual's performance and well-being when the beliefs associated with their in-group are positive, e.g. the stereotype that Asians are good at math. However, the effects of stereotypes can also be highly detrimental to an individual when they are afraid negative beliefs about their in-group might pertain to them, e.g. the stereotype that women are bad at math.

Several theories come into play when talking about the construct of stereotype threat. For one, Self-Categorization Theory (Turner & Oakes, 1989) suggests that a person is not only an individual but also a group member. Categorizing themselves as a member of a particular group is important to their understanding of self. Similarly, Social Identity Theory by Turner and Tajfel (1979) says that an individual's in-group is an important source of pride and self-esteem. In order to increase their self-image, one can enhance the status of their in-group (Turner & Tajfel, 1979). In addition to that, Steele's Self-Affirmation Theory (1988) plays an important role in understanding an individual's self-worth. People have a fundamental motivation to maintain self-integrity, which is a perception of themselves as good, virtuous, and able to predict and control important outcomes (Steele, 1988). When that perception of the self is threatened, they need to work to maintain self-integrity (Steele, 1988). Representing oneself in the context of a social group therefore comes at quite an energetic cost whenever one's integrity might be questioned. Current research suggests that is the case, not only in the presence of blatant but also moderately explicit or even subtle cues of gender stereotype threat, and that they all have significant impact on women's performances (Nguyen & Ryan, 2008). This is famously shown in the many social psychological experiments in which the mere selection of a box labeled either "M" or "F" before completing a mathematical exam led to strong decrements in female math performance. If the gender box was selected after the exam, no gender differences would show. And there are many other ways of making gender salient in everyday life: both genders, but especially women are

constantly reminded by the media, commercials, billboards and their peers of how they are supposed to look, behave and feel.

Combining these important constructs, we can see that an individual's self-worth can not only be hurt by attacking them directly but also by stereotyping the sociocultural group they belong to and identify with. It can be presumed that identification with an in-group gets stronger the more prevalent the grouping characteristic is, i.e. belongingness to one of two gender categories is likely to feel much more important than belonging to a certain sports club of which exist many thousands if not millions in this world.

It has been shown that individuals under gender stereotype threat experience high self-control demands. Targets try to actively monitor their performance and suppress negative thoughts and emotions in the service of self-regulation (e.g. Schmader, Johns, & Forbes, 2008). Also, they make spontaneous attempts to control their expression of anxiety (Johns, Inzlicht, & Schmader, 2008). Such emotion regulation depletes executive resources (Johns et al., 2008). Hence, the resources used for these processes are no longer available for important tasks and issues at hand.

With my model (see Figure 1), I integrate theories from the field of gender stereotype threat and job performance research to examine whether gender stereotype threat is negatively associated with job performance. Additionally, I examine the relationship between gender stereotype threat and job performance through a second pathway, namely ego depletion. Furthermore, the influence of two moderating variables (self-efficacy and gender role orientation) on the interaction of gender stereotype threat and ego depletion is looked at.

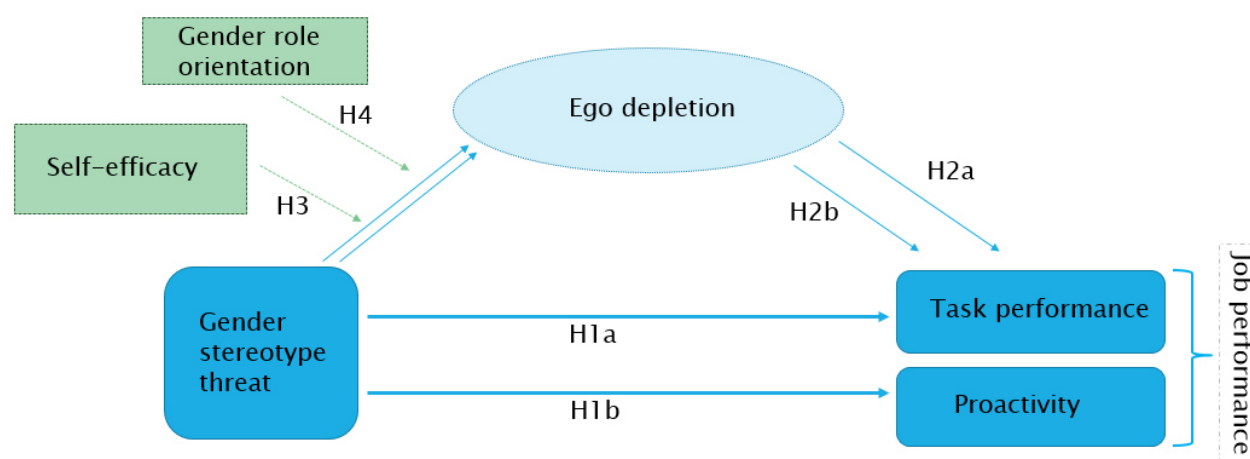


Figure 1. Theoretical model showing the mediating and moderating effects between gender stereotype threat and subjective job performance defined as task performance and proactivity.

The association between gender stereotype threat and job performance

Our beliefs about what we can or should accomplish are largely shaped by societal expectations. Being indoctrinated with society's low beliefs about the abilities of your gender group, or rather lack thereof, has crippling consequences that have been shown to span across a wide area of situations in previous psychological research. So far, research has primarily focused on the effects of gender stereotype threat on test performance in typically male domains, such as math and science. It has been shown that subtle, moderately explicit and blatant cues of gender stereotype threat all lead to performance decrements in women (Nguyen & Ryan, 2008). It impairs test performance in women in a variety of cognitive areas (e.g. Schmader et al., 2008; Steele, 1997), but especially in math, a subject area in which gender stereotypes furthermore improve men's performance in comparison to non-stereotype conditions (e.g. Ambady, Shih, Kim, & Pittinsky, 2001; Nguyen & Ryan, 2008; Schmader, 2002). This difference is already visible in children's academic performance, starting at as young as age five (Ambady et al., 2001), and is no surprise given the fact that mothers already make huge differences in how they treat their infants and toddlers. They tend to generally overestimate the crawling abilities of their baby boys while underestimating their baby girls (Mondschein, Adolph, & Tamis-LeMonda, 2000). Similarly, the idea that girls need more help and attention (a tendency that emphasizes weakness) but boys do well on their own (a clear sign of strength) is formed at an infant age when mothers significantly more often comfort and help their baby girls but let their infant boys play and figure things out on their own (Clearfield & Nelson, 2006). While the early confrontation with gender stereotypes may

happen in the cradle for many babies, it does not stop there. Teachers have been shown to encourage male students to contribute their ideas and opinions by interacting with them and asking them questions much more frequently than girls (e.g. Jones & Dindia, 2004). Also, when boys call out, they are generally listened to. Girls, on the other hand, are much more likely to be scolded for calling out and reminded that they need to stick to the rules and only speak when called upon (Beaman, Wheldall, & Kemp, 2006; Jones & Dindia, 2004).

Marketing strategists have long jumped on the stereotype wagon and further its counterproductive message. While boys' clothes generally have affirmative lettering like "Hero" or "Strong" on them, girls' shirts say "I'm too pretty to do math" or "I'm too pretty to do homework so my brother has to do it for me" (Sandberg, 2013). In 2011, an American company marketed baby jumpers that were identical except for their lettering: male toddlers were supposed to be dressed in onesies that read "Smart like dad"; female toddlers' onesie read "Pretty like mommy" (Gray, 2011). Keep in mind that these are babies and young children but even though they still have their entire personality, interests, values and talents to explore and develop, the idea that smart is in direct opposition to pretty, and that girls are generally pretty, is indoctrinated into their young minds from day one.

It does therefore not surprise that making their gender salient leads to less contributions of female board members at board meetings (Nielsen & Huse, 2010) and heightens women's loss aversion (Carr & Steele, 2010). Likewise, it has been shown that objective negotiation outcomes are significantly higher for men than for women in gender-relevant experimental conditions compared to gender-neutral conditions (e.g. Stuhlmacher & Walters, 1999; Kray, Thompson, & Galinsky, 2001). This can be explained by the field of negotiation always having been viewed as a primarily and typically male field (e.g. Kray & Thompson, 2005). Success in negotiations is associated with stereotypically male traits (e.g. assertiveness, dominance, rationality), and less with stereotypically female character traits (e.g. submission, niceness, interdependence, sensitivity). As a consequence of this idea, even when both genders exhibit the same behavior and negotiate for higher pay, men confirm to the stereotype of being decisive and driven whereas women, who are supposed to be sensitive and communal, go against societal expectations and thus automatically evoke a feeling of something not being right. Women are therefore penalized more than men when attempting to negotiate, e.g. for a higher salary, and are evaluated as less nice and more demanding (Bowles, Babcock, & Lai, 2007). Consequently they are hired less frequently as their female

counterparts that do not try to negotiate (Bowles et al., 2007). And whether consciously or subconsciously – women know this. Babcock and Laschever (2009) reported that out of graduating master students negotiating their first jobs, fifty-seven percent of male students but only seven percent of female students tried negotiating for higher pay.

The impostor phenomenon is another blazing example of every-day impairments brought about by gender stereotypes that especially targets high achieving, productive and accomplished women in the academic and business world. It describes the intense, subjective feeling that one is not good enough and does not really deserve the praise she gets for her work (Harvey, 1982). Although people from all walks of life and both genders are susceptible to the impostor phenomenon, high achieving women are most prone to feeling fraudulent and phony when being praised for their achievements (Clance & Imes, 1978). The picture of a successful, capable person, especially in a field that merits getting praise from the outside (as opposed to being a highly capable housewife), simply does not go along with the ideas we all have about “what it means to be female”. Thus, women suffering from the impostor phenomenon take to feeling like it is only a matter of time until the world will find out what they really are – complete frauds. Men on the other hand are much more immune to the impostor phenomenon because the idea of a successful, high achieving man in academics or the corporate sector does not surprise or offend. It is simply the way the world is – according to gender stereotypes.

A person’s job is considered a valuable source of self-esteem and fulfillment. Coping with the daily job demands and performing well at one’s task makes one feel needed and justifies one’s existence in this society. The concept of performance is a multidimensional one (Campbell, McCloy, Oppler, & Sager, 1993). It can be split into task performance and contextual performance. The first, task performance, describes behaviors that are formally and officially recognized as the actual requirements of a given job or position (Williams & Anderson, 1991). For example, a teacher would perform the tasks of her job if she prepared for class, were present in class and used her class time formally lecturing, instructing or otherwise teaching her students. Contextual performance, however, is made up of additional behaviors that don’t directly contribute to the fulfillment of one’s job description, but still benefit the organization one works for more or less indirectly (Frese & Fay, 2001). A big aspect of contextual performance is proactivity (Frese & Fay, 2001) which is comprised of activities that are particularly future oriented (Fritz & Sonnentag, 2005). Delving even more deeply into

how Sonnentag (2003) defines what it means to be future oriented, we understand proactive behavior as showing personal initiative, or the “active approach going beyond what is required in a job” (Frese, Kring, Soose, & Zempel, 1996, p. 38), and pursuit of learning. The latter is defined as “seeking learning opportunities with the goal of higher competence and mastery of new situations” (VandeWalle, 1997). As an example, a sales employee that spends her weekend at a sales seminar in order to deepen her abilities and further her skills is not directly fulfilling her job task, i.e. selling a product or service, but she is showing both personal initiative and pursuit of learning, therefore being a proactive employee that supports her organization’s future development and success.

As mentioned above, it is known that subjecting a person to gender stereotypes will lead to impairments in a range of cognitive functions and subject areas in women, while benefitting men. So far, the effect of gender stereotype threat on job performance has not been tested – a gap that seeks to be closed by the present research. Given the findings described above, I hypothesize the following:

Hypothesis 1a: Increased gender stereotype threat will be positively associated with decreased task performance in women, and increased task performance in men.

Hypothesis 1b: Increased gender stereotype threat will be positively associated with decreased proactivity in women, and increased proactivity in men.

The role of ego depletion

According to the self-control strength model (Muraven, Tice, & Baumeister, 1998), self-control is the mental effort individuals use to regulate their own behavior, and it exists in a limited capacity. This limited executive resource gets depleted through acts that require self-control. When said acts of self-control lead to short-term impairments of subsequent self-control, even on completely unrelated tasks, this state is called ego-depletion (Muraven et al., 1998). There are several well-known self-control demands that deplete resources: coping with stress, regulating negative affect, and resisting temptations (Muraven & Baumeister, 2000). Since gender stereotypes are known to lead to constant checking of one’s performance, as well as the suppression of negative emotions in order to self-regulate and maintain self-integrity (Johns, Inzlicht, & Schmader, 2008), a state of ego depletion is therefore very likely. Ego

depletion is also linked to physical tiredness (Baumeister, Vohs, & Tice, 2007), and has been shown to mediate the effect of gender stereotype threat on heightened loss aversion in women (Carr & Steele, 2010).

Clearly, focusing on work, fulfilling one's daily tasks and going beyond that in showing interest in the organization's future and one's personal development, requires high self-control. Self-control is the deciding factor between automatic and controlled processes that allows an individual to deliberately change the way they initially think, feel or behave in any given (stressful) situation and instead change their behavior into one that is more goal-oriented and socially acceptable (Muraven & Baumeister, 2000). For example, someone is required to engage in self-control at work when there is a need to focus on a complex task without being distracted by unimportant and task-irrelevant outside stimuli. Self-control demands include controlling one's impulses (inhibiting spontaneous emotional or impulsive reactions), resisting distractions (disregarding unimportant stimuli that would only interfere with the successful completion of work assignments) and overcoming inner resistance (overriding motivational deficits), and have been found to be effortful and energy-draining (Schmidt & Diestel, 2015).

In other words, getting your daily tasks done and being proactive feeds off the same limited resource that research tells us gets depleted by having to face gender stereotypes. As the conundrum of gender stereotype threat at work gets greater and requires more of our focus, attention and emotion regulation, a lot of our self-control resources will flow into handling this directly present threat at the cost of future long-term oriented goals. When there isn't enough of that resource available, job performance will therefore inevitably suffer.

Therefore, I propose the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 2a: Ego depletion will (partially) mediate the effect of gender stereotype threat on task performance, such that individuals with high ego depletion experience less (satisfactory) task performance.

Hypothesis 2b: Ego depletion will (partially) mediate the effect of gender stereotype threat on proactivity, such that individuals with high ego depletion experience less (satisfactory) proactivity.

Self-efficacy as an individual moderator

Self-efficacy theory (Bandura, 1977) tells us that a person's belief about her/his ability to successfully perform a given task can go one of two ways: individuals with low self-efficacy expectations, i.e. those that do not think they will be successful at a particular endeavor, will choose to avoid a task or behavior, while people with strong self-efficacy expectations, i.e. people that believe they will perform well and be able to sort through potential issues, will approach a task. When an individual experiences that they can master a subjectively difficult situation or problem, their self-efficacy expectation will get enhanced, while contrary experiences will lead to lower expectations in one's abilities (Bandura, 1977).

A person's perceived self-efficacy also tells us how much effort will be made for any given problem and how long these efforts will be kept up in the face of obstacles (Bandura, 1977). An individual with a strong sense of self-efficacy will be much more willing to exert more effort for a longer amount of time, as they are more certain of a positive pay-off.

Self-efficacy beliefs are strongly associated with other self beliefs and are a good predictor of academic outcome (Bandura, 1993). According to Bandura (1993), there are four pathways through which perceived self-efficacy influences academic performance that might also be relevant when looking at job performance: cognitive, motivational, affective and selection processes all get altered by our beliefs of how successful we will be at any given task.

Self-efficacy also serves as a strong predictor for successful problem solving in math (Pajares, 1996) and positive coping strategies (Larson, Piersel, Imao, & Allen, 1990). Additionally, it has been shown that self-efficacy mediates the effect of gender on self-concept and problem solving in math (Pajares & Miller, 1994). Men's higher math performance was vastly correlated with their higher self-efficacy beliefs (Pajares & Miller, 1994). Seeing that math is a subject that is highly stigmatized according to a person's gender, it can be deduced that self-efficacy serves as a mediator not only for gender, but also for gender stereotype threat.

While previous studies on self-efficacy have always treated it as a mediator for the above mentioned variables, I would like to take a closer look at its potential moderating qualities. Given that there is strong evidence to show that our ideas of how effective we are, exert a strong influence on our objective performance in a task or situation, and the strong connection between ego depletion and performance, I have reason to believe that self-efficacy might moderate gender stereotype threat and ego depletion.

Hence, the following is hypothesized:

Hypothesis 3: Self-efficacy will moderate the relationship between gender stereotype threat and ego depletion, such that individuals with high self-efficacy expectations experience less ego depletion.

The influence of gender role orientation

Gender is considered to be one of the first social categories a child learns about and consequently uses to construct an understanding of who they are in the world and in relation to the people surrounding them (Steffens & Viladot, 2015). In contrast to a person's "sex" that is purely biological and as such only describes the physiology of someone who is in most cases either male or female, an individual's gender is socially constructed. These differentiated social responsibilities and expectations for people of different sexes are what we commonly understand under the term "gender roles".

Traditionally, gender roles are tightly linked to the biological sex, although not by any means biologically determined. According to biosocial constructionist theory (Eagly & Wood, 2013), gender roles are often maintained through the interaction of social expectations and biological processes. Hence, what we understand as "masculinity" refers to traditionally approved conduct for men, whereas "femininity" describes behavioral expectations for women (Bem, 1981).

Across the majority of cultures all around the globe, gender roles serve as important labels that tell us what is expected of us and what we can expect of others. As such, they function as heuristics that can often make life easier to understand and rules simpler to follow. However, the downside of any clearly structured set of rules is that there is little room for the individual, independent of such categories, to develop and define for themselves how they would like to be seen, let alone treated. It has been shown that from an early age on, children have knowledge about gender stereotypes (e.g. Steffens & Viladot, 2015; Ambady et al., 2001) and that these early internalized concepts strongly influence the idea of self while growing up.

A growing body of research has shown that the extent to which a person subscribes to the role traditionally affixed to her or his gender, has an impact on how strongly they will be affected by the respective stereotypes (Keller & Molix, 2008; Kiefer & Sekaquaptewa, 2007). These effects might be even more pronounced for women (Schmader, 2002). Also, it has been

assumed that heterosexual individuals tend to generally conform more to traditional gender roles than lesbians or gay men (Kachel, Steffens, & Niedlich, 2016). It is therefore important to consider a person's gender role orientation whenever one tries to assess the extent to which they suffer from gender stereotypes.

Socio-cognitive gender differences based on gender roles and traits account for most of the female's disadvantages when it comes to cognitively appraising and coping with stress. For example, the traditional role as the caregiver of the family leaves women at a high risk to suffer from both physical and mental health issues, a phenomenon called the caregiver health effect (Schulz & Beach, 1999). At the same time though, looking at women that work outside the house compared to those who don't – and thus not fully comply with their traditional role of a homemaker – it becomes evident that they feel less stressed and face less health problems (e.g. Rosenfield, 1980; Repetti, Matthews, & Waldron, 1989). The same holds true when examining high-status and leadership roles: the traditional female gender role places a woman in a nurturing, supporting, caring position, while the men around her dominate, decide and control. It is such implicit and explicit gender role expectations that place men at the very top of the working pyramid and make it hard for women trying to combat these social constructs to rise to an equal position. However, high-status and in-control individuals experience less stress and if they do so, can employ more effective coping strategies (Bakker & Demerouti, 2007) which leaves females at a grave disadvantage. In the same way that an individual's status and scope of control predicts their way of coping with stress, gender role traits are also related to coping strategies. While people that score high on masculinity scales tend to choose active, problem-focused coping that is related to better health outcomes (Folkman, Lazarus, Dunkel-Schetter, DeLongis, & Gruen, 1986), more feminine individuals tend to choose the emotion-focused way of coping which is characterized by avoidance or disengagement, and worse health outcomes (Folkman et al., 1986). People identifying very highly with feminine gender roles thus find themselves at a double shortcoming: on one hand they are bound to lesser positions that allow for little control, on the other hand they are also prone to choose coping mechanisms that further limit their scope of self-governance, make them passive and have a negative effect on their mental and physical health. This explains why across all ages and countries, women suffer from mental and physical diseases at much higher rates than men do (Seedat et al., 2009), and why the stressors affecting women's lives are seen as much more threatening than stressors affecting the average male (Lazarus & Folkman,

1984). Women and men working under the same conditions, however, experience the same level of stress and all cope effectively.

To sum up, masculinity and masculine gender role orientation is highly associated with better mental health (Bassoff & Glass, 1982) than is femininity and feminine gender role orientation. This finding is highly relevant when looking at ego depletion: more mental strain may mean less available resources for acts of self-control.

Based on these empirical and theoretical findings I further hypothesize:

Hypothesis 4: Gender role orientation will moderate the relationship between gender stereotype threat and ego depletion, such that individuals that highly identify with their respective gender roles will experience more ego depletion in the case of women, and less ego depletion in the case of men.

Method

To test these hypotheses, a multi-wave online diary study with seven measurement points was conducted online. This method was chosen mostly because the concept of ego depletion is only measurable in longitudinal designs as it is said to change over the course of time. In addition, a diary survey has other big advantages: On one hand, it is the most economical way of data collection. This is true for both the researcher and the participants, as the assembling and designing, as well as the filling-in of an online survey are quick and free of financial expenses. On the other hand, inquiring private information often requires anonymous data collection which was thus easily achieved. By collecting data over the course of seven consecutive days it could be assured that the participants' entire work week as well as their days off were covered, therefore including potential variation throughout the week in the measured variables. A survey duration of seven days is often chosen when conducting diary studies on work-related topics (e.g. Sonnentag & Binnewies, 2013; Van Hooff, Geurts, Kompier, & Taris, 2007). Moreover, all participants received a daily reminder but they could decide freely when to complete the online questionnaire. It was decided that self-paced survey completion would be used since participants' daily routines and working times differed widely. The choice of a diary study with seven measurement points was therefore, after careful evaluation, considered to provide the highest possible methodological quality.

Participants and sample procedure

The sample of this study ($n=77$) was entirely recruited through private contacts, internet portals, or requests to organizations. The study was introduced as an investigation on work and work satisfaction. Participation was solicited by highlighting the importance of the research area and by assuring anonymity and confidentiality throughout the process. A thorough debriefing about the actual research topic took place after data collection was completed. Initially, 96 women and men followed the invitation to participate in a ten-day diary study which required them to fill in a three-minute online questionnaire once a day. This sample of at least part-time working (20 hours per week) individuals included employed, freelancing, and self-employed people. They received no monetary compensation for their participation.

Drop-out rates during longitudinal research range from 50% to 70% on average (Ponocny, 2016). A return rate of 60% or more is generally considered very high (Ponocny, 2016). By retrospectively reducing the amount of measuring time points from ten to seven days, the response rate further increased from 69.1% to 88.3%. During data analysis, two participants were excluded because of missing data, illogical statements or repetitive reply patterns. Six participants had to be excluded because they did not fulfill the basic requirement of working upwards of 20 hours per week. This left a final sample of 77 participants having provided data over the course of a seven-day period. In the past, similar research involving diary studies has used samples between 51 (Van Hooff et al., 2007) and 100 (Sonnentag, 2001) respondents. The sample size of the present study is hence consistent with previous literature.

The final sample of 77 consisted of 66.2% ($n=51$) female participants, and 97.4% ($n=75$) who were living in a German-speaking country at the time (Austria, Germany, Switzerland). The two participants (2.6%) not living in German-speaking countries (the United States and the United Kingdom) were also of German decent. The mean age of the final sample was 36 years ($IQR=24$), and they worked an average of 35.5 hours per week ($SD=10.7$). Most of the participants were regular employees either in the private sector or as government officials (78.7%, $n=61$), excluding self-employed (14.3%, $n=11$) or freelancing (1.3%, $n=1$) people. Twenty-two point four percent ($n=17$) of participants were working in the service sector, 20.8% ($n=16$) in sales, 19.5% ($n=15$) in other fields, and 16.9% ($n=13$) in the education sector, with lesser numbers working in the administrative, social, medical or production sectors. Most participants in this sample had completed their high school diploma (26%, $n=20$) or a

university degree (40.3%, n=31). Concerning their sexual orientation, 67.5% (n=52) of total participants considered themselves exclusively heterosexual, 9.1% (n=7) considered themselves exclusively homosexual, and 2.6% (n=2) considered themselves bisexual, with 20.8% (n=16) placing themselves somewhere on the spectrum between those three traditionally known sexual orientations.

Measures

The following measures were used in German. All scales were originally designed in English and were therefore translated into German by the researcher who has a bilingual background.

Gender stereotype threat. To measure gender stereotype threat, four items of the original nine-item Social Identities and Attitudes Scale (SIAS) by Picho and Brown (2011) were used. The scale breaks gender stereotype threat down into two components: gender identity (originally four items) and gender stigma consciousness (originally five items). Gender identity is measured with four items in the original SIAS and refers to the importance an individual places on their gender as being central to their identity (Picho & Brown, 2011). In the present study, it was measured with two items: “My gender is central to defining who I am” and “My gender contributes to my self-confidence”, translated as “Mein Geschlecht ist wichtig, um zu definieren, wer ich bin” and “Mein Geschlecht trägt zu meinem Selbstbewusstsein bei”, respectively. Gender stigma consciousness refers to “the extent to which individuals are chronically self-conscious of their stigmatized status” (Picho & Brown, 2011, p. 385). Two of the original five items were used: “My gender affects how people act towards me.” (“Mein Geschlecht beeinflusst, wie Leute sich mir gegenüber verhalten”) and „Most people judge me on the basis of my gender“ („Die meisten Leute beurteilen mich basierend auf meinem Geschlecht“). The response format ranged from “Do not agree at all” (“Stimme gar nicht zu”) to “Agree completely” (“Stimme vollkommen zu”) on a 5-point Likert scale. The combined scale for gender stereotype threat showed an average Cronbach’s $\alpha=.75$. In order to reduce the risk of invoking gender stereotype threat, these questions were the very last to be asked in the questionnaire.

Job performance. To measure job performance, the present study leaned closely on the definitions and measures used by Fritz and Sonnentag (2005). Based on numerous other research, they define the concept of job performance as a multi-dimensional variable consisting of task performance and contextual performance or proactivity (Fritz & Sonnentag,

2005). Task performance is made up of actions “that are recognized by formal reward systems and are part of the requirements as described in job descriptions” (Fritz & Sonnentag, 2005). It was measured using the Task Performance Scale by Williams & Anderson (1991). This scale was originally intended for external assessment by a superior in the work place but has since been rephrased numerous times and has adequately been used for self-assessment purposes (Fritz & Sonnentag, 2005). It contains twenty-one items of which the following were used in this study: “I pass along important information to co-workers” (“Ich leite wichtige Informationen an meine KollegInnen weiter”), “I perform the tasks that are expected of me” (“Ich erfülle die Aufgaben, die von mir erwartet werden”), and “I adequately complete assigned duties” (“Ich erfülle die mir aufgetragenen Aufgaben adäquat”). This scale had an average Cronbach’s $\alpha=.72$. Proactivity entails very future-oriented actions and behavior that is “taking initiative in improving current circumstances or creating new ones; it involves challenging the status quo rather than passively adapting to present conditions” (Crant, 2000, p. 436). It can itself be broken down into two main aspects which are pursuit of learning and personal initiative. On one hand, VandeWalle (1997) defines pursuit of learning as the internal motivation to find opportunities for learning “with the goal of higher competence and mastery of new situations” (Fritz & Sonnentag, 2005). Personal initiative, on the other hand, is identified as a set of behaviors that results in “an individual’s taking an active and self-starting approach to work and going beyond what is formally required in a given job” (Frese et al., 1996, p. 38). To assess the participants’ pursuit of learning, the following two items from VandeWalle’s Learning Goal Orientation Scale (1997) were used: “I prefer to work in situations that require a high level of ability and talent”, “I often look for opportunities to develop new skills and knowledge”. They were translated as „Ich bevorzuge Situationen, in denen ein großes Maß an Können und Talent gefordert ist“ and „Ich suche oft nach Möglichkeiten, mir neue Fertigkeiten und neues Wissen anzueignen“, respectively. The measurement of personal initiative included two items by Frese et al., 1996. They were “I actively attack problems” (“Ich gehe Probleme aktiv an”) and “Usually I do more than I am asked to do” (“Normalerweise tue ich mehr als von mir verlangt wird”). Participants reported their answers on a 5-point Likert scale from “Do not agree at all” to “Agree completely”. The proactivity scale also had an average Cronbach’s $\alpha=.72$.

Ego depletion. Consistent with previous research (e.g. Welsh, Ellis, Christian, & Mai, 2014), depletion was measured using six items from the State Ego Depletion Scale (Ciarocco, Twenge, Muraven, & Tice, 2010). The scale is built around the concept of self-control being a depleteable resource allowing executive control over a person's emotions and behaviors, as defined by Baumeister, Bratslavsky, Muraven and Tice (1998). Sample items are "I feel mentally exhausted" ("Ich fühle mich mental erschöpft"), "I feel calm and rational" ("Ich fühle mich ruhig und vernünftig"), and "This would be a good time for me to make an important decision" („Jetzt wäre eine gute Zeit, um eine wichtige Entscheidung zu treffen"). For a full list of items used and their translations, please refer to appendix A. Answers were given on a 5-point Likert scale ("Do not agree at all" - "Agree completely"). The ego depletion scale had an average Cronbach's $\alpha=.68$. Although it is generally advised that Cronbach's α should be at least $\alpha=.70$ (Nunnally, 1978), the lower α can be explained by the reduced number of items used in the present study. Furthermore, a sample different from the norm sample of the original scale was used. A Cronbach's α below .70 can therefore be accepted and is no indication of any error.

Self efficacy. The New General Self-Efficacy Scale (Chen, Gully & Eden, 2001) was utilized to measure self efficacy. To measure those "beliefs in one's capabilities to mobilize the motivation, cognitive resources, and courses of action needed to meet given situational demands" (Wood & Bandura, 1989, p. 408), the present study used four out of the scale's original eight items and had an average Cronbach's $\alpha=.65$. As described above, this α is below the recommended cut-off of $\alpha=.70$ (Nunnally, 1978). This is due to the strongly reduced number of items and the different sample used in this study, and gives no reason for concern. Sample items are "I will be able to achieve most of the goals that I have set for myself" ("Ich bin in der Lage, die meisten meiner Ziele zu erreichen"), and "When facing difficult tasks, I am certain that I will accomplish them" ("Wenn schwierige Aufgaben anstehen, bin ich mir sicher, dass ich sie schaffen werde"). For a list of all items, please see appendix A. Answers were again given on a 5-point Likert scale ("Do not agree at all" - "Agree completely").

Gender role orientation. To measure gender role orientation, I used the Traditional Masculinity-Femininity Scale (TMF) by Kachel, Steffens and Niedlich (2016). While most studies addressing gender roles still use Bem's (1981) widely known and successful Sex Role Inventory (SRI), I decided to use this newer scale, as it has equally high validity as the SRI, is shorter and could therefore be used in its entirety, and is believed to better represent today's

views of gender and the way modern people think about gender role representation and orientation. Cronbach's $\alpha=.91$. A list of all six items can be found in appendix A. Sample items include "I consider myself..." ("Ich sehe mich selbst als..."), "Ideally, I would like to be..." ("Idealerweise wäre ich gern..."), and "Traditionally, my interests would be regarded as..." ("Traditionellerweise würden meine Interessen gesehen werden als..."). Respondents marked their answers on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from "Very masculine" ("Sehr maskulin") to "Very feminine" ("Sehr feminin"). As was the case with items regarding gender stereotype threat, these six items were also asked on the very last page of the questionnaire to reduce bias.

Control variables. In order to better disguise the underlying subject of the questionnaire, four items asking about additional experience at work were included. Firstly, two items asking about psychological job control, the degree a person feels they control how, where and when to do their work (Kossek, Ruderman, Braddy, & Hannum, 2012), were adapted from the three-item long combined scale by Kossek, Lautsch and Eaton (2006). They were "To what extent does your job permit you to decide on your own about where the work is done?" ("In welchem Ausmaß erlaubt es Ihnen Ihr Job, selbst zu entscheiden, wo Sie Ihre Arbeit machen?"), and "To what extent does your job permit you to decide on your own about how you go about your work?" ("In welchem Ausmaß erlaubt es Ihnen Ihr Job, dass Sie selbst entscheiden, wie Sie Ihre Arbeit angehen?"). Participants reported their answers on a 5-point Likert scale ("Not at all" – "Always"). This scale showed an average Cronbach's $\alpha=.68$. Secondly, two items broaching time pressure at work were taken from Semmer, Zapf and Dunckel (1999). They were „How often are you under time pressure at work?“ ("Wie häufig stehen Sie bei der Arbeit unter Zeitdruck? „), and "How often does it happen that you leave work later than planned because of too much work?" ("Wie oft kommt es vor, dass Sie wegen zu viel Arbeit später als geplant nach Hause gehen können?"). Respondents gave their answers on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from "Never/very rarely" ("Nie/sehr selten") to "Very often/almost always" ("Sehr oft/fast immer"). The time pressure scale had an average Cronbach's $\alpha=.70$.

Statistical Analysis Procedure

In order to account for potential errors on the alpha level, hierarchical modeling and analysis was used. Since the hypothesized interactions are entirely explorative, a significance level of 0.05 was set. To test the hypothesized main relationship between gender stereotype threat and job performance as well as the two moderation analyses, I used hierarchical multiple regression analysis (H1a, H1b, H3, H4). In addition, I used path analysis and a Sobel's test to calculate the mediation analyses (H2a, H2b).

Results

Descriptive statistics

Descriptive statistics including internal consistencies are outlined in Table 1. The statistical methods that were used are outlined in the statistical analysis procedure. All measures showed a high level of reliability. There were no statistical conspicuities in regards to distributional properties.

Table 1. Means, standard deviations, internal consistencies and intercorrelations.

Source	M (SD)	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)	(6)	(7)	(8)
(1) TP	4.40 (0.56)	(.72)	.41***	-.18***	.44***	.23***	.07	-.10*	.26***
(2) Proactivity	3.93 (0.66)		(.72)	-.24***	.36***	-.09*	.26***	.10*	.04
(3) Ego Dep	2.67 (0.73)			(.68)	-.33***	.24***	-.15***	.27***	.18***
(4) Self Eff	4.01 (0.52)				(.65)	-.01	.02	-.04	.11*
(5) GRO	3.15 (0.89)					(.91)	-.16***	.11*	.14**
(6) Autonomy	3.01 (0.98)						(.68)	.13**	-.07
(7) Time Pres	2.73 (1.08)							(.70)	.02
(8) GST	3.25 (0.93)								(.75)

Note: Internal consistency estimates (Cronbach's alpha) are presented in parentheses in the diagonal. p-values of <.30 are statistically significant and interpretable. *p < .05, **p < .01; ***p < .001

Hypotheses testing

Consequently, the hypothesized correlations as defined in the introduction part of the paper were tested. All requirements for the following statistical analyses were tested and confirmed. Sexual orientation was included as a control variable and did not change the high model validity.

Hypothesis 1a (H1a), which predicted that increased gender stereotype threat would be positively associated with decreased task performance in women, and increased task performance in men, was not fully supported ($b=0.075$, 95% CI [0.195, -0.045], $t=1.23$, $p=.220$). Nevertheless, hypothesis 1b (H1b), saying that increased gender stereotype threat would be positively associated with decreased proactivity in women, and increased proactivity in men, was supported ($b=0.117$, 95% CI [0.256, -0.022], $t=1.65$, $p=.099$).

To facilitate the interpretation of the findings, effect plots are shown below (Figure 2).

Hypotheses 2a (H2a) and 2b (H2b), assumed that ego depletion would mediate the effect of gender stereotype threat on task performance (H2a) and proactivity (H2b), such that individuals with high ego depletion experience less (satisfactory) task performance or proactivity. This was tested with structural equation modeling and a Sobel's test. Ego depletion fully mediated the effect of gender stereotype threat on task performance ($B=-0.02$, $SE=0.01$, $Z=-3.05$, $p=.002$). The present data hence supported hypothesis 2a. The same held true for hypothesis 2b which showed a significant partial mediating effect of ego depletion on proactivity ($B=-0.03$, $SE=0.01$, $Z=-3.01$, $p=.003$). Hypothesis 2b was therefore supported as well. Detailed results are depicted in Tables 3 to 6.

Table 2. Linear mixed-effect model for hypotheses 1a and 1b.

Term	Task performance				Proactivity			
	b	95% CI	T	p	b	95% CI	T	p
Parameter								
(Intercept)	4.37	[4.73, 4.01]	23.78	<.001	4.26	[4.69, 3.84]	19.55	<.001
sex[T.male]	-0.467	[-0.0136, -0.921]	-2.02	.044	-0.238	[0.297, -0.773]	-0.87	.383
GST	0.0645	[0.156, -0.0272]	1.38	.169	-0.0647	[0.042, -0.171]	-1.19	.235
Heterosexual[T.y]	-0.154	[0.0862, -0.395]	-1.26	.213	-0.24	[0.0573, -0.536]	-1.58	.118
sex[T.male]:GST	0.0751	[0.195, -0.0447]	1.23	.220	0.117	[0.256, -0.0216]	1.65	.099
sd_(Intercept).id	0.478				0.592			
sd_Observation.Residual	0.26				0.295			
Goodness of fit								
AIC	347.20				494.80			
BIC	377.23				524.83			
Marginal	0.10				0.04			
Conditional	0.79				0.81			
RMSE	0.24				0.27			
Observations	539				539			

Note: Hierarchical regression analysis. GST = gender stereotype threat. CI = confidence interval. Heterosexuality was included as a control variable and did not change the model's validity. AIC = Akaike information criterion; BIC = Bayesian information criterion; both serve as estimators of the relative quality of statistical models for this data set. Marginal and conditional values are measures for pseudo R²; RMSE = root-mean-square error; there is no indication that model's goodness of fit does not fulfill the statistical criteria.

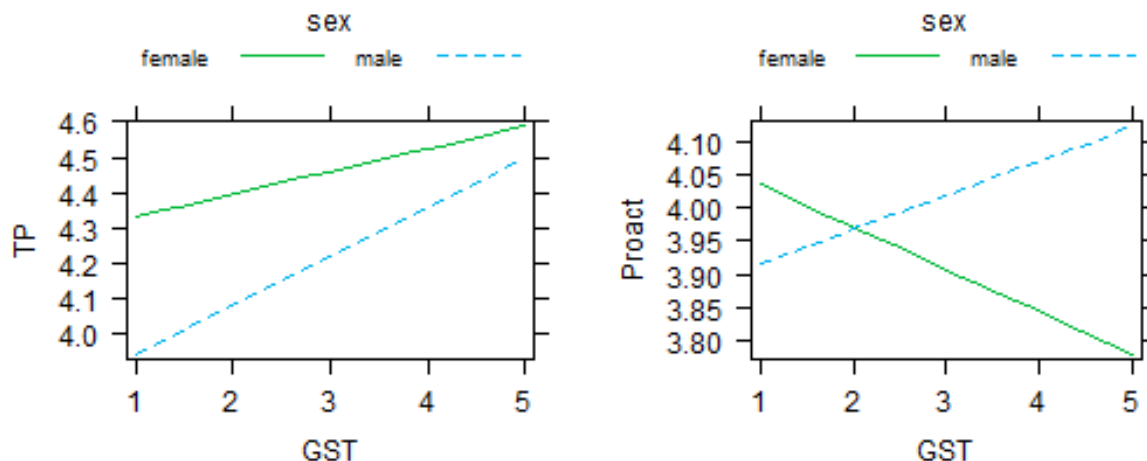


Figure 2. Effect plots with simple slopes for hypotheses 1a (left) and 1b (right); interaction effect with sex. TP = task performance. Proact = proactivity. GST = gender stereotype threat. Effect sizes of regression analysis as depicted in Tables 1-3. No interaction for task performance. Significant interaction for proactivity.

Table 3. Linear mixed-effect model for hypothesis 2a.

Term	Y~X				Y~X+M				M~X			
	b	95% CI	T	p	b	95% CI	T	p	b	95% CI	T	p
(Intercept)	4.23	[4.51, 3.95]	29.71	<.001	4.50	[4.80, 4.21]	29.90	<.001	2.01	[2.38, 1.64]	10.59	<.001
GST	0.11	[0.17, 0.05]	3.601	<.001	0.13	[0.19, 0.07]	4.391	<.001	0.18	[0.26, 0.09]	4.141	<.001
sex[T.male]	-0.22	[0.01, -0.46]	-1.89	.063	-0.26	[-0.04, -0.49]	-2.31	.024				
Heterosexual[T.y]	-0.16	[0.08, -0.40]	-1.33	.188	-0.14	[0.09, -0.36]	-1.17	.244	0.13	[0.43, -0.17]	0.87	.388
sd_(Intercept).id	0.47				0.45				0.60			
sd_Observation.Residual	0.26				0.26				0.39			
EgoDep					-0.13	[-0.07, -0.19]	-4.49	<.001				
AIC	342.92				330.46				743.38			
BIC	368.66				360.49				764.83			
Marginal	0.10				0.14				0.06			
Conditional	0.79				0.79				0.72			
RMSE	0.24				0.24				0.36			
Observations	539				539				539			

Note: Hierarchical regression analysis. GST = gender stereotype threat. CI = confidence interval. EgoDep = ego depletion. Heterosexuality was included as a control variable and did not change the model's validity. AIC = Akaike information criterion; BIC = Bayesian information criterion; both serve as estimators of the relative quality of statistical models for this data set. Marginal and conditional values are measures for pseudo R²; RMSE = root-mean-square error; there is no indication that model's goodness of fit does not fulfill the statistical criteria. Y~X = direct effect; Y~X+M = effect including mediator; M~X = mediation effect.

Table 4. Sobel-Test for mediation on task performance.

Source	B	SE	Z	p.value
indirect	-0.02	0.01	-3.05	.002

Note: treatment = gender stereotype threat, mediator = ego depletion

Table 5. *Linear mixed-effect model for hypothesis 2b.*

Term	Y~X				Y~X+M				M~X			
	b	95% CI	T	p	b	95% CI	T	p	b	95% CI	T	p
(Intercept)	4.04	[4.38, 3.70]	23.58	<.001	4.34	[4.70, 3.99]	24.06	<.001	2.01	[2.38, 1.64]	10.59	<.001
GST	0.00	[0.07, -0.06]	0.13	.893	0.03	[0.10, -0.04]	0.87	.382	0.18	[0.26, 0.09]	4.14	<.001
sex[T.male]	0.14	[0.43, -0.15]	0.95	.345	0.10	[0.38, -0.18]	0.69	.494				
Heterosexual[T.y]	-0.25	[0.05, -0.55]	-1.65	.103	-0.22	[0.06, -0.51]	-1.52	.132	0.13	[0.43, -0.17]	0.87	.388
sd_(Intercept).id	0.59				0.57				0.60			
sd_Observation.Residual	0.30				0.29				0.39			
EgoDep					-0.15	[-0.08, -0.21]	-4.37	<.001				
AIC	492.07				480.29				743.38			
BIC	517.81				510.31				764.83			
Marginal	0.03				0.06				0.06			
Conditional	0.81				0.80				0.72			
RMSE	0.27				0.27				0.36			
Observations	539				539				539			

Note: Hierarchical regression analysis. GST = gender stereotype threat. CI = confidence interval. EgoDep = ego depletion. Heterosexuality was included as a control variable and did not change the model's validity. AIC = Akaike information criterion; BIC = Bayesian information criterion; both serve as estimators of the relative quality of statistical models for this data set. Marginal and conditional values are measures for pseudo R²; RMSE = root-mean-square error; there is no indication that model's goodness of fit does not fulfill the statistical criteria. Y~X = direct effect; Y~X+M = effect including mediator; M~X = mediation effect.

Table 6. *Sobel-Test for mediation on proactivity.*

Source	B	SE	Z	p.value
indirect	-0.03	0.01	-3.01	.003

Note: treatment = gender stereotype threat, mediator = ego depletion

It was hypothesized that role integration self efficacy would moderate the relationship between gender stereotype threat and ego depletion, such that individuals with high self-efficacy expectations experience less ego depletion (H3). This moderating effect was not shown up due to the non-significant interaction effect ($b=0.081$, 95% CI [0.187, -0.026], $t=1.49$, $p=.138$). Hypothesis 3 was therefore not supported (cf. Table 7).

Hypothesis 4 (H4) predicted that gender role orientation moderates the relationship between gender stereotype threat and ego depletion, such that individuals that highly identify with their respective gender roles will experience more ego depletion in the case of women, and less ego depletion in the case of men. Moderation is shown up due to the significant interaction effect ($b=-0.505$, 95% CI [-0.183, -0.827], $t=-3.07$, $p=.002$). For more detailed results, please view Table 8. Effect plots for the moderation effect are shown in Figure 3. Hence, the data supported hypothesis 4 in this study.

Table 7. *Linear mixed-effect model for hypothesis 3.*

Term	b	95% CI	T	p
Parameter				
(Intercept)	5.15	[6.7, 3.6]	6.50	<.001
GST	-0.155	[0.283, -0.593]	-0.69	.487
SelfEf	-0.768	[-0.394, -1.14]	-4.02	<.001
Heterosexual[T.y]	0.0848	[0.362, -0.193]	0.60	.551
GST:SelfEf	0.0808	[0.187, -0.0257]	1.49	.138
sd_(Intercept).id	0.556			
sd_Observation.Residual	0.366			
Goodness of fit				
AIC	688.75			
BIC	718.78			
Marginal	0.17			
Conditional	0.75			
RMSE	0.34			
Observations	539			

Note: Hierarchical regression analysis. GST = gender stereotype threat. SelfEf = self-efficacy. CI = confidence interval. Heterosexuality was included as a control variable and did not change the model's validity. AIC = Akaike information criterion; BIC = Bayesian information criterion; both serve as estimators of the relative quality of statistical models for this data set. Marginal and conditional values are measures for pseudo R²; RMSE = root-mean-square error; there is no indication that model's goodness of fit does not fulfill the statistical criteria.

Table 8. *Linear mixed-effect model for hypothesis 4.*

Term	b	95% CI	T	p
Parameter				
(Intercept)	0.639	[2.32, -1.04]	0.74	.457
GST	0.492	[0.96, 0.0241]	2.06	.040
GRO	0.375	[0.795, -0.045]	1.75	.081
sex[T.male]	1.61	[2.86, 0.356]	2.52	.012
Heterosexual[T.y]	0.217	[0.522, -0.0871]	1.40	.166
GST:GRO	-0.0817	[0.0323, -0.196]	-1.41	.161
GRO:sex[T.male]	-0.498	[-0.176, -0.82]	-3.03	.003
sd_(Intercept).id	0.588			
sd_Observation.Residual	0.383			
Goodness of fit				
AIC	745.75			
BIC	784.36			
Marginal	0.12			
Conditional	0.74			
RMSE	0.36			
Observations	539			

Note: Hierarchical regression analysis. GST = gender stereotype threat. GRO = gender role orientation. CI = confidence interval. Heterosexuality was included as a control variable and did not change the model's validity. AIC = Akaike information criterion; BIC = Bayesian information criterion; both serve as estimators of the relative quality of statistical models for this data set. Marginal and conditional values are measures for pseudo R²; RMSE = root-mean-square error; there is no indication that model's goodness of fit does not fulfill the statistical criteria.

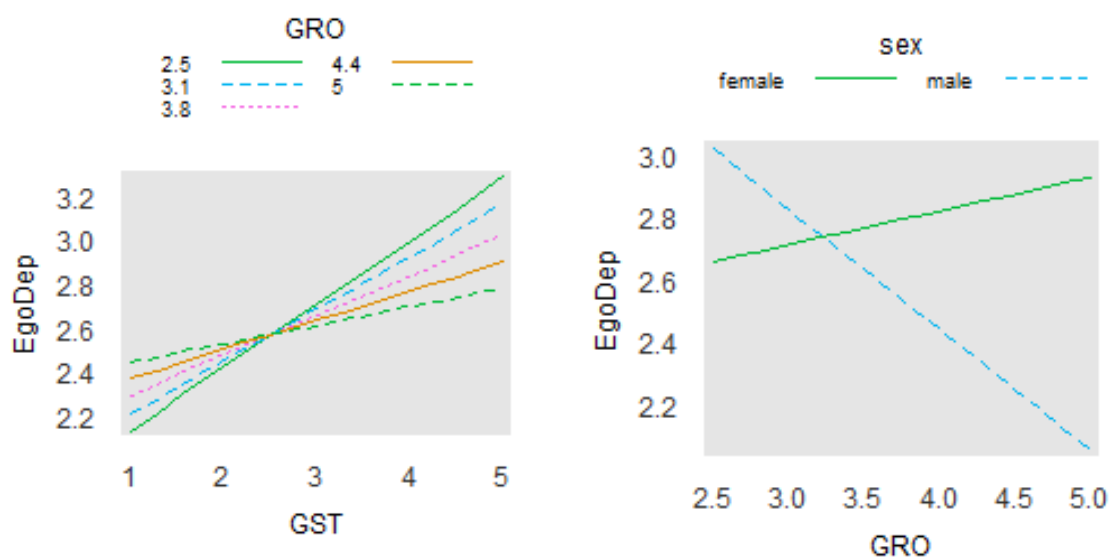


Figure 3. Effect plots with simple slopes for hypothesis 4. GST = gender stereotype threat. EgoDep = ego depletion. GRO = gender role orientation. Interaction effect with gender role orientation (left) and sex (right). Slight interaction for gender role orientation. Values for gender role orientation (left): 2.5 = masculine, 5 = feminine. Significant interaction for sex.

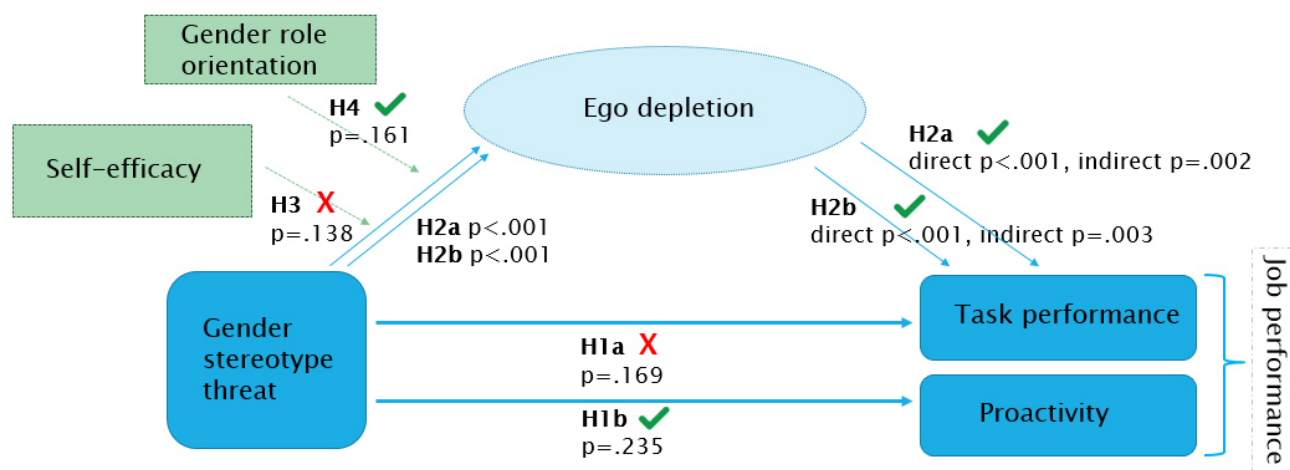


Figure 4. Tested model displaying effect sizes.

Discussion

The primary purpose of this study was to extend the existing empirical literature on the effects of gender stereotype threat and serve as a first venture into exploring its direct effects on subjective job performance. For that purpose, ego depletion was postulated as a mediator. Furthermore, the moderating effects of self-efficacy and gender role orientation were examined.

Contrary to what could be deduced from the existing literature, the hypothesis that increased gender stereotype threat leads to decreased subjective task performance in women could not be confirmed in this study. While such effects were found for academic test performance, salary negotiations and other business situations on numerous occasions (e.g. Ambady et al., 2001; Schmader et al., 2008; Steele, 1997; Stuhlmacher & Walters, 1999), it is not yet possible to draw that same conclusion from this data for the time being. Hypothesis 1a however also stipulated that an increase in gender stereotypes would lead to an increase in task performance in men. This interaction effect was confirmed by the data of the present study. All in all, hypothesis 1a was hence only partially confirmed.

It seems that women's as well as men's task performance goes up the stronger they experience every day gender stereotypes. This can be explained when looking at another interesting finding, namely that women have a statistically significantly higher base level of subjective task performance, and an insignificantly higher base level of proactivity, to begin with. Female employees appear to have a strong desire – and ability – to properly fulfill all the requirements to get a particular job done, and being subjected to gender stereotypes only seems to help that desire. Gender stereotypes do after all support the idea that women are hard-working, obedient and compliant. However, women are not ambitious, outspoken, challenging, fierce or demanding – at least not according to stereotypes about their gender – and these are the qualities necessary for proactive behavior. While excelling in one area of job performance, women subjected to gender stereotypes falter in another. This explanation is also confirmed by my findings for hypothesis 1b: they provide support for the prediction that gender stereotype threat is significantly positively associated with decreased proactivity (H1b) in women. As predicted, the opposite effects were found for men, who benefit from an increase in proactivity when exposed to gender stereotypes.

In line with results from Carr and Steele (2010) who showed that ego depletion mediated the effect of gender stereotype threat on heightened loss aversion in women,

hierarchical regression analysis in the present study demonstrated the mediating effect of ego depletion on the interactions between gender stereotype threat and both task performance and proactivity. This can also be regarded as in line with previous findings about gender stereotype threat requiring the executive resource to self-regulate, control impulses and resist distractions, as postulated for example by Schmidt and Diestel (2015).

Contrary to my prediction, hierarchical regression analysis showed no moderating effect of self-efficacy on the relationship between gender stereotype threat and ego depletion (H3) in this study. This contradicts the hypothesized idea that individuals with stronger beliefs in their own abilities and efficacy automatically buffer the ego-depleting effects of gender stereotypes, and thus have more of this limited self-control resource available for their daily job performance, compared to their counterparts that have low self-efficacy beliefs. There are several possible explanations for this lack of a moderation effect. First, it might be due to issues of distribution. Second, strong self-efficacy beliefs seem to be beneficial and buffering in a variety of other situations, like better academic performance (Bandura, 1977), especially math (Pajares, 1996), and positive coping strategies (Larson, 1990). However, it does not help to bounce back from the negative affects elicited by gender stereotypes which shows once again the importance of gender for one's self-identification. Our understanding of our own gender might be so unalterable that even the belief of how self-effective we are might develop within the realm of identifying as a woman or man, and not transcend across genders. Or in other words: no matter how much we work on ourselves and develop throughout our lifetime, we will still not be shaken in our very foundation which is made up of irrevocable variables like gender. It is therefore imperative to dedicate future research to investigating whether or not self-efficacy can ever surpass the limitations gender puts on us, and compare it to other similar variables like race or disability status. A third possible explanation becomes apparent when looking at the existing literature and the circumstance that it was all published in the seventies, eighties or nineties. Back in those days, self-efficacy was apparently a hot topic and researchers agreed on its central role for success in many different cognitive, motivational, affective and selection areas (Bandura, 1993). In the last decades there have been rapid and severe changes in the way we live our personal lives, potentially including certain core values, e.g. interconnectedness. It is therefore possible that self-efficacy is simply no longer of such high significance to the individual and consequently only has a very limited effect, if any, on

interactions in every-day life. Hence, it would be necessary to repeat basic self-efficacy research and reevaluate its importance in the twenty-first century.

Hypothesis 4 predicting that higher role orientation with one's gender buffers the relationship between gender stereotype threat and ego depletion was confirmed by the data in this study. According to these findings, a woman that strongly identifies with the typical female gender roles will be much more strongly affected by negative stereotypes about her gender. She will also suffer from higher ego depletion. Likewise, the stronger a man identifies as male, the more he and his job performance will benefit from gender stereotypes pertaining to men. This is further evidence supporting the existing literature (e.g. Kiefer & Sekaquaptewa, 2007). Furthermore, the results showed that these effects are even more noticeable in women than in men. This finding is consistent with previous empirical research by Schmader (2002).

To sum up, the data of the present study fully supports hypotheses 1b, 2a, 2b and 4, whereas hypotheses 1a and 3 are not supported by the data of this study. It is important to note that all hypotheses analyses and interpretations are based on explorative descriptive statistical analysis. The available data is not sufficient to draw any inference-statistical conclusions at this point in time. Inferential statistics for the proposed hypotheses should be conducted with a larger data set in future research.

Strengths, limitations and future research

While this study demonstrates a series of relevant strengths, there are also some limitations that are left to be addressed in future research.

The major strength of the present research is that it was designed and conducted as a diary survey. The possibility to measure even slight changes on a daily basis gives insights into the relationships and correlations between variables that would otherwise not have shown up. In addition, there was a low percentage of students or people holding a higher education degree (i.e. bachelor's degree or higher). This is a rare occurrence in psychological studies as they are often dependent on their own student population to participate in and further their research. With only 40.3% of participants holding a university degree, this study and its findings can be viewed as fairly representative for the general educational background in Central Europe. There was an interesting percentage of non-heterosexually identifying people represented in this study. With 32.5% of participants placing themselves somewhere other than exclusively heterosexual on the sexual orientation spectrum, of which 9.1% identified as

exclusively homosexual, this study might be one of the first to coincidentally, i.e. without purposefully looking for sexual variety, come close to representing a sample of people as it actually occurs in the general Western population. This variety in sexual orientations, or sexual fluidity, has long been theorized about, e.g. in the Kinsey Reports (Trilling, 1949). Due to societal expectations and pressures that even today often don't allow to openly live and/or discuss non-heterosexuality, only very few studies to date have achieved non-heterosexual samples of more than 9%, most percentages actually ranging between 3% and 4%. A likely explanation for why it occurred here is probably that convenience samples, as used in this study, tend to represent the researcher's environment. In this particular case this would therefore certainly be a quite progressively thinking and open-minded sample which is reflected in these numbers. It could thus be argued that the high percentage of non-heterosexually oriented respondents might have distorted the results and that different interactions would have resulted if a more traditional or conservative sample had been surveyed. By using sexual orientation as a control variable in the hypotheses testing it was assured that no distorting effects would jeopardize the results. There was no change in the model's quality by including the control variable, meaning that the respondents' sexual orientation did not bias the outcome of the study.

To sum up, when looking at the sociodemographic characteristics of the participants, it is definitely worth mentioning as a huge strength of the present study that there is a high variety in the level of education, different work sectors, sexual orientation and age that overall make this sample very representative for the area the study was conducted in.

A further strength of this study is the high level of reliability of the used measures, with an average Cronbach's α ranging between $\alpha = .65$ and $\alpha = .91$.

Finally, another strength that is important to mention is the study's way-above-average response rate of 88.3%. This is probably due to the positive experience of participants during the entire seven-day period which was often mentioned in the comments section on the last page of the questionnaire. Respondents stated they found the topic and questions to be interesting and easy to understand. They further mentioned the aesthetically pleasing design of the questionnaire that was deliberately set up to be responsive and easy to navigate on all sorts of electronic devices.

When assessing limitations of the present study, the obvious concern is that hypothesis 1a, predicting one of the main interactions, and one of the moderating hypotheses (H3)

suggesting a buffering effect of self-efficacy, while strongly based on empirical research, did not show up as significant. As discussed above, future research should reevaluate the role of self-efficacy in today's Western world. Further research should also take a closer look at potential distribution errors and retest the hypotheses of this study with a bigger and more diverse sample. This leads me to a second limitation, namely that the sample used in this study is only moderately representative on a global scale due to the questionnaire being in German. As a logical conclusion of this, almost all participants were living in Austria, Germany or Switzerland at the time of the survey. The few exceptions that were living in non-German-speaking countries also shared that decent. A further concern is that the items used in the questionnaire were not formulated to ask about "today" specifically, but rather were posed as general questions asking about mental exhaustion, for example. Given that the diary survey was trying to evaluate everyday changes in its variables, this certainly constitutes a limitation. It might have led to confusion among the respondents as to whether or not the question asked about today's perceptions and attitudes or not, and thus might have caused biased replies. It was originally debated whether items should be adapted to include specifiers, such as "today" or "in general", but the researcher decided not to, so as not to compromise the validity of the known and tested items. In hindsight, validity would have probably only improved by including said specifiers. Making items clearer and easier to understand is certainly something that should be looked at in future research and this limitation needs to be considered when drawing conclusions from the results.

Practical implications

Because there were few limitations to this study, several implications can be drawn from the present findings.

Initially it was shown that women have statistically significantly higher task performance than men and at the outset also higher proactivity, but that being subjected to gender stereotypes leads to decreased proactivity in women. This is relevant on an organizational, societal and personal level. As women make up half of the work force, having them perform at their best and seeking opportunities to widen their know-how, will in turn produce better outcomes, higher returns and ultimately be more profitable for companies. In a gender-stereotype-reduced workplace where women are able to perform to their full potential, flourish and climb the career ladder, companies are known to achieve higher returns in assets and equities as well as have better overall financial performance (Kimball, 2011).

Likewise, this will lead to happier female employees with better mental health, more stable relationships and greater overall life satisfaction (Buehler & O'Brien, 2011).

According to my findings, female strengths are more strongly pronounced than men's in both task performance and proactivity. While their task performance gets even more pronounced through gender stereotypes however, proactive behavior shrivels significantly. Such interpretation of the results therefore supports the idea that future research should not base its hypotheses on the idea of job performance being one interchangeable variable. Rather it should look at the different facets that make up job performance, two of which may be task performance and proactivity (Fritz & Sonnentag, 2005). Outreach and educational efforts can then target the specific area(s). Especially proactivity has become a quality that is more and more important in today's fast-changing corporate world, where opportunities for growth and development are often to be created and seized by employees themselves. A person, probably a woman subjected to gender stereotype threat, that sits back and waits for her bosses, probably men that have been raised in a society that doesn't give women much credibility in the world of business, to hand her the hard-worked-for and well-deserved opportunity to further her career will most likely sit and wait for a long time while other (male) colleagues proactively seek learning opportunities and invest in other future-oriented activities.

With respect to practical implications, it is suggested that organizations across all sectors and industries make it their agenda to not only inform but also train their employees about gender sensitivity issues. As part of diversity management, special focus groups available to both women and men, as well as employees on all hierarchical levels, could begin by informing about existing empirical data. They could then move on to offer hands-on ideas and practice on how to behave in situations that evoke gender stereotypes or other forms of sexism. It is of high importance that these trainings be tailored not only to women but also include all male employees as they are crucial in making long-lasting changes. This form of diversity training might therefore include tips and tricks for women on how to identify when they are being stereotyped or stereotyping themselves. On the other hand, it could offer concrete suggestions to men that witness subtle or overt sexism in or outside the workplace, so that they know how to back-up their female colleagues and thus contain the wide-reaching effects gender stereotypes might have on them.

Finally, especially managers are called upon to take a stronger interest in gender sensitivity issues. In a world, in which success is negatively correlated with professional success in the case of women, but positively correlated for men (Heilman & Okimoto, 2007), we still have way higher numbers of male line managers, company owners, board members, C-level bosses and other high-power positions. Managers should use their influence to promote female proactivity, fight stereotypes that prevent women from wanting to be successful, and create a more equal playing field in which all employees are held to the same standards regardless of what gender they belong to or identify with. Leading by example, they will cultivate a work-force of like-minded successors and at the same time generate higher returns and better overall performance for their organizations.

Conclusion

Being subjected to societal stereotypes about our gender comes at a high cost for us women. While excelling at performing specific work-related tasks, it appears that we do so by putting our heads down, hoping our hard work will one day pay off instead of proactively working to further our knowledge and create new opportunities to get ahead in our careers. But then again, it is now the twenty-first century and the time has come for women to not be the well-behaved and compliant followers anymore that society has trained us to be. We will no longer do significantly more of the tasks at work while our male colleagues invest their valuable time in climbing the corporate ladder, furthering their vertical and horizontal perspectives. We will no longer be held back by ridiculous stereotypes about our lack of assertiveness and non-existent go-getter-personalities. Yes, it may make us “less womanly” but the ability to advocate for ourselves is desperately needed to succeed in the work force, let alone have noteworthy and substantial careers. And proactivity is in fact part of who we are anyway, as the results of this study have shown. By educating ourselves and ideally our colleagues, managers and organizations about the limiting effects gender stereotypes have on us, we can make ourselves aware of them, consciously work against them, and become more well-rounded and balanced individuals as well as stronger allies to our employers.

And while it is of course easier said than done, I am going to go ahead and say it anyway: we already know we can do more of the actual tasks than men – now let’s go out there with a proactive mindset and start climbing to the ranks to true equality!

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Abstract

Gender stereotype threat has long been known to have a crippling effect on women's performances in academic test situations in a variety of cognitive areas and from a very young age on. Whenever gender is made salient, being female is automatically associated with adjectives like "submissive", "nice" and "sensitive", all qualities that do not hold up well in test performance settings, especially when competing against "assertive" and "dominant" males. This paper is a first venture into the connection between gender stereotype threat and its direct effects on subjective job performance in women and men. Furthermore, it integrates theories on ego depletion, self-efficacy and gender role orientation. Seventy-seven German-speakers participated in a seven-day online diary study. Results show that while women have a pointedly higher base level of task performance and proactivity, gender stereotype threat impedes women's proactivity, a quality that is highly important in today's corporate settings. This effect is mediated by ego depletion, suggesting that it takes a lot of self-control to deal with the stress and adverse emotions elicited by negative gender stereotypes. In addition, the more a woman identifies with traditionally known female gender roles, the more pronounced these effects are. Contrary to what was hypothesized, self-efficacy beliefs showed no moderating effect on that interaction with the data of this study. It is discussed how these dynamics might be tackled on an organizational level to ensure a healthier and more productive work environment for all employees, as well as better over-all results for corporations.

Zusammenfassung

Es ist seit langem bekannt, dass die Bedrohung durch Geschlechterstereotype stark einschränkende Auswirkungen auf die Leistung weiblicher Testpersonen im akademischen Kontext hat. Diese Einschränkungen treten bereits ab einem sehr jungen Alter auf und sind in verschiedensten kognitiven Bereichen nachweisbar. Durch das bloße Hervorheben von Geschlecht(ern), werden Frauen mit Adjektiven wie „gehorsam“, „nett“ und „sensibel“ gleichgesetzt. All diese Eigenschaften sind in Leistungssettings jedoch höchst ungeeignet – vor allem wenn man sich gegen „durchsetzungsfähige“ und „dominante“ Männer messen muss. In der vorliegenden wissenschaftlichen Arbeit wurden erstmalig die Auswirkungen von Geschlechterstereotypenbedrohung auf die subjektive Arbeitsleistung von Personen evaluiert. Des Weiteren wurden Theorien aus den Feldern der Selbstkontrolle, Selbstwirksamkeitsüberzeugung und Geschlechterrollenorientierung integriert und deren Einfluss untersucht. Ein Online-Fragebogen wurde von 77 deutschsprachigen TeilnehmerInnen ausgefüllt. Die Ergebnisse zeigen, dass Frauen zwar weitaus höhere Ausgangswerte für Task Performance und Proaktivität aufweisen, jedoch Geschlechterstereotype ihre Proaktivität, welche in der schnelllebigen und sich ständig ändernden Arbeitswelt eine sehr wichtige Eigenschaft darstellt, stark einschränken. Dieser Zusammenhang wird durch die Selbstkontrollkapazität mediert, was deutlich macht wieviel Selbstkontrolle aufgewendet werden muss, um mit dem Stress und den widrigen Emotionen, die durch negative Geschlechterstereotype wachgerufen werden, klarzukommen. Weiters verstärken sich diese Effekte, je mehr sich eine Frau mit traditionell weiblichen Rollenbildern identifiziert. Der vorgeschlagene Zusammenhang mit Selbstwirksamkeitsüberzeugungen konnte mit den vorhandenen Daten nicht nachgewiesen werden. Es wird diskutiert, wie die in der Studie gezeigten Dynamiken auf organisationaler Ebene angegangen werden können, um allen Mitarbeitenden ein gesünderes und produktiveres Arbeitsumfeld zu ermöglichen, sowie letztendlich Unternehmen profitabler zu führen.

Appendix A (original items and translations)

Social Identities and Attitudes Scale (SIAS) by Picho and Brown (2011)

1. My gender is central to defining who I am.
Mein Geschlecht ist wichtig, um zu definieren, wer ich bin.
2. My gender contributes to my self-confidence.
Mein Geschlecht trägt zu meinem Selbstbewusstsein bei.
3. My gender affects how people act towards me.
Mein Geschlecht beeinflusst, wie Leute sich mir gegenüber verhalten.
4. Most people judge me on the basis of my gender.
Die meisten Leute beurteilen mich basierend auf meinem Geschlecht.

Task Performance Scale by Williams & Anderson (1991)

1. I pass along important information to co-workers.
Ich leite wichtige Informationen an meine KollegInnen weiter.
2. I perform the tasks that are expected of me.
Ich erfülle die Aufgaben, die von mir erwartet werden.
3. I adequately complete assigned duties.
Ich erfülle die mir aufgetragenen Aufgaben adäquat.

Learning Goal Orientation Scale by VandeWalle (1997)

1. I prefer to work in situations that require a high level of ability and talent.
Ich bevorzuge Situationen, in denen ein großes Maß an Können und Talent gefordert ist.
2. I often look for opportunities to develop new skills and knowledge.
Ich suche oft nach Möglichkeiten, mir neue Fertigkeiten und neues Wissen anzueignen.

Personal Initiative by Frese et al. (1996)

1. I actively attack problems.
Ich gehe Probleme aktiv an.
2. Usually I do more than I am asked to do.
Normalerweise tue ich mehr als von mir verlangt wird.

State Ego Depletion Scale by Ciarocco, Twenge, Muraven and Tice (2010)

1. I feel mentally exhausted.
Ich fühle mich mental erschöpft.
2. I feel calm and rational. (R)
Ich fühle mich ruhig und vernünftig. (R)

3. This would be a good time for me to make an important decision. (R)
Jetzt wäre eine gute Zeit, um eine wichtige Entscheidung zu treffen. (R)
4. If I were tempted by something right now, it would be very difficult to resist.
Wenn ich jetzt in Versuchung geführt werden würde, würde es mir schwer fallen zu widerstehen.
5. I wish I could just relax for a while.
Ich wünschte, ich könnte einfach eine Weile entspannen.
6. I feel lazy.
Ich fühle mich faul.

New General Self-Efficacy Scale by Chen, Gully and Eden (2001)

1. I will be able to achieve most of the goals that I have set for myself.
Ich bin in der Lage, die meisten meiner Ziele zu erreichen.
2. When facing difficult tasks, I am certain that I will accomplish them.
Wenn schwierige Aufgaben anstehen, bin ich mir sicher, dass ich sie schaffen werde.
3. Compared to other people, I can do most tasks very well.
Verglichen mit anderen Leuten, erledige ich die meisten Aufgaben sehr gut.
4. Even when things are tough, I can perform quite well.
Selbst wenn Sachen schwierig werden leiste ich gute Arbeit.

Traditional Masculinity-Femininity Scale (TMF) by Kachel, Steffens and Niedlich (2016)

1. I consider myself...
Ich sehe mich selbst als...
2. Ideally, I would like to be...
Idealerweise wäre ich gern...
3. Traditionally, my interests would be regarded as...
Traditionellerweise würden meine Interessen gesehen werden als...
4. Traditionally, my attitudes and beliefs would be regarded as...
Traditionellerweise würden meine Einstellungen und Überzeugungen gesehen werden als...
5. Traditionally, my behavior would be regarded as...
Traditionellerweise würde mein Verhalten gesehen werden als...
6. Traditionally, my outer appearance would be regarded as...
Traditionellerweise würde mein Äußeres gesehen werden als...

Psychological Job Control combined scale by Kossek, Lautsch and Eaton (2006)

1. To what extent does your job permit you to decide on your own about where the work is done?
In welchem Ausmaß erlaubt es Ihnen Ihr Job, selbst zu entscheiden, wo Sie Ihre Arbeit machen?
2. To what extent does your job permit you to decide on your own about how you go about your work?

In welchem Ausmaß erlaubt es Ihnen Ihr Job, dass Sie selbst entscheiden, wie Sie Ihre Arbeit angehen?

Time Pressure at work by Semmer, Zapf and Dunckel (1999)

1. How often are you under time pressure at work?
Wie häufig stehen Sie bei der Arbeit unter Zeitdruck?
2. How often does it happen that you leave work later than planned because of too much work?
Wie oft kommt es vor, dass Sie wegen zu viel Arbeit später als geplant nach Hause gehen können?"

Appendix B (questionnaires)

Baseline questionnaire

Seite 01
Einleitung

Herzlich willkommen!

Ich freue mich sehr, dass Sie sich die Zeit für meine Befragung zum Thema Arbeitszufriedenheit nehmen! Sie tragen damit einen großen und wichtigen Teil zur Forschung in diesem Gebiet bei.

Alle Ihre Angaben sind selbstverständlich anonym und werden streng vertraulich behandelt.

Da Ihre Zeit sehr wertvoll ist, ist dieser Fragebogen sehr kurz gehalten und dauert jeden Tag nur 2-3 Minuten.

Der Fragebogen sollte ab heute an 10 aufeinanderfolgenden Tagen ausgefüllt werden. Sollten Sie einen Tag vergessen, machen Sie am nächsten Tag bitte wie gewohnt weiter.

Bitte wundern Sie sich nicht, dass es immer die gleichen Fragen sind – das soll so sein. :-)

Für Fragen oder Feedback, kontaktieren Sie mich bitte jederzeit gerne unter anna.ladner@gmx.net

Ein großes Danke für Ihre Mithilfe – und viel Spaß beim Ausfüllen meines Fragebogens!

-Anna Ladner-

1. In welchem Land leben Sie derzeit?☐ Deutschland☐ Österreich☐ Schweiz☐ Anderes Land: **2. Welchen Bildungsabschluss haben Sie?**

Bitte wählen Sie den höchsten Bildungsabschluss, den Sie bisher erreicht haben.

☐ Kein Abschluss☐ Pflichtschule☐ Polytechnische Schule☐ Abgeschlossene Lehre☐ Matura, Abitur, Hochschulreife☐ Fachhochschulabschluss☐ Bachelorstudium☐ Master-/Magisterstudium☐ Anderer Abschluss, und zwar: **3. Sie sind:**☐ Angestellt☐ Selbstständig☐ Beamtin/Beamter☐ Freie/r Dienstnehmer/in☐ Anderes, und zwar: **4. In welcher Sparte sind Sie tätig?**☐ Dienstleistung☐ Soziales☐ Schule/Bildung☐ Produktion☐ Handel☐ Verwaltung☐ Medizin☐ Anderes:☐

5. Wie lange arbeiten Sie bereits in Ihrem derzeitigen Unternehmen?

- ☐ weniger als 1 Jahr
☐ 1 Jahr bis 3 Jahre
☐ mehr als 3 Jahre
☐ mehr als 5 Jahre
☐ mehr als 10 Jahre
☐ mehr als 20 Jahre

6. Wie viele Stunden arbeiten Sie pro Woche?

Ich arbeite Stunden pro Woche.

7. Wie hoch ist ungefähr Ihr monatliches Nettoeinkommen?

Gemeint ist der Betrag, der sich aus allen Einkünften zusammensetzt und nach Abzug der Steuern und Sozialversicherungen übrig bleibt.

[Bitte auswählen] ▾

8. Wie alt sind Sie?

Ich bin Jahre alt.

9. Was ist Ihr Geschlecht?

[Bitte auswählen] ▾

	Ausschließlich heterosexuell	Eher heterosexuell	Zu gleichen Teilen heterosexuell und lesbisch/schwul	Eher lesbisch/schwul	Ausschließlich lesbisch/schwul
Im Bezug auf meine sexuelle Orientierung sehe ich mich als...	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

10. Beurteilen Sie für folgende Aussagen bitte, wie sehr Sie ihnen zustimmen.

In meiner Arbeit...	Stimme gar nicht zu	Stimme nicht zu	Teils-teils	Stimme zu	Stimme vollkommen zu
...erfülle ich die Aufgaben, die von mir erwartet werden.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
...leite ich wichtige Informationen an meine KollegInnen weiter.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
...erfülle ich die mir aufgetragenen Aufgaben adequat.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
...gehe ich Probleme aktiv an.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
...tue ich normalerweise mehr als von mir verlangt wird.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
...suche ich oft nach Möglichkeiten, mir neue Fertigkeiten und neues Wissen anzueignen.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
...bevorzuge ich Situationen, in denen ein großes Maß an Können und Talent gefordert ist.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

11. Beurteilen Sie für folgende Aussagen bitte, wie sehr Sie ihnen zustimmen.

	Stimme gar nicht zu	Stimme nicht zu	Teils-teils	Stimme zu	Stimme vollkommen zu
Ich bin in der Lage, die meisten meiner Ziele zu erreichen.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Wenn schwierige Aufgaben anstehen, bin ich mir sicher, dass ich sie schaffen werde.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Verglichen mit anderen Leuten, erledige ich die meisten Aufgaben sehr gut.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Selbst wenn Sachen schwierig werden leiste ich gute Arbeit.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

12. Beurteilen Sie für folgende Aussagen bitte, wie sehr Sie ihnen zustimmen.

Die Aussagen beziehen sich nicht nur auf Berufliches, sondern sind allgemein zu verstehen.

	Stimme gar nicht zu	Stimme nicht zu	Teils-teils	Stimme zu	Stimme vollkommen zu
Ich fühle mich mental erschöpft.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Wenn ich jetzt in Versuchung geführt werden würde (etwas zu tun, das ich nicht tun sollte, z.B. zu betrügen, Schokolade zu essen etc.), würde es mir schwer fallen zu widerstehen.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Jetzt wäre eine gute Zeit, um eine wichtige Entscheidung zu treffen.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ich wünschte, ich könnte einfach eine Weile entspannen.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ich fühle mich ruhig und rational.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ich fühle mich faul.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

13. Beantworten Sie bitte folgende Fragen.

	Gar nicht	Selten	Manchmal	Oft	Immer
In welchem Ausmaß erlaubt es Ihnen Ihr Job, dass Sie selbst entscheiden, wie Sie Ihre Arbeit angehen?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
In welchem Ausmaß erlaubt es Ihnen Ihr Job, selbst zu entscheiden, wo Sie Ihre Arbeit machen?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

14. Beurteilen Sie für folgende Aussagen bitte, wie sehr Sie ihnen zustimmen.

	Nie/sehr selten	Selten (etwa 1x pro Woche)	Gelegentlich (etwa 1x pro Tag)	Oft (mehrmals pro Tag)	Sehr oft (fast immer)
Wie häufig stehen Sie bei der Arbeit unter Zeitdruck?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Wie oft kommt es vor, dass Sie wegen zu viel Arbeit später als geplant nach Hause gehen können?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

15. Beurteilen Sie für folgende Aussagen bitte, was auf Sie zutrifft.

	Sehr maskulin	Eher maskulin	Teils-teils	Eher feminin	Sehr feminin
Ich sehe mich selbst als...	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Idealerweise wäre ich gern...	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Traditionellerweise würden meine Interessen gesehen werden als...	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Traditionellerweise würden meine Einstellungen und Überzeugungen gesehen werden als...	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Traditionellerweise würde mein Verhalten gesehen werden als...	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Traditionellerweise würde mein Äußeres gesehen werden als...	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

16. Beurteilen Sie für folgende Aussagen bitte, wie sehr Sie ihnen zustimmen.

	Stimme gar nicht zu	Stimme nicht zu	Teils-teils	Stimme zu	Stimme vollkommen zu
Mein Geschlecht ist wichtig, um zu definieren, wer ich bin.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Mein Geschlecht beeinflusst, wie Leute sich mir gegenüber verhalten.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Mein Geschlecht trägt zu meinem Selbstbewusstsein bei.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Die meisten Leute beurteilen mich basierend auf meinem Geschlecht.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

17. Möchten Sie zu dieser Befragung oder zum besseren Verständnis Ihrer Antworten noch etwas anmerken?

Ist Ihnen während der Teilnahme an dieser Befragung etwas negativ aufgefallen? Waren die Fragen an einer Stelle nicht klar oder war Ihnen die Beantwortung unangenehm? Bitte schreiben Sie kurz ein paar Stichworte dazu.

Vielen herzlichen Dank für Ihre Teilnahme heute! Die Befragung dauert noch ein paar Tage - bitte bleiben Sie dran und füllen Sie diesen Fragebogen weiterhin täglich aus! Ihre Daten wurden gespeichert und Sie können das Fenster jetzt schließen. :-)

Diary study questionnaire

Seite 01
Einleitung

Herzlich willkommen!

Ich freue mich sehr, dass Sie sich die Zeit für meine Befragung zum Thema Arbeitszufriedenheit nehmen! Sie tragen damit einen großen und wichtigen Teil zur Forschung in diesem Gebiet bei.

Alle Ihre Angaben sind selbstverständlich anonym und werden streng vertraulich behandelt.

Da Ihre Zeit sehr wertvoll ist, ist dieser Fragebogen sehr kurz gehalten und dauert jeden Tag nur 2-3 Minuten.

Dieser Fragebogen sollte ab heute an 9 aufeinanderfolgenden Tagen ausgefüllt werden. Sollten Sie einen Tag vergessen, machen Sie am nächsten Tag bitte wie gewohnt weiter.

Bitte wundern Sie sich nicht, dass es immer die gleichen Fragen sind – das soll so sein. :-)

Für Fragen oder Feedback, kontaktieren Sie mich bitte jederzeit gerne unter anna.ladner@gmx.net

Ein großes Danke für Ihre Mithilfe – und viel Spaß beim Ausfüllen meines Fragebogens!

-Anna Ladner-

Seite 02
Baseline 2

1. Beurteilen Sie für folgende Aussagen bitte, wie sehr Sie ihnen zustimmen.

In meiner Arbeit...	Stimme gar nicht zu	Stimme nicht zu	Teils-teils	Stimme zu	Stimme vollkommen zu
...erfülle ich die Aufgaben, die von mir erwartet werden.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
...leite ich wichtige Informationen an meine KollegInnen weiter.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
...erfülle ich die mir aufgetragenen Aufgaben adequat.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
...gehe ich Probleme aktiv an.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
...tue ich normalerweise mehr als von mir verlangt wird.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
...suche ich oft nach Möglichkeiten, mir neue Fertigkeiten und neues Wissen anzueignen.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
...bevorzuge ich Situationen, in denen ein großes Maß an Können und Talent gefordert ist.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

2. Beurteilen Sie für folgende Aussagen bitte, wie sehr Sie ihnen zustimmen.

	Stimme gar nicht zu	Stimme nicht zu	Teils-teils	Stimme zu	Stimme vollkommen zu
Ich bin in der Lage, die meisten meiner Ziele zu erreichen.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Wenn schwierige Aufgaben anstehen, bin ich mir sicher, dass ich sie schaffen werde.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Verglichen mit anderen Leuten, erledige ich die meisten Aufgaben sehr gut.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Selbst wenn Sachen schwierig werden leiste ich gute Arbeit.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

3. Beurteilen Sie für folgende Aussagen bitte, wie sehr Sie ihnen zustimmen.

Die Aussagen beziehen sich nicht nur auf Berufliches, sondern sind allgemein zu verstehen.

	Stimme gar nicht zu	Stimme nicht zu	Teils-teils	Stimme zu	Stimme vollkommen zu
Ich fühle mich mental erschöpft.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Wenn ich jetzt in Versuchung geführt werden würde (etwas zu tun, das ich nicht tun sollte, z.B. zu betrügen, Schokolade zu essen etc.), würde es mir schwer fallen zu widerstehen.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Jetzt wäre eine gute Zeit, um eine wichtige Entscheidung zu treffen.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ich wünschte, ich könnte einfach eine Weile entspannen.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ich fühle mich ruhig und rational.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ich fühle mich faul.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

4. Beantworten Sie bitte folgende Fragen.

	Gar nicht	Selten	Manchmal	Oft	Immer
In welchem Ausmaß erlaubt es Ihnen Ihr Job, dass Sie selbst entscheiden, wie Sie Ihre Arbeit angehen?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
In welchem Ausmaß erlaubt es Ihnen Ihr Job, selbst zu entscheiden, wo Sie Ihre Arbeit machen?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

5. Beurteilen Sie für folgende Aussagen bitte, wie sehr Sie ihnen zustimmen.

	Nie/sehr selten	Selten (etwa 1x pro Woche)	Gelegentlich (etwa 1x pro Tag)	Oft (mehrmals pro Tag)	Sehr oft (fast immer)
Wie häufig stehen Sie bei der Arbeit unter Zeitdruck?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Wie oft kommt es vor, dass Sie wegen zu viel Arbeit später als geplant nach Hause gehen können?	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

6. Beurteilen Sie für folgende Aussagen bitte, was auf Sie zutrifft.

	Sehr maskulin	Eher maskulin	Teils-teils	Eher feminin	Sehr feminin
Ich sehe mich selbst als...	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Idealerweise wäre ich gern...	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Traditionellerweise würden meine Interessen gesehen werden als...	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Traditionellerweise würden meine Einstellungen und Überzeugungen gesehen werden als...	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Traditionellerweise würde mein Verhalten gesehen werden als...	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Traditionellerweise würde mein Äußeres gesehen werden als...	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

7. Beurteilen Sie für folgende Aussagen bitte, wie sehr Sie ihnen zustimmen.

	Stimme gar nicht zu	Stimme nicht zu	Teils-teils	Stimme zu	Stimme vollkommen zu
Mein Geschlecht ist wichtig, um zu definieren, wer ich bin.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Mein Geschlecht beeinflusst, wie Leute sich mir gegenüber verhalten.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Mein Geschlecht trägt zu meinem Selbstbewusstsein bei.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
Die meisten Leute beurteilen mich basierend auf meinem Geschlecht.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

8. Möchten Sie zu dieser Befragung oder zum besseren Verständnis Ihrer Antworten noch etwas anmerken?

Ist Ihnen während der Teilnahme an dieser Befragung etwas negativ aufgefallen? Waren die Fragen an einer Stelle nicht klar oder war Ihnen die Beantwortung unangenehm? Bitte schreiben Sie kurz ein paar Stichworte dazu.

Vielen herzlichen Dank für Ihre Teilnahme heute! Die Befragung dauert noch ein paar Tage - bitte bleiben Sie dran und füllen Sie diesen Fragebogen weiterhin täglich aus! Ihre Daten wurden gespeichert und Sie können das Fenster jetzt schließen. :-)

Declaration of Authorship

I hereby declare that I am the sole author of this master thesis and that I have not used any sources other than those listed in the bibliography and identified as references.

I further declare that I have not submitted this thesis at any other institution in order to obtain a degree.

Anna Ladner

Vienna, 12 December 2018

Acknowledgements

This master thesis is the summit and end point of an intense time of academic flourishing. I am deeply grateful for the massive amount of knowledge I was able to gather during my time studying at the University of Vienna and I am proud of my accomplishments.

I am happy to call the *University of Vienna* my alma mater and I would like to thank every one of my teachers and colleagues who have contributed to my studies being such a wonderful experience. I would also like to thank the *University of Chicago* where part of this master thesis came to be, and that allowed me to widen my academic horizons even further.

My academic journey was facilitated by many wonderful people whom I owe my most profound gratitude.

My *mom and dad*, who have always been, and will always be, my truest supporters. You are undoubtedly the biggest role models in my life. I am proud to be your daughter and will be even prouder one day when I see that I have, in many ways, become like you. Your strength and loyalty is highly appreciated.

Martin, my baby brother. I am very lucky to have you in my life and to look back on a rich history together. You are an incredible person and deserve respect for the many things you have accomplished.

Ned, my other brother, thanks for always being in my corner. You have stood by me through very tough times and have kept me afloat with your ever-creative pep talks and your unwavering support.

To all of you as well as *the most wonderful friends* a person could hope for, I would like to say: Thank you for being there for me – especially in times when you didn't share my opinion or when loyalty was difficult. I love you even more for honestly telling me when I was wrong and for sticking with me while I was correcting my mistakes.

No one accomplishes anything all on their own. And it is very important to me to thank *all the extraordinary women* whose backs and hard work this research is built on. It takes incredible strength to overcome the biases not only society holds against us but that we have so deeply internalized ourselves. I tip my hat off to each and every single one of you. Your ambition, strength and determination will always inspire me.

Today I can proudly look back on my accomplishments and at the same time look ahead with the utmost optimism for a brighter future – not only for women but for society as a whole.

Yours faithfully,
Anna