Egalitarian yet Unequal? Gender Stereotyping in Romantic Relationships

by

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I hereby declare that I am the sole author of this thesis. This is a true copy of the thesis, including any required final revisions, as accepted by my examiners.

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Abstract

In three studies (Ns = 225, 182, 378), heterosexual participants reported their career / family priorities, plus those of their romantic partner, in 10-15 years. Predictions for romantic partners' career / family goals were more gender-traditional than self-reports, indicating an over-reliance on gender stereotypes when perceiving partners. This pattern was stronger amongst those espousing gender-traditionalism in their romantic relationship. In dyadic Study 3, self-reports and partner perceptions were directly compared (e.g., his perception of her goals versus her self-reported goals), revealing broadly accurate predictions about partners, as well as assumed similarity. Preliminary results may indicate higher accuracy amongst gender-traditionalists than those endorsing egalitarianism. Romantic partners play a key role in supporting or hindering each other's goal achievement (Kvitkovičová, Umemura, & Macek, 2017), with individuals in relationships with goal-supportive partners experiencing greater relationship and life satisfaction (Overall, Fletcher, & Simpson, 2010). Accurate detection of goals is a prerequisite to appropriate deployment of support, so reliable monitoring of partner goals is an essential element in strong relationships.

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CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

Like most working women of my generation, I've experienced the problems of

reconstructing family life around expectations that were new and not yet fully explored.

Even when both parties have the best intentions, male expectations of an earlier era are

hard to live down in the heart, particularly when there are children. (Nussbaum, 2018)

Changing landscapes

Traditional gender norms have historically prescribed resource allocation toward goals

congruent with gender-stereotypes and constrained the pursuit of stereotype-incongruent goals

(Brescoll & Uhlmann, 2005; Duindam, 1999; Meeussen, Veldman, & Van Laar, 2016). Yet

gender stereotypes have increasingly had a decreased impact on resource allocation, with women

now funneling markedly more resources toward career-oriented goals than in past decades (e.g.,

working full-time outside of the home; Finkel, Hui, Carswell, & Larson, 2014) and men

contributing increased time in service of domestic and childcare duties (Bianchi et al., 2006).

These trends toward equality, however, mask an enduring, yet subtler imbalance:

Women's increased participation in the labour market has outpaced their reduction in domestic

responsibilities (England 2010; England & Farkas 1986; Meeussen et al., 2016). Indeed, even

women working full-time jobs in dual-earner marriages face this phenomenon, termed "the

second shift" (Hochschild & Machung, 2012), donating 50% more time toward domestic duties

than comparable men (Statistics Canada, 2010), and bearing an unequal responsibility of

domestic duties even when they push for equality (Mannino & Deutsch, 2007). Further, these

extra demands upon women to devote resources toward family-oriented goals curtails women's

long-term pursuit of career-oriented goals (Franks, Schurink, & Fourie, 2006), despite men

experiencing no such decline in career advancement associated with family-oriented goal pursuit (Mayrhofer et al., 2007).

Gender norms are especially problematic for women pursuing norm-incongruent careers: High-achieving women often express dissatisfaction with the career versus family trade-offs they face, reporting more work/family conflict and limited career opportunities than men (Diekman, Brown, Johnston, & Clark, 2010; Emslie & Hunt, 2009). Working in a stereotype-incongruent sector (e.g., engineering, sciences) also leads to reduced support from relationship partners, as those in more "feminine" careers are looked upon favourably for ostensibly cultivating greater communality and nurturance, skills that indirectly aid family-oriented goals (Diekman et al., 2010). Women in relationships with men who endorse benevolently sexist beliefs also face a more insidious erosion of their felt competence, because these ostensibly positive and protective attitudes cue a lack of faith in their agency and abilities (Hammond & Overall, 2015), negatively impacting their long-term goal-related efficacy (Bolger, Zuckerman, & Kessler, 2000; Howland & Simpson, 2010; Overall, Girme, & Simpson, 2016). Moreover, career-oriented women whose male romantic partners hold gender-stereotypic expectations about women's domestic duties suffer poorer health outcomes (vs. career-oriented women in more egalitarian relationships; Eek & Axmon, 2015).

Despite these imbalanced expectations for men and women, the influence of prescriptive gender norms on goal pursuit has been largely overlooked (Meeussen et al., 2016), with scholars of gender inequality instead focusing on individual differences (Gino, Wilmuth, & Brooks, 2015; Williams & Ceci, 2012) and broader institutional constructs (e.g., wage and hiring discrimination; Heilman & Eagly, 2008; Riach & Rich, 2002; Sayer, 2005). Moreover, given that 93% of Canadian women enter legal or common-law marriages to men over their lifespan

(Statistics Canada, 2011), heterosexual relationships are a unique crucible within which ostensibly "complementary" gender stereotypes serve to reinforce longstanding traditional roles. We have thus exclusively studied men and women in heterosexual relationships.

Optimistic predictions

Despite deeply entrenched inequalities in the dedication of resources toward career- and family-oriented goals within romantic relationships, young adults' predictions are decoupled from the reality currently faced by middle-aged adults. Indeed, many young people (especially women) predict that their career will receive equal prioritization as their partner's career (Ely, Stone, & Ammerman, 2014; Galliher, Rostosky, Welsh, & Kawaguchi, 1999), despite widely-available census data revealing the broad adherence of middle-aged adults to traditional gender norms within heterosexual couples (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2013; Coltrane, 2000).

Conceivably, young adults may erroneously rely on convergent current achievements between men and women (e.g., bachelor's degrees; Statistics Canada, 2016) when forecasting future roles for themselves and their romantic partners. Alternatively, they may recognize the gender inequity present among mid-career couples, but nevertheless believe that they or their cohort will not experience equally constraining gender norms. Demographic trends, however, indicate that millennials' predictions are indeed overly optimistic: Today's generation of young adults will likely face blunted, yet still pervasive, gender inequality (Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2013). Accordingly, we propose that men and women (erroneously) predict equal prioritization of their own career and their partner's.

Interdependence of goals

We propose an additional factor moderating the relatively poor predicting abilities of young adults: accurately identifying the goals of their romantic partners. Specifically, although young adults may rely on egalitarian ideals when making abstract predictions for *their* futures, when making predictions for their romantic partners, they may rely upon implicit gender norms and stereotypes rather than personalized information unique to their partner.

Inaccurate predictions may have serious consequences, insofar as members of interdependent relationships (Holmes, 2002) act as a singular unit to determine resource allocation toward joint (and individual) goals, a phenomenon known as transactive goal dynamics (Fitzsimons, Finkel, & vanDellen, 2015). Each member can contribute resources toward goals either directly (e.g., a wife getting a second job to bring in more income) or indirectly (e.g., a wife shouldering a greater burden of domestic duties so that her husband may spend more time at work). These systems are advantageous, as it allows for couples to pool resources and "share the load" of effort that is required for goal completion. Moreover, having a partner aid in one's goal pursuit pays hefty dividends above and beyond the pure transaction of resources: Having a goal-supportive partner is a marker of improved individual health and relationship satisfaction (Overall, Fletcher, & Simpson, 2010).

However, having a partner who can *accurately* identify (or, better yet, anticipate) one's goals is a necessary first step toward receiving their goal-appropriate support. Indeed, one's romantic partner tends to hold more influence over future goal-related pursuits than anyone else (Kvitkovičová, Umemura, & Macek, 2017), and can significantly expand or limit resource donation toward personal goals (Emmons & King, 1988). Therefore, errors in predicting romantic partners' preferences and future behaviours can markedly disrupt progress toward

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career and family goals. We propose that young adults are relatively poorly attuned to the future career and family goals of their romantic partners, and in relying on stereotypes and norms to fill in the gaps, they cannot accurately predict how their romantic partner will influence their future balance of career and family goals. We therefore hypothesize that both men and women make more gender-stereotypic partner-predictions (predictions about partners) than self-reports.

Within our dyadic Study 3, we used the truth and bias framework (West & Kenny, 2011), to parse the influence of two systematic factors on partner-predictions: "truth" or accurate detection of partner goals, and "bias" or the projected influence of one's own goals (based assuming similarity, or dissimilarity, to one's partner). Accuracy, or the ability of participants to distinguish their partners' self-reports from all others', has both a magnitude and a sign (indicating significant accuracy or inaccuracy).

In a similar fashion, projection indicates a *directed* inaccuracy, with either a positive (assuming that one's goals are the same as one's partner) or a negative (assuming complementary goals) sign. A plausible basis for negative projection comes from the literature on gender-traditional beliefs, such as benevolent sexism (the belief that men and women fulfill distinct, yet complementary roles within society; Jost & Kay, 2005). Namely, people ascribe women nurturing, communal traits well suited for domestic and family-oriented goals, and men independent and agentic traits well suited to career-oriented goals (Eagly & Mladinic, 1994; Glick & Fiske, 2001). Thus, an individual endorsing gender-traditional beliefs would hypothetically have a strong negative bias when predicting partner goals: Women would predict that their male partners have stronger career goals than they actually do, and men would predict that their female partners are more family oriented.

Power asymmetries

A partner possessing the ability to accurately identify one's goals is merely the first step toward the possibility of pursuing joint goals. Once goals have been identified, the couple either explicitly or implicitly negotiates the proportion of resources devoted toward it. Power asymmetries markedly influence these resource flows, with higher-power partners exerting greater influence over such negotiations (Dunbar & Burgoon, 2005). Within the context of a dyadic relationship, power is experienced as one's relative ability to obtain goals through controlling the flow of resources by simultaneously advancing one's agenda while fending off the desires of one's partner (Galinsky, Magee, Gruenfeld, Whitson, & Liljenquist, 2008).

Importantly, perceptions of power vary by domain (career vs. family). In general, male partners have the preponderance of influence over material and financial resources, and female partners are often perceived to hold sway over the realm of emotional resources within the family, such as intimacy and communality (Safilios-Rothschild, 1976; Safilios-Rothschild, 1977). However, this distribution of power may be in flux; for example, women often report deferring to the opinions of their husbands, even within the traditionally female-centric domain of the home (Tichenor, 2005). Indeed, women may plausibly experience higher power in the career domain through strongly prioritizing their education and career goals (Peplau & Rook1978). In other words, it may be that relationship partners have a gender-traditional arrangement within one, two, or neither domain. We have therefore operationalized relational power within both domains, retaining independent measures.

Importantly, male control over the career domain and female control over the family domain are in line with traditional gender relationship models (with equal power or the non-stereotypic partner having control representing non-traditional beliefs). Gender-traditionalism is

therefore hypothesized to be associated with increased gender-stereotyping of one's romantic partner in the relevant domain. Should a man hold strongly traditional beliefs in the career domain, we predict that he will gender-stereotype his romantic partner as having relatively weak career goals. Conversely, a man holding non-traditional beliefs in the career domain may predict his female partner will have moderate (or even strong) career goals.

Should gender-traditionalists make gender-stereotypic predictions about their romantic partners, these predictions may be accurate: Gender-traditionalists may accurately predict that their partners would also prefer a gender-traditional future. However, insofar as the majority of young adults are hypothesized to predict egalitarian futures, gender-stereotypic predictions are overall less than likely to be accurate (barring perfect matching of gender-traditionalism within romantic relationships). Within dyadic Study 3, when comparing predictions about partners to partner's actual reports, we predicted that those with gender-traditional beliefs would have lower accuracy than those less ardently espousing gender-traditionalism.

Overview of studies

To capture the beliefs of young men and women about their personal career and family goal pursuit we employed an exploratory series of questionnaires in Study 1. Within Study 2, we expanded our questionnaires to more comprehensively ask about participants' predictions regarding their romantic partner (or future romantic partner). Finally, we employed a dyadic design within Study 3 to directly test the accuracy of participant's predictions for their romantic partners. Across all studies, we predict more stereotyping of partners than oneself, and that those anticipating a gender-traditional arrangement will gender-stereotype their partners relatively more. Furthermore, in dyadic Study 3, we predict increased assumed complementarity and decreased accuracy amongst traditionalists.

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CHAPTER TWO: GENDERED PREDICTION GAPS

In Study 1, we surveyed the personal career / family goals of single and partnered participants, as well as their endorsement of gender-traditional career prioritization.

Method

Participants and protocol. Initially, 264 undergraduates participated for course credit. Analyses excluded 10 participants who did not follow instructions and 29 who predicted being in a non-heterosexual relationship in 10 to 15 years (or did not report partner gender). The final sample consisted of 225 participants (141 female, 84 male; $M_{age}= 21$, $Mdn_{age}= 20$, 73% non-Psychology majors).

Post-consent, participants completed demographics (age, gender, academic major) and relationship status questionnaires. Participants currently in a relationship ($n = 107$), as opposed to single ($n = 118$), were asked whether they envisioned themselves still together with their current relationship partner in 10 to 15 years (*yes* or *no*). Those who responded *yes* ($n = 85$) answered all subsequent questions regarding their current partner; all others answered subsequent questions regarding their ideal "future romantic partner." Personal and romantic partner predictions followed, then career / family goals, then sacrifice willingness.

Measures. Analyzed outcomes are from a larger study.

Personal & romantic partner predictions. To deepen engagement with the following measures, participants imagined their ideal career in 10 to 15 years. They then reported the required years of higher education; the likelihood of achieving this career, from 1 (*extremely unlikely*) to 7 (*extremely likely*); and required effort, from 1 (*much less than I am right now*) to 5 *much more than I am right now;* see Appendix A). Then, participants imagined the career of

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their romantic partner, and reported whose career would likely be prioritized, from 1 (*definitely mine*) to 5 (*definitely [partner's name]*).

Career and family goals. Seven items adapted from Amatea, Cross, Clark, and Bobby (1986) were used to assess abstract career goals (3 items; α = .71) and family goals (4 items; α = .84). Participants rated each item (e.g., "I expect my job/career to give me more real satisfaction than anything else I do"), from 1 (*completely disagree*) to 7 (*completely agree;* see Appendix C).

Career versus family sacrifices. They then rated their personal willingness, from 1 (*extremely unwilling*) to 7 (*extremely willing*), to make family-over-career (or "pro-family") sacrifices (e.g., "Take time off from work to look after sick children or family members"), and the reverse, namely, career-over-family (or "pro-career") sacrifices (e.g., "Miss a family member's birthday due to work travel"). They then completed these willingness-to-sacrifice measures for their romantic partner (see Appendix D).

Results

Analytic approach. Chi-square tests were used to check for gender differences on categorical variables. Continuous variables were assessed using analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) with primary predictors as factors and partner type as a covariate (importantly, by default, ANCOVA includes the covariate by within-subjects factor interaction term). Within the general linear model framework, results of these ANCOVAs are reported using the corresponding unstandardized regression parameters (*b*s) to facilitate comparison with later studies. Gender was effects-coded (-1 = female, +1 = male), as was partner type (-1 = imagined partner, +1 = actual partner). To aid interpretation, all continuous outcomes and moderators were standardized, so lower-order effects in moderation models represent main effects and intercepts

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represent the mean of the sample. Interactions were primarily examined by dummy-coding career traditionalism, then dummy-coding gender. Intercept tests were done using a general linear model with the same predictors (and covariate) structure.

Partner type. Men and women did not significantly differ on type of partner (imagined or actual), $\chi^2 (1, N = 225) < 1$, $p = .437$, or current relationship status (single vs. partnered), $\chi^2 (1, N = 225) = 1.19$, $p = .276$.

Career prioritization. Prior to analysis, reports of whose career would be prioritized were recoded on the basis of participant gender, from -2 (definitely hers) to +2 (definitely his). Given the paucity of individuals selecting that they would "definitely" prioritize the male (6%) or female (3%) partner's career, these categories were collapsed with the "likely" prioritizing male and female partner's career categories, respectively, thus trichotomizing the measure. The majority of participants (56%) reported equally prioritizing both partner's careers, whereas 9% reported they would prioritize the female partner's career, and 35% the male partner's career. These distributions did not differ by participant gender, $\chi^2 (2, N = 224) = 1.75$, $p = .417$.

Career traditionalism. Where used as a binary predictor variable, career prioritization was reshaped into a measure of *career traditionalism* by recoding male-prioritizing participants as "traditionalists," and combining female-prioritizing and egalitarian participants as "non-traditionalists." The cut points used not only provide less uneven distributions (increasing power, see Cohen, Cohen, West, & Aiken, 2003), but also follow from traditional gender norms dictating that male careers take precedence over female careers (rendering both equal career prioritization and female career prioritization non-traditional). Career traditionalism was effects coded (-1 = non-traditionalists: definitely/likely prioritizing her career or both equally, $n = 146$)

and (+1 = career traditionalists: definitely/likely prioritizing his career, $n = 78$). Career traditionalism did not differ by participant gender, $\chi^2 (1, N = 224) = 0.64$, $p = .426$.

Own career attributes. As we predicted more gender-stereotypic responses for those envisioning traditional (vs. non-traditional) resource acquisition in their future romantic relationship, we tested predicted careers using a 2 (gender) x 2 (career traditionalism) ANOVA.

Career attainment. Predicted likelihood of achieving one's own career marginally varied by career traditionalism, $b = 0.13$, $SE = 0.07$, $t(220) = 1.81$, $p = .071$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$, with career traditionalists estimating descriptively higher likelihood of career attainment. Contrary to hypotheses that men would predict a higher likelihood of career attainment, there was no main effect of gender, $t(220) < 1$, $\eta_p^2 < .01$, and a non-significant interaction, $b = 0.11$, $SE = 0.07$, $t(220) = 1.50$, $p = .135$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$.

Required effort. The effort required to achieve careers did not significantly vary by gender, career traditionalism, or their interaction, all ts$(220) < 1$, all η_p^2s $< .01$.

Education. Required education did not differ by gender or career traditionalism, ts(220) < 1, η_p^2s $< .01$, or their interaction, $b = 0.10$, $SE = 0.07$, $t(220) = 1.43$, $p = .155$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$.

Career and family abstract goals. Abstract goals were examined using an analysis of covariance (ANCOVA) with participant gender and career traditionalism (traditionalist or non-traditionalist) as predictors. Partner type and cross-domain goals were used as covariates, and not interpreted further.

Career goals. Gender and career traditionalism significantly interacted to predict career goals, $b = 0.21$, $SE = 0.07$, $t(217) = 2.96$, $p = .003$, $\eta_p^2 = .04$, but no other terms reached significance, ps $> .167$. Career non-traditionalist men and women did not differ on strength of career goals, $b = -0.11$, $SE = 0.08$, $t(217) = -1.33$, $p = .186$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$, but traditionalists did, $b =$

0.30, $SE = 0.11$, $t(217) = 2.71$, $p = .007$, $\eta_p^2 = .03$. Specifically, in line with hypothesized stereotypicality of responses, career traditionalist men's career goals marginally exceeded the sample mean, $b = 0.30$, $SE = 0.17$, $t(217) = 1.72$, $p = .088$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$, and women's significantly undercut it, $b = -0.31$, $SE = 0.14$, $t(217) = -2.15$, $p = .033$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$.

Family goals. The gender-by-career traditionalism interaction was marginally significant, $b = -0.13$, $SE = 0.07$, $t(217) = -1.84$, $p = .067$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$, and career traditionalism was significantly associated with family goals in this model, $b = 0.16$, $SE = 0.07$, $t(217) = 2.36$, $p = .019$, $\eta_p^2 = .03$. Per an a priori interest in this gender by career traditionalism interaction, it was decomposed. Career non-traditionalists' family goals did not significantly differ on the basis of their gender, as hypothesized, $b = 0.13$, $SE = 0.08$, $t(217) = 1.59$, $p = .114$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$, however, contrary to hypotheses, neither did traditionalists', $b = -0.13$, $SE = 0.11$, $t(217) = -1.13$, $p = .259$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$.

Self versus partner career and family sacrifices. We created composites for personal and predicted partner willingness to make pro-career sacrifices (4 items, respective αs = .70, .77) and pro-family sacrifices (4 items, αs = .72, .78). These composites correlated negatively, but not significantly, for both self-reports, $r(225) = -.12$, $p = .078$, and partner-predictions, $r(223) = -.07$, $p = .274$. The relationship between self-reports and partner-predictions was tested using an ANCOVA with participant gender, career traditionalism, and target of prediction (within-participants: self or partner) as predictors. Partner type was again included as a covariate.

Pro-career sacrifices. Predicted willingness to make career-over-family sacrifices revealed a significant target-by-gender interaction, $F(1, 217) = 37.46$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .15$, as well as a significant three-way interaction, $F(1, 217) = 8.99$, $p = .003$, $\eta_p^2 = .04$. No other parameters reached significance, $ps > .238$. Career non-traditionalists showed a significant target-by-gender

interaction, $F(1, 217) = 6.78$, $p = .010$, $\eta_p^2 = .03$, and no significant simple effects of target or gender, $ps > .200$. Specifically, even non-traditional men thought they would make significantly more pro-career sacrifices than their female partners, $F(1, 217) = 5.89$, $p = .016$, $\eta_p^2 = .03$, although they did not significantly stereotype themselves or partners (relative to the mean of the sample) for self-reports, $b = 0.14$, $SE = 0.14$, $t(217) = 1.01$, $p = .315$, $\eta_p^2 < .01$, or partner-predictions, $b = -0.20$, $SE = 0.14$, $t(217) = 1.42$, $p = .158$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$ (notably, stereotypes about partners were descriptively stronger). Conversely, in line with hypotheses, predictions made by non-traditional women did not differ for self versus partner, $F(1, 217) = 1.10$, $p = .294$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$ (and again, neither intercept differed from zero, $ps > .508$). Supplemental ANCOVAs examining self-reports and partner-predictions separately found that among male versus female career non-traditionalists, pro-career sacrifices did not differ for self-reports, $b = 0.10$, $SE = 0.08$, $t(217) = 1.22$, $p = .224$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$, or partner-predictions, $b = -0.12$, $SE = 0.09$, $t(217) = 1.39$, $p = .167$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$

Career traditionalists also showed a significant target-by-gender interaction, $F(1, 217) = 32.50$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .13$, and non-significant effects of target, $F(1, 217) < 1$, $p = .766$, $\eta_p^2 < .01$, and gender, $F(1, 217) = 1.95$, $p = .164$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$. Male traditionalists' self-reports were significantly higher than their partner-predictions, $F(1, 217) = 12.30$, $p = .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .05$, with the former significantly gender-stereotypic, $b = 0.51$, $SE = 0.17$, $t(217) = 2.93$, $p = .004$, $\eta_p^2 = .04$, but not the latter, $b = -0.11$, $SE = 0.18$, $t(217) = 0.60$, $p = .548$, $\eta_p^2 < .01$. Female traditionalists also considered their male partner significantly more pro-career than themselves, $F(1, 217) = 22.13$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .09$, again significantly self-stereotyping, $b = -0.41$, $SE = 0.14$, $t(217) = 2.89$, $p = .004$, $\eta_p^2 = .04$, but not significantly stereotyping their partner, $b = 0.27$, $SE = 0.15$, $t(217) = 1.83$, $p = .069$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$. Supplemental ANCOVAs found that predicted career-over-

family sacrifices among male versus female career traditionalists diverged along gender-stereotypic lines significantly for self-reports, $b = 0.46$, $SE = 0.11$, $t(217) = 4.10$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .07$, and marginally for partner-predictions, $b = -0.19$, $SE = 0.11$, $t(217) = 1.63$, $p = .105$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$.

Pro-family sacrifices. The target-by-gender interaction, $F(1, 217) = 73.71$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .25$, and the main effect of gender, $F(1, 217) = 17.58$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .07$ were significant, qualified by the interaction of target, gender, and career traditionalism, $F(1, 217) = 54.64$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .20$. No other effects were significant, $ps > .116$.

Career non-traditionalists' effect of target was not moderated by gender, $F(1, 217) = 1.00$, $p = .318$, $\eta_p^2 < .01$. Career traditionalists, in contrast, had a significant target-by-gender interaction, $F(1, 217) = 99.76$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .31$, as well as a simple effect of gender, $F(1, 217) = 4.06$, $p = .045$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$, but no significant simple effect of target, $F(1, 217) = 0.30$, $p = .583$, $\eta_p^2 < .01$. Traditional men deemed their partner significantly more pro-family than themselves, $F(1, 217) = 37.53$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .15$, significantly stereotyping their partner (relative to the sample mean), $b = 0.90$, $SE = 0.16$, $t(217) = 5.74$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .13$, but not themselves, $b = -0.16$, $SE = 0.17$, $t(217) = 0.95$, $p = .345$, $\eta_p^2 = .00$. Women espousing career traditionalism, in turn, also reported they were significantly more pro-family than their male partner, $F(1, 217) = 68.27$, $\eta_p^2 = .24$, although they significantly stereotyped both themselves, $b = 0.60$, $SE = 0.14$, $t(217) = 4.33$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .08$, and their partners, $b = -0.58$, $SE = 0.13$, $t(217) = 4.47$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .08$. Supplemental ANCOVAs found that predicted family-over-career sacrifices among male versus female career traditionalists diverged along gender-stereotypic lines for both self-reports, $b = -0.38$, $SE = 0.11$, $t(217) = 3.49$, $p = .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .05$, and even more strongly for partner-predictions, $b = 0.74$, $SE = 0.10$, $t(217) = 7.28$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .20$.

Discussion

The majority of participants (56%) reported equally prioritizing both partner's careers, a metric that did not significantly differ by gender. In general, men and women also made comparable predictions about their future careers, predicting similar likelihood of attaining their ideal career track, years of education required, and effort required (regardless of career traditionalism). Overall, career traditionalist men and women tended to report gender-stereotypic career goals, but non-traditionalists made more moderate reports (results for family goals were less clear-cut). Relative to career non-traditionalists, traditionalists engaged in more gender stereotyping about predicted willingness to make career-over-family and family-over-career sacrifices.

CHAPTER THREE: GENDER-STEREOTYPIC PARTNER PERCEPTIONS

In Study 2, we employed a more conservative test of partner type by asking participants simply to imagine their future partner (if applicable), rather than their "ideal" future partner. Further, we expanded the list of questions tapping anticipated career attributes, added a set of items on household and childcare priorities, as well as asking all predictions for self and partner.

Method

Participants and protocol. Initially, 209 undergraduates participated for course credit. Analyses excluded 7 participants due to non-compliance with study protocols and 20 for reporting a potential non-heterosexual relationship in the future (or not reporting partner gender). The final sample consisted of 182 participants (89 female, 93 male; $M_{age} = 21$, $Mdn_{age} = 21$, 82% non-Psychology students).

Participants currently in a relationship were again asked if they could envision still being with this partner in 10-15 years, with those saying yes ($n = 62$) making predictions regarding their current partner; those who were single ($n = 105$) or not expecting to be with their current partner in 10-15 years ($n = 15$) answered regarding "your future partner."

In addition to the measures described in Study 1, participants also made several additional predictions regarding their and their romantic partner's career attributes, with expanded measures tapping anticipated participation in domestic labour directly following. We also added a new item on each subscale for career-over-family and family-over-career sacrifices.

Career attributes. For both their predicted career and their romantic partner's predicted career, participants used 5-point Likert scales to predict the number of hours spent at work per week from 1 (*much less than 40 hours*) to 5 (*much more than 40 hours*), salary from 1 (*less than 50,000*) to 5 (*more than 125,000*), work-related travel per year from 1 (*0 nights*) to 5 (*more than 10 nights*), workplace location from 1 (*entirely at home*) to 5 (*entirely in the office*), and required innate talent from 1 (*no innate talent*) to 5 (*extraordinary innate talent*). See Appendix A.

Division of household and childcare labour. Participants predicted the percentage of general household—and, if predicting at least one child, childcare duties—that they, their romantic partner, and "another person" were likely to do (adapted from Bureau of Labor Statistics, 2015).

Specific household and childcare tasks. Unlike these career predictions, family tasks tend to be zero-sum. For example, if one partner takes out the trash, the other partner need not do so. Additionally, although the predicted level of income was of theoretical interest, the predicted amount of trash (for example), was not. Therefore, the following measures were thus captured on continua from oneself doing all labour, to the partner doing all labour. They rated from 1

(*always you*) to 5 (*always [partner name]*), who would do a variety of specific domestic and childcare tasks (e.g., "doing laundry," "coaching [children's] sports teams"). All participants completed predictions for various household tasks, and participants who predicted they would have at least one child within 10 to 15 years also completed predictions regarding various childcare tasks. See Appendix B.

Results

Analytic approach. As in Study 1, gender was effects-coded (-1 *female*, +1 *male*), partner type (-1 *imagined partner*, +1 *actual partner*), and career traditionalism (-1 *non-traditionalist*, +1 *traditionalist*) in all analyses.

To test personal versus partner career predictions, we used factorial repeated-measures models with participant gender, traditionalism, and target of prediction (within-subjects: self or partner). Partner type (between-subjects: imagined or actual) was retained as a covariate—including its main effect and interaction with target—however these parameters were not interpreted (see **Error! Reference source not found.**X for full details). All continuous variables were standardized, and highest-order interactions were primarily investigated using dummy-coded traditionalism, then dummy-coded gender.

Partner type. In contrast to Study 1, men and women significantly differed on current relationship status (single vs. partnered), χ^2 (1, $N = 182$) = 6.28, $p = .012$, with 52% of women in relationships and 33% of men. Accounting for predicted relationship persistence 10-15 years in the future, type of partner likewise significantly varied by gender, χ^2 (1, $N = 182$) = 7.38, $p = .007$, with 44% of women reporting on their actual partner, and only 25% of men.

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Career prioritization. The "definitely" categories (3% definitely female, 4% definitely male partner's) were again collapsed with the "likely" categories. Trichotomized career prioritization did not differ by participant gender, χ^2 (2, $N = 181$) < 1, with 12% reporting female-prioritization, 29% male-prioritization, and 59% equal prioritization.

Career traditionalism. Female- and equal prioritization were again coded as "non-traditional" career prioritization ($n = 128$), and male-prioritization as "traditional" career prioritization ($n = 53$) in all following analyses. This measure did not differ by participant gender, χ^2 (1, $N = 181$) < 0.01, $p = .984$

Division of household and childcare labour. For these two new DVs, self and partner percentage effort toward household and childcare tasks were recoded based on participant gender into female and male percentages, then a difference score was created (by subtracting the male percentage from the female percentage). Outliers more than 3 SDs from the mean were then removed (2 women, 1 man, all below the mean of the sample). To test gender differences in predicted household and childcare distributions of labour, the two variables were first standardized (primarily to account for the highly variable percentage toward "another person").

A general linear model predicting household division of labour by participant gender, covarying for the percentage of tasks allocated to a third party (and for partner type), revealed that men and women made comparable reports, $b = -0.03$, $SE = 0.08$, $t(165) = 0.40$, $p = .690$, η_p^2 < .01. An analogous model of childcare division of labour indicated the same non-significant effect of gender, $b = -0.04$, $SE = 0.08$, $t(140) = 0.51$, $p = .611$, $\eta_p^2 = 0.00$.

Family traditionalism. To create a composite measure of family traditionalism, the unstandardized household and childcare percentage measures were first summed (excluding participants who did not report childcare predictions). In this fashion, the total distribution of

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domestic labour across the male and female partner was rolled into a singular measure, which was then effects-coded into family traditionalism (-1 = *family non-traditionalist*: equal contribution or higher male percentage, $n = 64$; +1 = *family traditionalist*: higher female percentage, $n = 78$). Family traditionalism did not differ by participant gender, $\chi^2(1, N = 142) = 0.63$, $p = .427$.

Career by family traditionalism. The relationship between career traditionalism and family traditionalism was tested independently for each gender. For women, $\chi^2(1, N = 74) = 3.43$, $p = .064$, and for men, $\chi^2(1, N = 68) = 3.03$, $p = .082$, career traditionalism was marginally associated with family traditionalism.

Female- and male- stereotypic tasks. The twenty-four household and childcare tasks (see Appendix B) were first recoded by participant gender, from -2 (always male partner) to +2 (always female partner)*,* then averaged within the two gender-stereotypic task subscales: female-stereotypic (14 items, $\alpha = .78$), and male-stereotypic (10 items, $\alpha = .60$). Thus, positive intercepts indicate the female partner doing more than the male partner (and negative intercepts, the male partner doing more). As we hypothesized the domain-relevant form of traditionalism, family traditionalism in overall division of labour, would impact gender-stereotypic task predictions, we used general linear models with gender, family traditionalism, and their interaction (plus partner type as a covariate).

Female-stereotypic tasks. Analyses revealed a marginal gender-by-traditionalism interaction, $b = -0.05$, $SE = 0.02$, $t(137) = 1.92$, $p = .057$, $\eta_p^2 = .03$. Notably, the significantly positive intercept, $b = 0.26$, $SE = 0.03$, $t(137) = 10.29$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .44$, indicated that, on average, participants predicted that women would do more of the female-stereotypic tasks than men. More precisely, family non-traditionalists did not differ by their gender, $b = -0.01$, $SE =$

0.04, $t(137) = -0.34$, $p = .738$, $\eta_p^2 = .00$, consistently reporting that female partners would do significantly more than male partners, $b = 0.13$, $SE = 0.04$, $t(137) = 3.45$, $p = .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .08$. In line with our hypotheses, traditionalists did have a significant effect of gender, $b = -0.11$, $SE = 0.03$, $t(137) = -3.21$, $p = .002$, $\eta_p^2 = .07$, as well as a stronger positive intercept (than non-traditionalists), $b = 0.40$, $SE = 0.03$, $t(137) = 11.68$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .50$, indicating that female traditionalists predicted a significantly more uneven distribution than male traditionalists.

Male-stereotypic tasks. Predictions were significantly impacted by the interaction of gender and family traditionalism, $b = -0.08$, $SE = 0.03$, $t(137) = 2.46$, $p = .015$, $\eta_P^2 = .04$, and the positive intercept revealed that men were overall predicted to do a larger proportion than women, $b = -0.55$, $SE = 0.05$, $t(137) = 11.96$, $p < .001$, $\eta_P^2 = .51$. Family non-traditionalists did not differ by gender, $b = 0.05$, $SE = 0.05$, $t(137) = 1.12$, $p = .266$, $\eta_P^2 < .01$. However, among family traditionalists, male (vs. female) participants predicted that men would do an even larger proportion of the male-stereotypic tasks, $b = -0.11$, $SE = 0.04$, $t(137) = 2.42$, $p = .017$, $\eta_P^2 = .04$.

Own versus partner's career. The domain-relevant form of traditionalism, career traditionalism, and gender (as well as their interaction and partner type as a covariate), were used to predict this expanded list of career attributes for self and partner (within-subjects target).

Career attainment. The highest-level interaction, target (self or partner) by gender by career traditionalism, was significant, $F(1, 169) = 6.55$, $p = .011$, $\eta_P^2 = .04$, with a significant target by gender interaction, $F(1, 169) = 9.08$, $p = .003$, $\eta_P^2 = .05$. All other effects in the basic model were non-significant, $ps > .147$.

Career non-traditionalists consistently made equitable predictions, with no significant target by gender interaction, $F(1, 169) = 0.45$, $p = .504$, $\eta_P^2 < .01$, or simple effects of target and gender, $ps > .129$. However, the predictions made by traditionalists differed by the interaction of

gender and target, $F(1, 169) = 11.70$, $p = .001$, $\eta_P^2 = .06$ (but no main effects of target and gender, $ps > .478$).

Traditional men thought their careers were more attainable than their partner's $F(1, 169) = 8.34$, $p = .004$, $\eta_P^2 = .05$, although self-reports and partner-predictions did not reveal significant stereotyping, $ps > .064$. Traditional women also reported that male careers are more attainable, $F(1, 169) = 3.93$, $p = .049$, $\eta_P^2 = .02$, marginally gender-stereotyping their male partners, $b = 0.34$, $SE = 0.18$, $t(169) = 1.94$, $p = .054$, $\eta_P^2 = .02$, but not significantly self-stereotyping, $b = -0.09$, $SE = 0.19$, $t(169) = 0.47$, $p = .641$, $\eta_P^2 < .01$.

Required innate talent. In the basic model there was a significant interaction of target by gender, $F(1, 169) = 5.90$, $p = .016$, $\eta_P^2 = 0.03$, with no other effects reaching significance, $ps > .245$. Although men, $F(1, 169) = 3.09$, $p = .081$, $\eta_P^2 = .02$, and women, $F(1, 169) = 2.81$, $p = .095$, $\eta_P^2 = 0.02$, differed only marginally in their self-reports versus partner-predictions, descriptively, both men and women tended to make more gender-stereotypic predictions about their partners than themselves (e.g., his career requires more talent according to her than to him).

Hours per week. Target significantly interacted with gender, $F(1, 170) = 15.16$, $p < .001$, $\eta_P^2 = 0.08$, and there were additional effects of gender, $F(1, 170) = 4.44$, $p = .036$, $\eta_P^2 = 0.03$, and gender-by-career traditionalism, $F(1, 170) = 5.28$, $p = .023$, $\eta_P^2 = 0.03$. No other effects were significant, $ps > .069$, including the three-way interaction, $F(1, 170) = 0.25$, $p = .614$, $\eta_P^2 < .01$. Among women, the simple effect of target was significant, $F(1, 170) = 9.96$, $MSE = 0.61$, $p = .002$, $\eta_P^2 = .06$, but not that of traditionalism, $F(1, 170) = 0.11$, $MSE = 1.29$, $p = .741$, $\eta_P^2 < .01$, with women consistently predicting stereotypically high hours for their male partners. Among men, the simple effects of target, $F(1, 170) = 5.61$, $MSE = 0.61$, $p = .019$, $\eta_P^2 = .03$, and traditionalism, $F(1, 170) = 8.65$, $MSE = 1.29$, $p = .004$, $\eta_P^2 = .05$, were both significant.

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Traditionalist men predicted lower hours overall, but, consistent with hypotheses, men in both groups predicted their female partners would work fewer hours than themselves.

Salary. With a significant three-way interaction, $F(1, 169) = 11.35$, $p = .001$, $\eta_P^2 = .06$, and a significant target by gender interaction, $F(1, 169) = 19.94$, p < .001, $\eta_P^2 = .11$ (all other *p*s > .290). Once again, career non-traditionalists' predictions did not differ by the target by gender interaction, $F(1, 169) = 1.24$, $p = .267$, $\eta_P^2 = .01$. However, traditionalists' predictions significantly hinged on this two-way interaction, $F(1, 169) = 21.59$, p < .001, $\eta_P^2 = .11$ (other *p*s > .385). Congruent with hypotheses, traditional men predicted they would work significantly more hours than their partner, $F(1, 169) = 14.88$, p < .001, $\eta_P^2 = .08$, significantly stereotyping their partner, $b = -0.50$, $SE = 0.20$, $t(169) = 2.53$, $p = .012$, $\eta_P^2 = .04$, but not themselves, $b = 0.23$, $SE = 0.20$, $t(169) = 1.12$, $p = .266$, $\eta_P^2 = .01$. Women also predicted more male hours, $F(1, 169) = 7.62$, $p = .006$, $\eta_P^2 = .04$, although neither their self-reports nor their partner-predictions were significantly stereotypic, ps > .176.

Work travel. The effect of gender-by-target was again significantly moderated by career traditionalism, $F(1, 170) = 14.89$, $p < .001$, $\eta_P^2 = 0.08$, with a significant effect of target by gender, $F(1, 170) = 15.26$, $p < .001$, $\eta_P^2 = 0.08$, but no other significant effects, *ps* > .452. Non-traditionalists' target predictions did not differ by gender, $F(1, 170) = 0.02$, $p = .896$, $\eta_P^2 < .01$, nor the other effects, *ps* > .826. Conversely, traditionalists again had a significant target by gender interaction, $F(1, 170) = 21.08$, $p < .001$, $\eta_P^2 = .11$ (all other *ps* > .410). Consistent with the other models, traditional men, $F(1, 170) = 14.34$, $p < .001$, $\eta_P^2 = .08$, predicted they would work more than their partners, driven by stereotyping of partners, $b = -0.41$, $SE = 0.20$, $t(170) = 2.01$, $p = .046$, $\eta_P^2 = .02$, but not the self, $b = 0.31$, $SE = 0.21$, $t(170) = 1.48$, $p = .140$, $\eta_P^2 = .01$.

Women also predicted more male travel, $F(1, 170) = 7.58$, $p = .007$, $\eta_P^2 = .04$, despite neither the intercept of self-reports nor partner-predictions differing from the sample mean, $ps > .111$.

Education. Predictions did not differ by any of the parameters, $ps > .100$.

Workplace location. Target significantly interacted with gender, $F(1, 172) = 4.86$, $p = .029$, $\eta_P^2 = .03$, and the main effect of gender was also significant, $F(1, 172) = 5.55$, $p = .02$, $\eta_P^2 = .03$, although all other effects were non-significant, $ps > .139$. Men made similar self-reports and partner-predictions, $F(1, 172) = 1.91$, $p = .169$, $\eta_P^2 = .01$, but women's predictions marginally differed by target, $F(1, 172) = 3.05$, $p = .083$, $\eta_P^2 = .02$, with descriptively more stereotype-neutral self-reports and stereotypic partner-predictions (working predominately outside the home).

Required effort. This measure assessed required effort relative to the effort expended right now, so only participants reporting about their current partner were included in this analysis, and partner type was removed as a covariate. Target significantly interacted with gender, $F(1, 58) = 3.97$, $MSE = 0.58$, $p = .051$, $\eta_p^2 = .06$, as did gender with career traditionalism, $F(1, 58) = 4.02$, $MSE = 1.18$, $p = .050$, $\eta_p^2 = .06$, although all other terms did not reach significance, $ps > .150$. The target-by-gender interaction was examined using dummy-coded gender: Men made comparable self and partner reports, $F(1, 58) = 0.33$, $MSE = 0.58$, $p = .565$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$, but women did not, $F(1, 58) = 7.18$, $MSE = 0.58$, $p = .010$, $\eta_p^2 = .11$. Specifically, women predicted that their male partners' careers required significantly more effort than the sample mean, $b = 0.34$, $SE = 0.15$, $t(58) = 2.25$, $p = .028$, $\eta_p^2 = .08$, but their self-reports did not differ from the average, $b = -0.13$, $SE = 0.15$, $t(58) = -0.83$, $p = .410$, $\eta_p^2 = .01$.

Career versus family abstract goals. The same seven items (and subscales) from Study 1 were again used, forming measures of career ($\alpha = .64$), and family goals ($\alpha = .78$).

Career goals. Counter to the findings in Study 1, career goals did not significantly vary on the basis of gender-by-career traditionalism, $p = .351$ (nor any other parameters in this model, $ps > .469$). In the model examining family traditionalism and gender, only family traditionalism had a (marginal) association with career goals, $b = -0.15$, $SE = 0.08$, $t(136) = -1.75$, $p = .082$, $\eta_p^2 = .02$, with family non-traditionalists reporting stronger career goals than traditionalists (all other terms $ps > .741$).

Family goals. Replicating Study 1, gender and career traditionalism interacted to predict family goals, $b = -0.20$, $SE = 0.08$, $t(175) = -2.55$, $p = .012$, $\eta_p^2 = .04$, and there was a significant main effect of gender, $b = -0.26$, $SE = 0.08$, $t(175) = -3.16$, $p = .002$, $\eta_p^2 = .05$ (with the last term not reaching significance, $p = .968$). Once again, career non-traditionalists reported similar family goals, regardless of their gender, $b = -0.05$, $SE = 0.09$, $t(175) = -0.62$, $p = .535$, $\eta_p^2 = .00$, yet gender was a significant predictor for traditionalists, $b = -0.46$, $SE = 0.14$, $t(175) = -3.38$, $p = .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .06$. Male career traditionalists' reports fell in line with stereotypes, with a significantly negative intercept, $b = -0.43$, $SE = 0.19$, $t(175) = -2.28$, $p = .024$, $\eta_p^2 = .03$. Career traditionalist women exhibited a symmetric pattern, with their intercepts significantly positive, $b = 0.48$, $SE = 0.19$, $t(175) = 2.54$, $p = .012$, $\eta_p^2 = .04$, indicating stereotypic and high family goals. Predicting family goals with gender and family traditionalism yielded no significant results, $ps > .111$.

Own versus partner's career and family sacrifices. Willingness to sacrifice composites were again computed by averaging within the (newly expanded) two subscales: pro-career sacrifices (5 items, $\alpha = .74$ for self-reports, .77 for partner-predictions) and pro-family sacrifices (5 items, $\alpha = .68$ & .67, respectively). The two composites were negatively but not significantly associated for self-reports, $r(182) = -.12$, $p = .113$, and partner-predictions, $r(180) = -.08$, $p =$

.271. In the following analyses, target (within-subjects: self or partner), gender and traditionalism (either domain) are used as fully crossed predictors; partner type is a covariate.

Pro-career sacrifices.

Career traditionalism. The three-way interaction of target, gender, and career traditionalism reached significance, $F(1, 174) = 10.81$, $p = .001$, $\eta_P^2 = .06$, as did the interaction of target and gender, $F(1, 174) = 32.97$, $p < .001$, $\eta_P^2 = .16$ (all other terms $ps > .154$). Career non-traditionalists' showed a significant target-by-gender interaction, $F(1, 174) = 5.81$, $p = .017$, $\eta_P^2 = .03$, with non-traditional men reporting similar self-reports and partner predictions, $F(1, 174) = 1.41$, $p = .236$, $\eta_P^2 = .01$ (neither of which were significantly stereotypic, $ps > .107$). Non-traditional women deemed their partners significantly more pro-career than themselves, $F(1, 174) = 4.58$, $p = .034$, $\eta_P^2 = .03$, although their self-reports and partner-predictions also did not significantly demonstrate stereotypes, $ps > .067$.

Career traditionalists also exhibited significant moderation of target by gender, $F(1, 174) = 28.49$, $p < .001$, $\eta_P^2 = .14$. Traditional men reported higher pro-career sacrifice willingness than their partners, $F(1, 174) = 21.50$, $p < .001$, $\eta_P^2 = .11$, significantly gender-stereotyping themselves, $b = 0.42$, $SE = 0.20$, $t(174) = 2.09$, $p = .038$, $\eta_P^2 = .02$, and their romantic partners, $b = -0.40$, $SE = 0.20$, $t(174) = -2.00$, $p = .047$, $\eta_P^2 = .02$. Traditional women also reported their male partners as significantly more pro-career than themselves, $F(1, 174) = 8.87$, $p = .003$, $\eta_P^2 = .05$. Although neither traditional women's self-reports nor partner-predictions evidenced significant stereotyping, partner-predictions had a descriptively larger absolute coefficient, $b = 0.32$, $SE = 0.19$, $t(174) = 1.63$, $p = .104$, $\eta_P^2 = .02$, than self-reports, $b = -0.19$, $SE = 0.19$, $t(174) = 0.99$, $p = .321$, $\eta_P^2 = .01$.

Family traditionalism. Gender, family traditionalism, and target significantly interacted to predict pro-career sacrifices, $F(1, 136) = 4.65$, $p = .033$, $\eta_P^2 = .03$, along with a significant target-by-gender interaction, $F(1, 136) = 19.65$, $p < .001$, $\eta_P^2 = .13$. Family non-traditionalists' target-by-gender interaction was non-significant, $F(1, 136) = 2.39$, $p = .124$, $\eta_P^2 = .02$, as were their simple effects of target and gender, $ps > .404$.

However, the simple interaction of target and gender was significant for family traditionalists, $F(1, 136) = 24.13$, $p < .001$, $\eta_P^2 = .15$ (despite non-significant simple effects of target and gender, $ps > .221$). Specifically, family traditionalist men reported significantly higher self pro-career sacrifice willingness for themselves than for their partners, $F(1, 136) = 5.68$, $p = .019$, $\eta_P^2 = .04$, yet neither intercept differed significantly from zero, $ps > .233$ (descriptively, partner perceptions were more gender-stereotypic than self-reports). Conversely, traditional women's significant effect of target, $F(1, 136) = 21.03$, $p < .001$, $\eta_P^2 = .13$, was driven by significant self-stereotyping, $b = -0.49$, $SE = 0.15$, $t(136) = 3.32$, $p = .001$, $\eta_P^2 = .07$, and more average partner-perceptions, $b = 0.11$, $SE = 0.16$, $t(136) = 0.70$, $p = .483$, $\eta_P^2 < .01$.

Pro-family sacrifices.

Career traditionalism. The interaction of target, gender, and career traditionalism, was once again significant, $F(1, 174) = 20.52$, $p < .001$, $\eta_P^2 = .11$, as was the target-by-gender interaction, $F(1, 174) = 34.59$, $p < .001$, $\eta_P^2 = .17$, although all other effects did not reach significance, $ps > .178$. Career non-traditionalists' reports did not differ by any of the remaining parameters, $ps > .168$, dissociating self-reports and partner-predictions from gender stereotypes.

However, career traditionalists' target-by-gender interaction was significant, $F(1, 174) = 37.76$, $p < .001$, $\eta_P^2 = .18$. Men rated their partners (vs. themselves) as significantly more willing to make pro-family sacrifices, $F(1, 174) = 19.80$, $p < .001$, $\eta_P^2 = .10$, stemming from significant

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stereotyping of romantic partners, $b = 0.75$, $SE = 0.19$, $t(174) = 3.88$, $p < .001$, $\eta_P^2 = .08$, but no

self-stereotyping, $b = -0.12$, $SE = 0.20$, $t(174) = 0.61$, $p = .540$, $\eta_P^2 < .01$. Women also reported

themselves as significantly more pro-family, $F(1, 174) = 18.86$, $p < .001$, $\eta_P^2 = .10$, with

intercepts indicating significant self-stereotyping, $b = 0.39$, $SE = 0.20$, $t(174) = 2.00$, $p = .047$,

$\eta_P^2 = .02$, and partner-stereotyping, $b = -0.44$, $SE = 0.19$, $t(174) = 2.33$, $p = .021$, $\eta_P^2 = .03$.

Family traditionalism. Once again, the three-way interaction was significant, $F(1, 136) =$

5.05, $p = .026$, $\eta_P^2 = .04$, with a target by gender interaction, $F(1, 136) = 9.80$, $p = .002$, $\eta_P^2 = .07$,

and no other significant parameters, $ps > .249$. Family non-traditionalists' reports were not

impacted by target, gender, or their interaction, $ps > .420$.

Those reporting traditional domestic labour expectations again had a target by gender

interaction, $F(1, 136) = 16.05$, $p < .001$, $\eta_P^2 = .11$, with men reporting significantly higher

partner-predictions than self-reports for pro-family sacrifices, $F(1, 136) = 4.14$, $p = .044$, $\eta_P^2 =$

$.03$ (neither of which differed from zero, $ps > .206$). Women's reports also differed in the

predicted direction by target, $F(1, 136) = 13.22$, $p < .001$, $\eta_P^2 = .09$, driven by significantly

negative self-reports, $b = 0.33$, $SE = 0.15$, $t(136) = 2.11$, $p = .037$, $\eta_P^2 = .03$, and marginally

positive partner predictions, $b = -0.25$, $SE = 0.15$, $t(136) = 1.69$, $p = .093$, $\eta_P^2 = .02$.

Discussion

Men and women tended to predicted equal career prioritization (59% overall). Further,

participants (especially family traditionalists) predicted that they personally would complete

relatively more of the tasks stereotypic to their gender than their partner predicted (e.g., female

participants predicted that they would do more female-stereotypic tasks than male participants

predicted for their female partners). However, both types of predictions tended to be gender-stereotypic in comparison to the sample mean.

Career predictions about partners tended to be more stereotypic than predictions about the self. Additionally, there was greater relative stereotyping of partner-predictions for career traditionalists (vs. non-traditionalists), especially by men. Goals were less consistently associated with traditionalism in this study, excepting the association between career traditionalism and family goals: Career traditionalists reported stereotypic family goals, and non-traditionalists, more moderate goals.

Male and female participants generally predicted men as more willing to make career-over-family sacrifices than women, irrespective of traditionalism. Notably, career traditionalist men exhibited significant self-stereotyping and partner-stereotyping, and family traditionalist women reported significant self-stereotyping regarding pro-career sacrifices. Participants of both genders tended to predict that women were more willing to put family ahead of career (vs. men's willingness). Career traditionalists also consistently gender-stereotyped their partners' pro-family sacrifice willingness (but only women self-stereotyped).

CHAPTER FOUR: DYADIC AGREEMENT & ACCURACY

Within Study 3, we collected full reports from both members of intact romantic couples. We then directly compared the reports made by both individuals, analyzing the accuracy of their judgements about their romantic partner (compared to their partner's self-reports), and the agreement between individuals on overarching relationship-level goals.

Method

Participants and protocol. Heterosexual undergraduates in committed relationships were recruited on campus, all of whom were asked to supply the email address of their romantic partner post-completion of the survey. Initially, 552 individuals participated for partial course credit or $5. Analyses excluded 124 participants whose romantic partners did not complete the survey, 32 due to a dyad member's non-compliance with study protocols, and 18 for referencing a current or future relationship with someone of their same (or "other") gender (or not reporting partner gender). The final sample consisted of 378 participants: 189 male/female complete dyads ($M_{age} = 20$; $Mdn_{age} = 20$; 88% non-Psychology majors).

Extending Study 2, two edits were made to the measures used in Study 3. The measure of likelihood of achieving one's realistic predicted career was updated to query satisfaction with current progress toward it, from 1 (*extremely dissatisfied*) to 5 (*extremely satisfied*). After all other measures, the BEM Sex Role Inventory (Bem, 1974) was then completed by participants, both for themselves and for their romantic partner, on scales from 1 (*almost never true of me/[partner name]*) to 5 (*almost always true of me/[partner name]*).

Results

As in Studies 1 and 2, gender was effects-coded (-1 = female, +1 = male) and traditionalism (-1 = non-traditional, +1 = traditional) in all analyses. All Study 3 participants were already in committed romantic relationships, rendering partner type invariant. Notably, the Study 3 continuous measure of relationship commitment did not differ by participant gender, $b = 0.02$, $SE = 0.05$, $t(376) = 0.46$, $p = .646$.

Analytic approach.

Relationship-level. For dependent measures that tapped a construct at the level of the couple, a multi-level model with individuals nested within dyads was used, with gender, traditionalism (career or family), and their interaction as predictors. In this model type, the variance associated with within-dyad non-independence is partialled out of the fixed effects, and the *ICC* represents the degree to which within-dyad reports are convergent.

Individual-level. For sets of dependent measures where each individual made distinct reports about self and partner, two basic sets of multilevel models were used to nest the reports of both partners within dyads. To test *accuracy* versus *assumed similarity* (or projection), we employed the Truth and Bias model (West & Kenny, 2011). This model differentiates the extent to which dyad members' perceptions of their partners are uniquely associated with their partners' report about themselves (i.e., indicating accuracy) or with the perceivers' own self-reports (i.e., indicating assumed similarity or projection). A negative sign on an assumed similarity coefficient indicates assumed *dis*similarity (i.e., complementary or hydraulic self-vs.-partner predictions), whereas a negative sign on an accuracy coefficient indicates significant *in*accuracy or negative accuracy (i.e., predictions about partners that are inversely related to partners' own responses). The present model tests the impact of gender, accuracy (partner's self-report), and assumed similarity (self-report), along with the interactions of gender with the latter two terms, on partner-predictions.

Additionally, we tested *prediction error*, or the degree to which predictions about partners were under- or overestimations relative to their specific partner's self-report. This model had the partner self-reports subtracted from the partner-predictions as the dependent variable, with gender as the predictor and the average of partner self-reports and partner-predictions as a control variable.

To summarize, accuracy, assumed similarity, and directional prediction error (or directional bias; Fletcher & Kerr, 2010; West, Dovidio, & Pearson, 2014) are three distinct ways to compare partner-predictions and partner self-reports. Accuracy tracks whether, across dyads, participants were able to predict their partner's response (relative to reports of all other partners) at above chance levels. Assumed similarity denotes the extent to which partner-predictions are correlated to self-reports. Directional bias represents the average within-dyad magnitude (and direction) of prediction error, assessing absolute (rather than relative) agreement.

Further, to specifically test the moderation of accuracy by the domain-relevant form of traditionalism (in this section, career traditionalism), we tested a trimmed-down model with partner-predictions again as the dependent variable and the following predictors: accuracy, participant gender, career traditionalism, and all their interaction terms. Assumed similarity was retained as covariate, and yielded a significant positive effect in every model. This pattern of assumed "matching" as opposed to complementarity indicates that participants perceived their partners' future as more similar to their own than would occur by chance (an effect emerging over and above any actual convergence between their predictions and their partners' self-reports). In the absence of any specific predictions about assumed similarity or potentially interesting complementarity findings, these main effects are not discussed individually or interpreted further.

Career prioritization. As in Study 1 and Study 2, "definitely" prioritizing the male partner's career (7%) and female partner's (2%) was collapsed with the respective "likely" categories. Men and women did not differ on these predictions, $\chi^2 (2, N = 377) = 2.22, p = .330$, with 16% predicting female-prioritization, 35% male-prioritization, and 49% equal prioritization.

Career traditionalism. We once again categorized male-prioritization as *traditional career prioritization* (+1; $n = 131$), and the other two categories as *non-traditional career prioritization* (-1; $n = 246$). Couples significantly agreed about whether they were pursuing traditional versus non-traditional career prioritization, $ICC = .45$, $SE = 0.06$, $z = 7.66$, $p < .001$, but there was sufficient variation in partners' estimates to justify keeping participants' individual reports of career prioritization independent in subsequent analyses (rather than combined within couples). As in Studies 1 and 2, career traditionalism did not significantly differ by participant gender, $\chi^2 (1, N = 377) = 1.87$, $p = .171$.

Division of domestic labour. For these two measures, self and partner percentages were recoded into female and male percentages, then the male percentage was subtracted from the female percentage (and outliers more than 3 *SD*s from the mean were removed; 3 women, 3 men, 4 above the sample mean and two below). The resultant variables were both standardized in the directly following model.

With both reports nested within dyads (and covarying for standardized third-party percentage), women reported that they would do a greater share of the housework than men predicted, $b = -0.21$, $SE = 0.04$, $t(177) = 4.60$, $p < .001$. Adding on the non-significant intercept, $p = .913$, we can conclude that women made gender-stereotypic predictions, and men made more egalitarian ones. A similar pattern arose in a model examining childcare, with women again reporting gender-stereotypicality and men making more egalitarian predictions, $b = -0.17$, $SE = 0.05$, $t(161) = 3.71$, $p < .001$ (again with a non-significant intercept, $b = -0.03$, $SE = 0.06$, $t(168) = 0.41$, $p = .685$). Despite the above gender differences, there was significant agreement within couples regarding both household, $ICC = .25$, $SE = 0.07$, $z = 3.40$, $p = .001$, and childcare, $ICC = .36$, $SE = 0.07$, $z = 4.86$, $p < .001$, labour distributions.

Family traditionalism. As in Study 2, unstandardized household and childcare composite measures were summed (excluding those anticipating no children), then categorized into family traditionalism (-1 = *family non-traditionalist*: equal contribution, or higher male percentage, n = 160; +1 = *family traditionalist*: higher female percentage, n = 153). Couples significantly agreed on family traditionalism, ICC = .40, SE = 0.07, z = 5.66, $p < .001$, but akin to career traditionalism, distinct reports were retained within couples. Contrary to Study 2, gender significantly associated with family traditionalism, χ^2 (1, N = 313) = 12.76, $p < .001$, with women more frequently reporting traditionalist values (vs. men).

Career by family traditionalism. The relationship between career traditionalism and family traditionalism was tested independently for each gender. Counter to in Study 2, for women, χ^2 (1, N = 160) = 6.18, p = .013, and for men, χ^2 (1, N = 152) = 8.701, p = .003, career traditionalism was significantly associated with family traditionalism. However, with phi coefficients of .20 and .24, respectively, the two forms of traditionalism remained independent.

Female- and male- stereotypic tasks. As in Study 2, the 24 household and childcare tasks were recoded to -2 (always male partner) to +2 (always female partner*)*, and averaged within the female-stereotypic (14 items, α = .72), and male-stereotypic (10 items, α = .61) subscales. Once again, positive intercepts indicate a higher frequency of labour done by the female partner than the male partner, and family traditionalism was used (vs. career traditionalism), as it is in the same domain.

Female-stereotypic tasks. Predictions hinged on the interaction of gender and family traditionalism, b = -0.04, SE = 0.01, $t(202.72)$ = 2.88, p = .004, as well as the main effects of gender, b = -0.07, SE = 0.01, $t(161.84)$ = 6.34, $p < .001$, and family traditionalism, b = 0.10, SE = 0.01, $t(307.16)$ = 6.49, $p < .001$. Importantly, the intercept coefficient revealed that women were

overall predicted to do more of the female stereotypic tasks, $b = 0.30$, $SE = 0.02$, $t(175.37) = 17.18$, $p < .001$, and romantic partners significantly agreed in their predictions, $ICC = 0.31$, $SE = 0.08$, $z = 4.08$, $p < .001$.

Family non-traditionalists significantly differed by gender, $b = -0.04$, $SE = 0.02$, $t(175.67) = 2.19$, $p = .030$, with women predicting they would personally do the preponderance of these tasks, $b = 0.24$, $SE = 0.03$, $t(172.56) = 7.75$, $p < .001$, and men making significantly *more* egalitarian predictions than women, but still predicting that women would do significantly more of the female-stereotypic tasks, as indicated by their significantly non-zero intercept, $b = 0.17$, $SE = 0.03$, $t(169.19) = 6.75$, $p < .001$.

Furthermore, family traditionalists also differed by gender, $b = -0.11$, $SE = 0.02$, $t(179.25) = 6.34$, $p < .001$, with male traditionalists' reports on par with female non-traditionalists, $b = 0.29$, $SE = 0.03$, $t(168.90) = 9.40$, $p < .001$, and female traditionalists predicting the most gendered division of these tasks, $b = 0.51$, $SE = 0.03$, $t(170.82) = 19.03$, $p < .001$.

Male-stereotypic tasks. Predictions of male-stereotypic tasks were relatively more consistent, with a significant negative intercept, $b = -0.58$, $SE = 0.03$, $t(177.81) = 21.87$, $p < .001$, and a smaller but significant negative main effect of gender, $b = -0.08$, $SE = 0.01$, $t(155.58) = 5.32$, $p < .001$. Although both men and women predicted that men would do significantly more of the male stereotypic tasks, women predicted relatively more equity. Finally, there was significant convergence within dyads, $ICC = 0.60$, $SE = 0.05$, $z = 11.13$, $p < .001$.

Career attributes. As career attributes were measured independently for self and partner, the individual-level models were used. The intersection of career traditionalism and accuracy is detailed in the latter set of models.

Satisfaction with current progress. There was a significant main effect of accuracy, $b =$ 0.44, $SE = 0.05$, $t(346.01) = 9.38$, $p < .001$, qualified by a marginally significant accuracy-by-gender interaction, $b = -0.09$, $SE = 0.05$, $t(368.62) = 1.95$, $p = .052$. All other terms were non-significant with $ps > .233$. Investigating the marginal accuracy by gender interaction revealed that men were somewhat less accurate, $b = 0.35$, $SE = 0.07$, $t(184.77) = 5.16$, $p < .001$, than women, $b = 0.52$, $SE = 0.06$, $t(186) = 8.33$, $p < .001$, although both groups attained significant overall accuracy. Prediction errors did not consistently vary in sign, $b = 0.00$, $SE = 0.05$, $t(185.97) = 0.05$, $p = .964$, nor were they significantly impacted by gender, $b = 0.09$, $SE = 0.06$, $t(186.55) = 1.48$, $p = .139$.

However, there was a significant accuracy-by-gender-by-career traditionalism interaction, $b = 0.13$, $SE = 0.05$, $t(363.1) = 2.74$, $p = .006$, although accuracy was not moderated individually by either gender, $b = -0.06$, $SE = 0.05$, $t(360.63) = 1.12$, $p = .263$, or career traditionalism, $b = 0.02$, $SE = 0.05$, $t(340.01) = 0.35$, $p = 0.729$. Traditionalists' accuracy did not vary as a function of their gender, $b = 0.08$, $SE = 0.08$, $t(357.84) = 0.99$, $p = .323$, and was consistently high, $b = 0.44$, $SE = 0.08$, $t(356.41) = 5.56$, $p < .001$. Non-traditionalists' accuracy hinged on their gender, $b = -0.19$, $SE = 0.06$, $t(367.24) = 3.33$, $p = .001$, with men's accuracy, $b = 0.22$, $SE = 0.08$, $t(183.81) = 2.68$, $p = .008$, significantly lower than women's accuracy, $b = 0.60$, $SE = 0.08$, $t(186.16) = 7.54$, $p < .001$.

Required effort. Main effects of gender, $b = -0.15$, $SE = 0.05$, $t(186.01) = 3.03$, $p = .003$, and accuracy, $b = 0.20$, $SE = 0.05$, $t(363.27) = 4.18$, $p < .001$, were qualified by a significant gender by accuracy interaction, $b = -0.12$, $SE = 0.05$, $t(366.69) = 2.52$, $p = .012$. The other interaction term in the basic model was non-significant, $p = .603$. In detailing the gender by accuracy interaction, men failed to achieve significant accuracy, $b = 0.08$, $SE = 0.07$, $t(185.24) =$

1.13, $p = .261$, whereas women attained accuracy, $b = 0.32$, $SE = 0.06$, $t(186) = 5.01$, $p < .001$.

Prediction errors again did not differ from zero overall, $b = 0.00$, $SE = 0.06$, $t(187.55) = 0.01$, $p = .989$, but varied by gender, $b = -0.17$, $SE = 0.07$, $t(189.82) = 2.41$, $p = .017$: Women consistently overestimated partners' required effort and men consistently underestimated it.

Accuracy was significantly impacted by gender and traditionalism, $b = 0.16$, $SE = 0.05$, $t(365.99) = 3.03$, $p = .003$, with non-traditionalists' accuracy significantly moderated by their gender, $b = -0.22$, $SE = 0.06$, $t(363.92) = 3.90$, $p < .001$, but traditionalists' accuracy consistent across genders, $b = 0.10$, $SE = 0.09$, $t(365.49) = 1.16$, $p = .245$. More specifically, non-traditional men failed to accurately predict their female partners' required effort, $b = -0.07$, $SE = 0.08$, $t(183.96) = 0.81$, $p = .418$, whereas non-traditional women were significantly accurate, $b = 0.24$, $SE = 0.05$, $t(364.55) = 5.06$, $p < .001$.

Innate talent. No interaction terms reached significance, $ps > .390$, although women (vs. men) thought their partner's careers required more innate talent, $b = -0.10$, $SE = 0.05$, $t(186.33) = -2.14$, $p = .034$, and there was a significant main effect of accuracy, $b = 0.15$, $SE = 0.05$, $t(358.48) = 3.25$, $p = .001$. Prediction errors neither differed from zero, $b = 0.00$, $SE = 0.05$, $t(187.13) = -0.02$, $p = .984$, nor varied by gender, $b = 0.02$, $SE = 0.08$, $t(190.62) = 0.27$, $p = .785$.

Although accuracy was not moderated by gender, career traditionalism, or their combination, $ps > .380$, partner-predictions significantly varied by the interaction of gender by traditionalism, $b = -0.15$, $SE = 0.05$, $t(323.52) = -3.08$, $p = .002$. Non-traditionalists' gender did not significantly impact their predictions, $b = 0.01$, $SE = 0.06$, $t(227.34) = 0.09$, $p = .925$, but traditional women (vs. traditional men) predicted that their partners' careers would require significantly more innate talent, $b = -0.30$, $SE = 0.08$, $t(277.72) = -3.67$, $p < .001$.

Hours per week. Mirroring the results regarding required innate talent, women (vs. men) thought their partner's careers would involve more hours, $b = -0.14$, $SE = 0.05$, $t(184.43) = -2.72$, $p = .007$, and significant accuracy, $b = 0.32$, $SE = 0.05$, $t(300.09) = 6.67$, $p < .001$. The interaction terms were non-significant, $ps > .151$. With a non-significant test of the intercept, $b = 0.00$, $SE = 0.05$, $t(186.63) = 0.03$, $p = .980$, prediction errors also did not vary by gender, $b = -0.03$, $SE = 0.07$, $t(193.19) = 0.52$, $p = .605$.

As in the above model, accuracy was not significantly impacted by any combination of gender or traditionalism, $ps > .094$. However, gender by traditionalism again significantly influenced predictions of partners' hours, $b = -0.22$, $SE = 0.05$, $t(324.29) = 4.25$, $p < .001$, with non-traditionalists not differing by gender, $b = 0.01$, $SE = 0.06$, $t(224.77) = 0.10$, $p = .921$, but traditionalists making more gender-stereotypic partner-predictions, $b = -0.43$, $SE = 0.09$, $t(283.47) = 4.93$, $p < .001$.

Salary. Again, women's predictions about partner's salaries were higher than men's partner-predictions, $b = -0.13$, $SE = 0.05$, $t(184.70) = 2.87$, $p = .005$, and there was a main effect of accuracy, $b = 0.45$, $SE = 0.04$, $t(277.95) = 10.42$, $p < .001$. Although the interaction of gender by accuracy was non-significant, $p = .413$, there was a marginal interaction of gender by assumed similarity, $b = -0.08$, $SE = 0.04$, $t(351.18) = 1.96$, $p = .051$. Further analysis using dummy-coding revealed that women more strongly assumed they and their partner would have similar salaries, $b = 0.49$, $SE = 0.05$, $t(186.00) = 9.25$, $p < .001$, versus men's relatively weaker assumptions of similarity, $b = 0.33$, $SE = 0.06$, $t(183.34) = 5.28$, $p < .001$. A non-significant intercept, $b = 0$, $SE = 0.03$, $t(185.16) = 0.03$, $p = .974$, and significant effect of gender, $b = 0.12$, $SE = 0.06$, $t(194.52) = 2.16$, $p = .032$, indicated that women significantly underestimated their partner's salary, and men overestimated it.

Gender and traditionalism again did not influence accuracy, $ps > .254$, although their interaction significantly impacted predictions of partner's salary, $b = -0.14$, $SE = 0.04$, $t(353.53) = 3.21$, $p = .001$. In line with the established pattern of results, non-traditionalists made relatively equitable partner-predictions, $b = -0.06$, $SE = 0.05$, $t(217.02) = 1.20$, $p = .232$, but traditionalists' were gender stereotypic, $b = -0.34$, $SE = 0.08$, $t(309.05) = 4.36$, $p < .001$.

Work travel. Predictions significantly varied by gender, $b = -0.19$, $SE = 0.05$, $t(186.68) = 3.91$, $p < .001$, with a significant effect of accuracy, $b = 0.31$, $SE = 0.05$, $t(362.82) = 6.82$, $p < .001$. The prediction error intercept, $b = 0.00$, $SE = 0.05$, $t(186.8) = 0.01$, $p = .994$, and the effect of gender, $b = 0.03$, $SE = 0.07$, $t(197.31) = 0.37$, $p = .710$, were non-significant.

Gender and traditionalism again significantly interacted, $b = -0.12$, $SE = 0.05$, $t(331.58) = 2.47$, $p = .014$, although accuracy did not hinge on these predictors, $ps > .267$. Non-traditionalists' established egalitarian predictions again appeared, $b = -0.11$, $SE = 0.06$, $t(222.78) = 1.91$, $p = .058$, as did the gender-stereotypic predictions of traditionalists, $b = -0.35$, $SE = 0.08$, $t(287.34) = 4.27$, $p < .001$.

Education. Gender did not significantly influence partner-predictions, $p = .935$, although there was once again a significant effect of accuracy, $b = 0.59$, $SE = 0.04$, $t(349.78) = 14.79$, $p < .001$. All other $ps > .129$. Although the prediction error intercept did not significantly differ from zero, $b = 0$, $SE = 0.04$, $t(186.66) = 0.05$, $p = .958$, gender marginally impacted prediction errors, $b = -0.09$, $SE = 0.05$, $t(189.74) = 1.84$, $p = .067$, such that women descriptively overestimated—and men underestimated—the education required for their partner's career.

Accuracy regarding partner's required education hinged on the interaction of gender and traditionalism, $b = -0.11$, $SE = 0.04$, $t(360.83) = 2.79$, $p = .006$, such that non-traditionalists' accuracy was consistent across genders, $b = 0.04$, $SE = 0.05$, $t(366.05) = 0.75$, $p = .455$, but

traditionalists' gender significantly influenced their accuracy, $b = -0.18$, $SE = 0.06$, $t(352.57) =$ 2.99, $p = .003$. However, traditional men's accuracy, $b = 0.51$, $SE = 0.09$, $t(184.97) = 5.44$, $p <$ .001 was significantly higher than traditional women's accuracy, $b = 0.24$, $SE = 0.04$, $t(343.67) =$ 6.15, $p < .001$.

Workplace location. Despite no effect of gender, $b = 0.02$, $SE = 0.05$, $t(185.49) = 0.49$, p $= .622$, participants attained significant accuracy, $b = 0.42$, $SE = 0.05$, $t(317.42) = 8.84$, $p < .001$. Within this model, other $ps > .197$. Prediction errors did not significantly vary from zero or by gender, $ps > .931$. In the model testing the effects of traditionalism on accuracy, partner-predictions did not hinge on any of the predictors, $ps > .552$.

Career and family goals. As abstract career and family goals were only asked about the self (i.e., there are no partner-predictions), self-reported goals were tested in multilevel model with individuals nested within dyads, with gender and career / family traditionalism as predictors (and the *other* goal domain as a covariate). In all models, the *ICC* is a metric of self-report agreement within couples.

Career goals.

Career traditionalism. Overall, couples' career goals significantly converged, *ICC* = 0.23, $SE = 0.07$, $z = 3.30$, $p = .001$, despite career goals differing by the interaction of gender and career traditionalism, $b = 0.27$, $SE = 0.05$, $t(271.46) = 5.55$, $p < .001$. Career non-traditionalists' career goals did not differ by gender, $b = -0.09$, $SE = 0.06$, $t(215.82) = 1.61$, $p = .109$, or from zero, $b = 0.00$, $SE = 0.07$, $t(235.48) = 0.02$, $p = .984$. However, male career traditionalists' career goals were significantly stronger than female traditionalists', $b = 0.45$, $SE = 0.08$, $t(239.99) =$ 5.85, $p < .001$, with both men, $b = 0.50$, $SE = 0.12$, $t(191.11) = 4.04$, $p < .001$, and women, $b = -$0.40, $SE = 0.11$, $t(190.75) = 3.59$, $p < .001$, self-stereotyping along gendered lines.

Family traditionalism. Reports again significantly converged within couples in this model, $ICC = 0.21$, $SE = 0.08$, $z = 2.51$, $p = .012$, and gender significantly interacted with family traditionalism, $b = 0.13$, $SE = 0.05$, $t(236.13) = 2.40$, $p = .017$ (along with a significant main effect of gender, $b = 0.12$, $SE = 0.05$, $t(164.80) = 2.35$, $p = .020$, but non-significant remaining effects, $ps > .527$). Male and female non-traditionalists did not significantly differ in their career goals, $b = -0.01$, $SE = 0.07$, $t(194.61) = 0.11$, $p = .910$, making stereotype-decoupled reports, $b = 0.04$, $SE = 0.08$, $t(230.67) = 0.45$, $p = .653$. Among family traditionalists, gender made a significant impact, $b = 0.24$, $SE = 0.07$, $t(193.67) = 3.30$, $p = .001$, with men's career goals marginally stereotypic, $b = 0.21$, $SE = 0.12$, $t(152.79) = 1.69$, $p = .093$, and women's significantly stereotypic, $b = -0.28$, $SE = 0.10$, $t(161.88) = 2.84$, $p = .005$.

Career and family traditionalism. The interaction of gender and career traditionalism reached significance, $b = 0.23$, $SE = 0.05$, $t(218.43) = 4.28$, $p < .001$, as did the main effect of gender, $b = 0.18$, $SE = 0.05$, $t(169.59) = 3.41$, $p = .001$.

Family goals.

Career traditionalism. Gender and career traditionalism significantly interacted to predict family goals, $b = -0.10$, $SE = 0.05$, $t(259.17) = 2.18$, $p = .031$, and couples' goals significantly converged, $ICC = .39$, $SE = 0.06$, $z = 6.24$, $p < .001$ (all other terms were non-significant, $ps > .492$). Within this model, non-traditionalists' reports just significantly differed by gender, $b = 0.10$, $SE = 0.05$, $t(207.71) = 1.97$, $p = .050$, yet traditionalists' did not, $b = -0.11$, $SE = 0.08$, $t(240.85) = 1.41$, $p = .160$. On closer inspection however, both career non-traditionalist men, $b = 0.12$, $SE = 0.08$, $t(197.08) = 1.44$, $p = .152$, and women, $b = -0.08$, $SE = 0.09$, $t(198.58) = 0.90$, $p = .370$, reported stereotype-neutral family goals (although descriptively, both reported weakly

counter-stereotypic goals in this domain). Notably, although traditionalist men and women's reports did not differ overall, they were descriptively in line with gender stereotypes.

Family traditionalism. Family goals did not differ by any parameter, $ps > .149$.

Self versus partner career and family sacrifices. Unlike in the previous two studies, self-reports and partner-predictions for pro-career sacrifices (5 items, $\alpha s = .69, .74$) and pro-family sacrifices (5 items, $\alpha s = .71, .75$) significantly (negatively) correlated within targets: self-reports, $r(377) = -.23, p < .001$, and partner-predictions, $r(375) = -.25, p < .001$. However, as these subscales were independently analyzed in Study 1 and Study 2, they were kept distinct for the following analyses (and standardized). The same two self-versus-partner individual-level models were again used.

Pro-career sacrifices. Predictions of partner's pro-career sacrifices were significantly impacted by assumed similarity, $b = 0.35, SE = 0.05, t(307.77) = 7.51, p < .001$, and accuracy, $b = 0.28, SE = 0.05, t(307.10) = 5.89, p < .001$. A main effect of gender with a negative sign, $b = -0.24, SE = 0.05, t(185.77) = -4.75, p < .001$, in combination with the non-significant intercept, $p = .814$, revealed that only male partners were gender-stereotyped (i.e., as having strong pro-career goals). No interaction terms reached significance, $ps > .379$.

Career traditionalism. Testing the influence of career traditionalism on accuracy revealed no accuracy moderation, despite a significant gender by career traditionalism interaction, $b = -0.28, SE = 0.05, t(340.66) = 5.89, p < .001$ (the remaining relevant terms, $ps > .106$). Non-traditionalist men and women did not make significantly different partner-predictions within this model, $b = -0.07, SE = 0.06, t(224.84) = 1.18, p = .240$. However, traditional women (vs. traditional men) thought their partners were significantly more pro-career, $b = -0.62, SE = 0.08, t(287.46) = 7.76, p < .001$.

Family traditionalism. Accuracy was significantly moderated by family traditionalism, b = 0.09, SE = 0.05, $t(304.45)$ = 1.99, p = .048, and there was a significant gender by family traditionalism interaction, b = -0.14, SE = 0.05, $t(282.79)$ = 2.80, p = .005, as well as a marginal three-way interaction, b = -0.09, SE = 0.05, $t(299.90)$ = 1.81, p = .072. Non-traditionalists did not achieve significant accuracy, b = 0.13, SE = 0.07, $t(293.10)$ = 1.81, p = .071. However, those anticipating a traditional family arrangement were significantly accurate in their predictions of partner's pro-career sacrifice willingness, b = 0.32, SE = 0.07, $t(287.90)$ = 4.74, $p < .001$.

Pro-family sacrifices. Men (vs. women) predicted that their partners were significantly more willing to make pro-family sacrifices, b = 0.33, SE = 0.04, $t(185.33)$ = 7.46, $p < .001$, and there was significant assumed similarity, b = 0.19, SE = 0.04, $t(339.96)$ = 4.35, $p < .001$, and accuracy, b = 0.41, SE = 0.04, $t(337.77)$ = 9.52, $p < .001$. Further, gender significantly moderated assumed similarity, b = -0.09, SE = 0.04, $t(367.21)$ = 2.02, p = .045 (although gender did not significantly interact with accuracy, p = .616). Men's partner-predictions were marginally influenced by assumed similarity, b = 0.10, SE = 0.06, $t(184.53)$ = 1.75, p = .081, but women significantly assumed that their partner's pro-family sacrifice willingness was in line with their own, b = 0.27, SE = 0.06, $t(184.14)$ = 4.40, $p < .001$.

Career traditionalism. There was no moderation of accuracy by traditionalism, $ps > 210$. However, a gender by traditionalism interaction emerged, b = 0.29, SE = 0.05, $t(341.66)$ = 6.25, $p < .001$, on top of a main effect of women thinking their partners were significantly less pro-family (vs. men's reports about their partners), b = 0.43, SE = 0.05, $t(199.03)$ = 9.35, $p < .001$. Non-traditional women significantly (yet weakly) predicted their partners were less pro-family than did non-traditional men, b = 0.14, SE = 0.05, $t(236.10)$ = 2.68, p = .008. However, reports from career traditionalists significantly (and strongly) demonstrated gender stereotypes, with

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male partners assumed to be less pro-family than female partners, $b = 0.72$, $SE = 0.07$, $t(288.54)$ $= 9.62$, $p < .001$.

Family traditionalism. The interaction of gender and family traditionalism reached significance, $b = 0.16$, $SE = 0.05$, $t(278.37) = 3.26$, $p = .001$, but there was no moderation of accuracy by family traditionalism, $ps > .648$. Non-traditionalist men (vs. non-traditionalist women) reported higher partner pro-family willingness, $b = 0.18$, $SE = 0.07$, $t(218.71) = 2.65$, $p = .009$, and traditionalist men (vs. traditionalist women) exhibited a stronger analog of this pattern, $b = 0.50$, $SE = 0.07$, $t(218.84) = 6.96$, $p < .001$.

Direct stereotyping. Predictions of partner's stereotypicality along the femininity and masculinity scales were compared with partner self-reports along these dimensions. Accuracy's intersection with traditionalism (career and family) was then examined.

Femininity. Participants significantly assumed similarity with their partner, $b = 0.32$, $SE = 0.04$, $t(366.63) = 7.32$, $p < .001$, and achieved significant accuracy in their femininity predictions, $b = 0.36$, $SE = 0.04$, $t(366.24) = 8.31$, $p < .001$ (although neither interacted with gender, $ps > .548$). There was also a significant main effect of gender, $b = 0.12$, $SE = 0.05$, $t(183.96) = 2.15$, $p = .032$, with female partners reported as more feminine than male partners.

In the model testing the effect of career traditionalism on accuracy, none of the relevant terms attained significance, $ps > .186$. However, in the model examining the effect of family traditionalism on accuracy, the main effect of family traditionalism was significant, $b = -0.16$, $SE = 0.05$, $t(282.36) = -2.91$, $p = .004$, and the three-way interaction was marginally significant, $b = 0.08$, $SE = 0.05$, $t(297.86) = 1.68$, $p = .094$ (which was detailed, per a priori interest). For family non-traditionalists, the interaction of accuracy and gender was non-significant, $b = -0.09$, $SE = 0.07$, $t(296.48) = -1.37$, $p = .171$, with a significant main effect of accuracy, $b = 0.34$, $SE = 0.07$,

t(294.86) = 5.24, *p* < .001, but no gender difference, *b* = 0.08, *SE* = 0.07, *t*(280.42) = 1.17, *p* =

.244. Family traditionalists exhibited the same pattern, with a non-significant interaction, *b* =

0.08, *SE* = 0.07, *t*(273.70) = 1.03, *p* = .304, significant accuracy, *b* = 0.49, *SE* = 0.07, *t*(276.14) =

6.54, *p* = .000, and non-significant gender differences, *b* = 0.04, *SE* = 0.08, *t*(226.53) = 0.48, *p* =

.635. Importantly, accuracy amongst the family traditionalists (vs. non-traditionalists) was

descriptively higher.

Masculinity. Predictions of partner's masculinity were significantly associated with

participant gender, *b* = -0.06, *SE* = 0.03, *t*(184.06) = -1.99, *p* = .048, assumed similarity, *b* =

0.13, *SE* = 0.05, *t*(364.57) = 2.65, *p* = .008, accuracy, *b* = 0.55, *SE* = 0.05, *t*(349.21) = 11.25, *p* <

.001, and gender-by-assumed similarity, *b* = -0.11, *SE* = 0.05, *t*(339.38) = -2.16, *p* = .031. More

specifically, men did not significantly assumed similarity, *b* = 0.02, *SE* = 0.07, *t*(185.00) = 0.31,

p = .756, but women tended to assumed they and their partner had similar masculinity, *b* = 0.23,

SE = 0.07, *t*(183.26) = 3.37, *p* = .001.

As with the femininity models, career traditionalism did not intersect with accuracy, *b* = -

0.06, *SE* = 0.05, *t*(344.33) = -1.23, *p* = .221, and none of the other new terms reached

significance in this model, *ps* > .221. However, in the model examining family traditionalism,

the main effect of this form of traditionalism again had a significant main effect, *b* = 0.08, *SE* =

0.03, *t*(234.68) = 2.59, *p* = .010, despite no significant interactions, *ps* > .171. Family

traditionalists (vs. non-traditionalists) tended to predict their partners were more masculine.

Discussion

Although men and women's predictions were largely gender-stereotypic (i.e., expecting

women to do more of the female-stereotypic tasks than men), family traditionalism magnified

this effect for female-stereotypic (but not male-stereotypic) tasks. As in Study 2, men and women also tended to predict they would do more of the stereotype-congruent tasks (vs. what the other gender reported). Further, couples tended to agree more on the contributions toward male-stereotypic tasks. Overall, career and family traditionalists reported more gender-stereotypic career goals, although family traditionalist men's career goals were relatively weak (and only marginally stereotypic).

Both men and women made more gender-stereotypic predictions about partner (vs. self) willingness to choose career over family, despite significant accuracy and assumed similarity. Moreover, accurate detection of partner's pro-career willingness was decoupled from career traditionalism, although traditional individuals (vs. non-traditional) tended to make more gender-stereotypic partner-predictions. Conversely, family traditionalists were more accurate than family non-traditionalists regarding pro-career sacrifices. Replicating the Study 1 and 2 findings, predictions about partner's pro-family sacrifice willingness were markedly more gender-stereotypic (vs. self-reported willingness). Traditionalism (in either domain) did not impact accurate detection of partner pro-family willingness, despite more gender-stereotypic reports.

Direct stereotyping measures captured consistently high femininity reports (and relatively low masculinity reports) for female and male partners. In the model examining family traditionalism, gender was divorced from stereotypicality of reports, with the effect of this form of traditionalism instead being significant: Family traditionalists (vs. non-traditionalists) reported their partners as markedly less feminine and somewhat more masculine. Family traditionalism was also associated with boosted accuracy when predicting their partner's femininity.

CHAPTER FIVE: GENERAL DISCUSSION

Across three experiments, most young adults predicted that they would equally prioritize their and their partner's careers, and many predicted relatively equal contributions toward general household and childcare labour. Men and women further tended to make comparable predictions about their personal careers (e.g., salary, work travel), but more stereotypic predictions about their romantic partner's careers. Overall, traditionalist men and women typically reported gender-stereotypic abstract career / family goals, but non-traditionalists made more moderate reports (especially regarding career goals).

In general, predictions about specific household and childcare tasks were largely gender-stereotypic, especially for family traditionalists predicting female-stereotypic (but not male-stereotypic) tasks. Men and women (especially family traditionalists) also predicted that they would complete relatively more of the tasks stereotypic to their gender than their partner predicted. Despite this asymmetry, both self-reports and partner-predictions of tasks were typically gender-stereotypic in comparison to the sample mean.

Relative to non-traditionalists, traditionalists engaged in more gender stereotyping about predicted willingness to make career-over-family and family-over-career sacrifices. Male and female participants tended to see men as making more career-over-family sacrifices than women and women making more family-over career sacrifices than men, irrespective of traditionalism. Across all 3 studies, men and women made more gender-stereotypic predictions about partner (vs. self) willingness to choose family over career. Curiously, family traditionalism was associated with better accuracy in predicting partner's femininity (regardless of gender).

Overall, gender-stereotypic responses were more common amongst gender-traditionalists (especially regarding partners). However, this may represent an adaptive and realistic

phenomenon: Those who pursue gender-traditionalism in their relationship may be astutely and accurately applying gender stereotypes toward themselves and their partners. Indeed, although accuracy was only infrequently associated with traditionalism (in either domain), it was more frequently the case that traditionalists had better accuracy than non-traditionalists.

Limitations

Cross-sectional data. Although a promising extension of prior work (e.g., Brown & Diekman, 2010), our cross-sectional data raise critical questions about how priorities respond to perceived partner preferences. For instance, women with strongly career-focused male partners may downgrade their career goals to prioritize family goals and support their partners' careers. Conversely, although predictions made for partners align with *current* roles of mid-career couples, the millennial cohort may be shifting toward egalitarian values, rendering the predictions for self more accurate. Further work monitoring the change in career / family goals over time would be required to determine the causality of these correlational data.

Heterosexual couples. As this research concerns the interplay of distinct gender stereotypes specific to each person within romantic relationships, we focused on dyads comprising female- and male-identified individuals. Indeed, these results are generalizable to approximately 93% of women, as this figure represents the proportion that enter legal or common-law marriage to men over their lifespan (Statistics Canada, 2011). Stereotyping within same-sex romantic partners may plausibly operate in a similar manner, with participants stereotyping their partners more than themselves. However, women in same-sex relationships report relatively more equality in division of labour, in decision making, in emotional support, and in communication than their heterosexually paired counterparts (Gotta et al., 2011). Furthermore, when same-sex couples do split labour by domain, gender expression rarely

impacts this decision (Pfeffer, 2010). As such, it is unlikely that specifically *gender* stereotyping would occur, although further work on other forms of self- and partner-stereotyping (e.g., racial, SES) in romantic relationships is warranted.

     Serial collection. In Study 3, although we surveyed both members of romantic couples, due to original participants needing to supply their romantic partner's contact information, there was a delay of variable length between submission dates ($M = 37.17$ hours). This serial collection is problematic as asking the survey may act as a behavioural intervention, passing via goal contagion to romantic partners, contaminating their results (Aarts, Gollwitzer, & Hassin, 2004). More specifically, taking the survey may have swayed participants toward a particular set of goals (e.g., gender-traditionalism in their relationship), due to the increased consideration of such relationship processes (inherent to taking the survey). This may artificially inflate the measured agreement within couples, as the second partner surveyed may have been implicitly influenced by the first partner (via newly or more emphatically expressed goals). It may further contaminate the accuracy of the second partner, as they become more aware of their partner's goals by virtue of the above processes. Further analysis disentangling the accuracy of the first- and second-surveyed partners is warranted to address these limitations (accounting for gender confounding this potential model, as the majority of first-surveyed partners were women).

Future directions

     Longitudinal designs. To determine the evolution of career / family goals within dynamic relationships, longitudinal tracking of both members of romantic couples over time is required. For example, surveying both members of romantic relationships at the onset of their partnership, to determine whether individuals assort based on traditionalism or gradually

converge toward similar belief systems. Should increasing convergence occur over time, analyses could investigate the extent to which this occurs due to explicit decision-making (e.g., deciding to work more and spend less time keeping house), or behaviourally sliding toward a relationship model and then updating goals and attitudes through self-reflection (Bem, 1972).

Leveraging communication. Insofar as men and women overestimate their partners' preferences for traditional gender roles, interventions could counter this over-reliance on gender norms by fostering candid communication about specific goals. Indeed, through leveraging the processes analogous to those potentially limiting interpretation of Study 3's high agreement within couples (due to serial data collection), we could design an interactive lab study investigating the genesis of increased accuracy and agreement as career and family goals are discussed.

Conclusions

Our proposed research examines the implications of inaccurate or incongruent predictions for future career and family priorities within mixed-gender romantic couples. Three initial studies suggest that male and female undergraduates predict comparable career / family goals for themselves, but perceive partners as preferring more traditional distributions of work and home labour (especially if observers endorse gender-traditional beliefs). Directly comparing perceptions from both members of committed couples revealed that accuracy when predicting partners' goals is potentially associated with desires for gender-traditionalism. We hypothesize that over time, larger disagreements (e.g., about whose career will be prioritized) and less accurate predictions (e.g., men overestimating their own female partners' family goals) increase the likelihood of later conflict or corrosive compromises that impede individuals' own egalitarian

goals. Variation across couples in accurately gauging relationship partners' preferences may partially explain why some women who expect career parity are later disappointed (Ely et al., 2014). Illuminating these dynamics can equip and empower men (and women) to support their partners' goal achievement.

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Table 1

Gender-stereotypic specific task predictions by gender and family traditionalism: Regression coefficients b(SE)

	Female-stereotypic		Male-stereotypic	
	S2	S3	S2	S3
Intercept	0.26 (0.03)∗∗∗	0.30 (0.02)∗∗∗	-0.52 (0.03)∗∗∗	-0.58 (0.03)∗∗∗
Partner type	-0.01 (0.03)		0.02 (0.03)	
Gender	-0.06 (0.02)∗	-0.07 (0.01)∗∗∗	-0.03 (0.03)	-0.08 (0.01)∗∗∗
Family traditionalism	0.14 (0.02)∗∗∗	0.10 (0.01)∗∗∗	-0.03 (0.03)	-0.01 (0.02)
Gender x family traditionalism	-0.05 (0.02)†	-0.04 (0.01)∗∗	-0.08 (0.03)∗	-0.02 (0.02)
Only family non-traditionalists				
Intercept	0.13 (0.04)∗∗∗	0.21 (0.02)∗∗∗	-0.49 (0.05)∗∗∗	
Gender	-0.01 (0.04)	-0.04 (0.02)∗	0.05 (0.05)	
Only family traditionalists				
Intercept	0.40 (0.03)∗∗∗	0.40 (0.02)∗∗∗	-0.55 (0.05)∗∗∗	
Gender	-0.11 (0.03)∗∗	-0.11 (0.02)∗∗∗	-0.11 (0.04)∗	

Note. The abbreviations S2 and S3 denote results from Study 2 and Study 3, respectively. In Study 2, results are from ANCOVAs, and in Study 3, multi-level regressions. Gender was effects-coded -1 (female) and +1 (male), and partner type (S2 only) was effects-coded -1 (ideal partner) and +1 (actual partner).
†*p* < .10. ∗*p* < .05. ∗∗*p* < .01. ∗∗∗*p* < .001.

Table 2

Study 2 career attributes by gender and career traditionalism: ANCOVA coefficients $F(\eta_p^2)$

	Attainment	Salary	Travel
Intercept	1.33 (.01)	0.01 (.00)	0.01 (.00)
Partner type	19.60 (.10)***	1.79 (.01)	0.03 (.00)
Target x partner type	9.08 (.05)**	0.32 (.00)	0.40 (.00)
Target	0.07 (.00)	0.15 (.00)	0.38 (.00)
Gender	0.32 (.00)	0.20 (.00)	0.07 (.00)
Career traditionalism	0.04 (.00)	0.99 (.01)	0.00 (.00)
Target x gender	10.33 (.06)**	19.94 (.11)***	15.26 (.08)***
Target x career traditionalism	2.13 (.01)	1.13 (.01)	0.57 (.00)
Gender x career traditionalism	0.00 (.00)	0.29 (.00)	0.25 (.00)
Target x gender x career traditionalism	6.55 (.04)*	11.35 (.06)***	14.89 (.08)***
Only career non-traditionalists			
Target	2.33 (.01)	0.34 (.00)	0.01 (.00)
Gender	0.27 (.00)	0.01 (.00)	0.05 (.00)
Target x gender	0.45 (.00)	1.24 (.01)	0.02 (.00)
Only career traditionalists			
Target	0.50 (.00)	0.76 (.00)	0.68 (.00)
Gender	0.12 (.00)	0.35 (.00)	0.20 (.00)
Target x gender	11.70 (.06)***	21.59 (.11)***	21.08 (.11)***
Only career traditionalist men			
Target	8.34 (.05)**	14.88 (.08)***	14.34 (.08)***
Only career traditionalist women			
Target	3.93 (.02)*	7.62 (.04)**	7.58 (.04)**

Note. Attainment = career attainment, Travel = work travel. Gender was effects-coded -1
(female) and +1 (male), and partner type was effects-coded -1 (ideal partner) and +1 (actual
partner).

†*p* < .10. *p* < .05. **p* < .01. ***p* < .001.

Table 3

Study 2 career attributes by gender and career traditionalism: ANCOVA coefficients F(ηp2)

	Hours	Innate	Location	Effort	Education
Intercept	0.32 (.00)	0.96 (.01)	0.03 (.00)	5.93 (.09)*	0.38 (.00)
Partner type	0.60 (.00)	5.83 (.03)*	0.02 (.00)		0.26 (.00)
Target x partner type	2.18 (.01)	1.31 (.01)	5.44 (.03)*		0.04 (.00)
Target	0.20 (.00)	0.02 (.00)	0.04 (.00)	1.08 (.02)	0.00 (.00)
Gender	4.44 (.03)*	0.09 (.00)	5.55 (.03)*	2.12 (.04)	1.40 (.01)
Career traditionalism	3.35 (.02)†	0.12 (.00)	0.50 (.00)	0.01 (.00)	1.46 (.01)
Target x gender	15.16 (.08)***	5.90 (.03)*	4.86 (.03)*	3.97 (.06)†	2.74 (.02)†
Target x career traditionalism	0.01 (.00)	1.36 (.01)	1.60 (.01)	1.77 (.03)	0.19 (.00)
Gender x career traditionalism	5.28 (.03)*	0.20 (.00)	0.30 (.00)	4.02 (.06)*	0.66 (.00)
Target x gender x career traditionalism	0.25 (.00)	0.18 (.00)	2.20 (.01)	0.13 (.00)	1.42 (.01)
Only men					
Target	5.61 (.03)*	3.09 (.02)†	1.91 (.01)		
Career traditionalism	8.65 (.05)**			1.60 (.03)	
Target x career traditionalism	0.18 (.00)				
Only women					
Target	9.96 (.06)**	2.81 (.02)†	3.05 (.02)†		
Career traditionalism	0.11 (.00)			2.89 (.05)†	
Target x career traditionalism	0.08 (.00)				

Note. Hours = hours per week, Innate = required innate talent, Location = workplace location, Effort = required effort. Gender was

effects-coded -1 (female) and +1 (male), and partner type was effects-coded -1 (ideal partner) and +1 (actual partner).

†*p* < .10. *p* < .05. **p* < .01. ***p* < .001.

Table 4

Study 3 career attributes by gender and career traditionalism I: Multi-level regression coefficients b(SE).

	Attainment	Effort	Education
Intercept	0.01 (0.05)	0.02 (0.05)	0.01 (0.04)
Career traditionalism	-0.01 (0.05)	0.06 (0.05)	0.03 (0.04)
Gender	0.04 (0.05)	-0.12 (0.05)∗	-0.03 (0.04)
Assumed similarity	0.12 (0.05)∗∗	0.24 (0.05)∗∗∗	0.24 (0.04)∗∗∗
Accuracy	0.43 (0.05)∗∗∗	0.24 (0.05)∗∗∗	0.60 (0.04)∗∗∗
Gender x career traditionalism	-0.09 (0.05)†	0.12 (0.05)∗	-0.11 (0.04)∗∗
Accuracy x gender	-0.06 (0.05)	-0.06 (0.05)	-0.07 (0.04)†
Accuracy x career traditionalism	0.02 (0.05)	0.09 (0.05)t	0.09 (0.04)∗
Accuracy x gender x career traditionalism	0.13 (0.05)∗∗	0.16 (0.05)∗∗	-0.11 (0.04)∗∗
Only career non-traditionalists			
Gender	0.13 (0.06)∗	-0.23 (0.06)∗∗∗	0.08 (0.05)
Accuracy	0.41 (0.06)∗∗∗	0.15 (0.06)∗∗	0.50 (0.05)∗∗∗
Accuracy x gender	-0.19 (0.06)∗∗∗	-0.22 (0.06)∗∗∗	0.04 (0.05)
Only career traditionalists			
Gender	-0.05 (0.09)	0.00 (0.08)	-0.14 (0.07)∗
Accuracy	0.44 (0.08)∗∗∗	0.34 (0.09)∗∗∗	0.69 (0.06)∗∗∗
Accuracy x gender	0.08 (0.08)	0.10 (0.09)	-0.18 (0.06)∗∗
Only career non-traditional men			
Accuracy	0.22 (0.08)∗∗	-0.07 (0.08)	
Only career non-traditional women			
Accuracy	0.60 (0.08)∗∗∗	0.37 (0.08)∗∗∗	
Only career traditional men			
Accuracy			0.51 (0.09)∗∗∗
Only career traditional women			
Accuracy			0.87 (0.08)∗∗∗

Note. Attainment = career attainment, Effort = required effort. Gender was effects-coded -1

(female) and +1 (male), and partner type (S2 only) was effects-coded -1 (ideal partner) and +1

(actual partner).

†*p* < .10. ∗*p* < .05. ∗∗*p* < .01. ∗∗∗*p* < .001.

Table 5

Study 3 career attributes by gender and career traditionalism II: Multi-level regression coefficients b(SE)

	Innate	Hours	Salary	Travel	Location
Intercept	-0.04 (0.05)	-0.01 (0.05)	-0.03 (0.04)	-0.02 (0.05)	0.00 (0.04)
Career traditionalism	-0.05 (0.05)	-0.02 (0.05)	-0.06 (0.04)	-0.02 (0.05)	0.02 (0.05)
Gender	-0.15 (0.05)∗∗	-0.21 (0.05)∗∗∗	-0.20 (0.05)∗∗∗	-0.23 (0.05)∗∗∗	0.03 (0.05)
Assumed similarity	0.43 (0.05)∗∗∗	0.31 (0.05)∗∗∗	0.48 (0.04)∗∗∗	0.38 (0.05)∗∗∗	0.15 (0.05)∗∗
Accuracy	0.16 (0.05)∗∗	0.31 (0.05)∗∗∗	0.42 (0.04)∗∗∗	0.30 (0.05)∗∗∗	0.42 (0.05)∗∗∗
Gender x career traditionalism	-0.15 (0.05)∗∗	-0.22 (0.05)∗∗∗	-0.14 (0.04)∗∗	-0.12 (0.05)∗	0.01 (0.05)
Accuracy x gender	-0.05 (0.05)	0.07 (0.05)	0.01 (0.04)	-0.02 (0.05)	0.00 (0.05)
Accuracy x career traditionalism	0.05 (0.05)	0.06 (0.05)	0.04 (0.04)	0.00 (0.05)	-0.02 (0.05)
Accuracy x gender x career traditionalism	-0.04 (0.05)	0.08 (0.05)†	-0.02 (0.04)	-0.05 (0.05)	0.02 (0.05)
Only career non-traditionalists					
Gender	0.01 (0.06)	0.01 (0.06)	-0.06 (0.05)	-0.11 (0.06)†	
Accuracy	0.12 (0.05)∗	0.24 (0.06)∗∗∗	0.38 (0.05)∗∗∗	0.30 (0.06)∗∗∗	
Accuracy x gender	-0.01 (0.05)	-0.01 (0.06)	0.04 (0.05)	0.03 (0.06)	
Only career traditionalists					
Gender	-0.30 (0.08)∗∗∗	-0.43 (0.09)∗∗∗	-0.34 (0.08)∗∗∗	-0.35 (0.08)∗∗∗	
Accuracy	0.21 (0.09)∗	0.37 (0.08)∗∗∗	0.47 (0.07)∗∗∗	0.29 (0.08)∗∗∗	
Accuracy x gender	-0.08 (0.09)	0.15 (0.08)†	-0.01 (0.06)	-0.08 (0.08)	

Note. Innate = required innate talent, Hours = hours per week, Travel = work travel, Location = workplace location. Gender was

effects-coded -1 (female) and +1 (male), and partner type (S2 only) was effects-coded -1 (ideal partner) and +1 (actual partner).

†*p* < .10. ∗*p* < .05. ∗∗*p* < .01. ∗∗∗*p* < .001.

Table 6

Career goals by gender and traditionalism I: Regression coefficients b(SE)

	Career traditionalism			Family traditionalism	
	S1	S2	S3	S2	S3
Intercept	0.00 (0.07)	0.06 (0.08)	0.03 (0.06)	0.02 (0.09)	0.00 (0.06)
Family goals	0.16 (0.07)*	0.14 (0.08)†	0.14 (0.05)**	0.19 (0.10)†	0.20 (0.06)**
Future relationship	-0.05 (0.07)	0.11 (0.08)		0.11 (0.09)	
Gender	0.10 (0.07)	0.04 (0.09)	0.18 (0.05)***	0.03 (0.08)	0.12 (0.05)*
Traditionalism	-0.01 (0.07)	0.06 (0.08)	0.02 (0.05)	-0.15 (0.08)†	-0.04 (0.06)
Gender x traditionalism	0.21 (0.07)**	0.08 (0.08)	0.27 (0.05)***	0.01 (0.08)	0.13 (0.05)*
Only non-traditionalists					
Intercept	0.01 (0.09)		0.00 (0.07)		0.04 (0.08)
Gender	-0.11 (0.08)		-0.09 (0.06)		-0.01 (0.07)
Only traditionalists					
Intercept	-0.01 (0.11)		0.05 (0.09)		-0.03(0.08)
Gender	0.30 (0.11)**		0.45 (0.08)***		0.24 (0.07)**

Note: The abbreviations S1, S2 and S3 denote results from Study 1, Study 2 and Study 3, respectively. In Study 1 and Study 2, results are from ANCOVAs, and in Study 3, multi-level regressions. Gender was effects-coded -1 (female) and +1 (male), and partner type (S2 only) was effects-coded -1 (ideal partner) and +1 (actual partner).

†$p < .10$. *$p < .05$. **$p < .01$. ***$p < .001$.

Table 7

Family goals by gender and traditionalism II: Regression coefficients b(SE)

	Career traditionalism			Family traditionalism	
	S1	S2	S3	S2	S3
Intercept	0.12 (0.07)†	0.03 (0.08)	-0.02 (0.06)	0.29 (0.07)∗∗∗	0.16 (0.06)∗∗
Career goals	0.16 (0.07)∗	0.13 (0.07)†	0.13 (0.05)∗	0.13 (0.07)†	0.15 (0.05)∗∗
Future relationship	0.26 (0.07)∗∗∗	0.09 (0.08)		0.09 (0.07)	
Gender	0.00 (0.07)	-0.26 (0.08)∗∗	0.00 (0.04)	-0.11 (0.07)	0.03 (0.04)
Traditionalism	0.16 (0.07)∗	0.00 (0.08)	-0.04 (0.05)	0.07 (0.07)	-0.03 (0.05)
Gender x traditionalism	-0.13 (0.07)†	-0.20 (0.08)∗	-0.10 (0.05)∗	-0.01 (0.07)	-0.07 (0.05)
Only non-traditionalists					
Intercept	-0.04 (0.08)	0.03 (0.09)	0.02 (0.07)		
Gender	0.13 (0.08)	-0.05 (0.09)	0.10 (0.05)∗		
Only traditionalists					
Intercept	0.28 (0.11)∗	0.02 (0.13)	-0.06 (0.09)		
Gender	-0.13 (0.11)	-0.46 (0.14)∗∗∗	-0.11 (0.08)		

Note: The abbreviations S1, S2 and S3 denote results from Study 1, Study 2 and Study 3, respectively. In Study 1 and Study 2, results

are from ANCOVAs, and in Study 3, multi-level regressions. Gender was effects-coded -1 (female) and +1 (male), and partner type

(S2 only) was effects-coded -1 (ideal partner) and +1 (actual partner).

†*p* < .10. ∗*p* < .05. ∗∗*p* < .01. ∗∗∗*p* < .001.

Table 8

Study 1 and Study 2 pro-career and pro-family sacrifices by gender and traditionalism: ANCOVA coefficients F(ηp2)

	Career traditionalism				Family traditionalism	
	Pro-career (S1)	Pro-career (S2)	Pro-family (S1)	Pro-family (S2)	Pro-career (S2)	Pro-family (S2)
Intercept	0.11 (.00)	0.10 (.00)	3.25 (.01)t	0.48 (.00)	0.08 (.00)	0.29 (.00)
Partner type	0.04 (.00)	0.52 (.00)	1.24 (.01)	0.20 (.00)	0.24 (.00)	0.15 (.00)
Target x partner type	3.31 (.02)†	0.23 (.00)	2.49 (.01)	0.05 (.00)	0.04 (.00)	0.22 (.00)
Target	0.29 (.00)	0.46 (.00)	0.26 (.00)	0.00 (.00)	0.11 (.00)	1.34 (.01)
Gender	1.10 (.01)	0.44 (.00)	17.58 (.07)***	1.21 (.01)	1.30 (.01)	0.06 (.00)
Traditionalism	0.48 (.00)	0.02 (.00)	2.49 (.01)	1.83 (.01)	1.44 (.01)	0.01 (.00)
Target x gender	37.46 (.15)***	32.97 (.16)***	73.71 (.25)***	34.59 (.17)***	19.65 (.13)***	9.80 (.07)**
Target x traditionalism	1.06 (.00)	2.05 (.01)	1.96 (.01)	0.09 (.00)	1.89 (.01)	0.00 (.00)
Gender x traditionalism	1.40 (.01)	1.10 (.01)	0.94 (.00)	1.62 (.01)	0.01 (.00)	0.08 (.00)
Target x gender x traditionalism	8.99 (.04)**	10.81 (.06)**	54.64 (.20)***	20.52 (.11)***	4.65 (.03)*	5.05 (.04)*
Only non-traditionalists						
Target	1.65 (.01)	0.42 (.00)	2.42 (.01)	0.09 (.00)	0.47 (.00)	0.66 (.00)
Gender	0.01 (.00)	2.60 (.01)	18.51 (.08)***	0.02 (.00)	0.70 (.01)	0.13 (.00)
Target x gender	6.78 (.03)**	5.81 (.03)*	1.00 (.00)	1.91 (.01)	2.39 (.02)	0.37 (.00)
Only traditionalists						
Target	0.09 (.00)	1.59 (.01)	0.30 (.00)	0.03 (.00)	1.51 (.01)	0.75 (.01)
Gender	1.95 (.01)	0.05 (.00)	4.06 (.02)*	1.96 (.01)	0.60 (.00)	0.00 (.00)
Target x gender	32.50 (.13)***	28.49 (.14)***	99.76 (.31)***	37.76 (.18)***	24.13 (.15)***	16.05 (.11)***
Only non-traditionalist men						
Target	5.89 (.03)*	1.41 (.01)				
Only non-traditionalist women						
Target	1.10 (.01)	4.58 (.03)*				
Only traditionalist men						
Target	12.30 (.05)***	21.50 (.11)***	37.53 (.15)***	19.80 (.10)***	5.68 (.04)*	4.14 (.03)*
Only traditionalist women						
Target	22.13 (.09)***	8.87 (.05)**	68.27 (.24)***	18.86 (.10)***	21.03 (.13)***	13.22 (.09)***

Note. The two domains of traditionalism studied are noted in Row 1. The abbreviations S1 and S2 denote results from Study 1 and

Study 2, respectively. Gender was effects-coded -1 (female) and +1 (male), and partner type was effects-coded -1 (ideal partner) and

+1 (actual partner).

†*p* < .10. *p < .05. **p < .01. ***p < .001.

Table 9

Study 3 pro-career and pro-family sacrifices by gender and traditionalism: Multi-level regression coefficients b(SE)

	Career traditionalism		Family traditionalism	
	Pro-career	Pro-family	Pro-career	Pro-family
Intercept	-0.02 (0.04)	0.02 (0.04)	0.00 (0.05)	0.03 (0.05)
Assumed similarity	0.41 (0.05)***	0.26 (0.04)***	0.41 (0.05)***	0.27 (0.05)***
Gender	-0.34 (0.05)***	0.43 (0.05)***	-0.30 (0.05)***	0.34 (0.05)***
Traditionalism	0.02 (0.04)	0.00 (0.04)	0.02 (0.05)	0.02 (0.05)
Gender x traditionalism	-0.28 (0.05)***	0.29 (0.05)***	-0.14 (0.05)**	0.16 (0.05)**
Accuracy	0.24 (0.05)***	0.35 (0.04)***	0.22 (0.05)***	0.36 (0.05)***
Accuracy x gender	-0.07 (0.05)	-0.01 (0.04)	-0.04 (0.05)	-0.06 (0.05)
Accuracy x traditionalism	-0.02 (0.05)	-0.05 (0.04)	0.09 (0.05)*	0.02 (0.05)
Accuracy x gender x traditionalism	-0.07 (0.05)	0.01 (0.04)	-0.09 (0.05)†	-0.02 (0.05)
Only non-traditionalists				
Gender	-0.07 (0.06)	0.14 (0.05)**	-0.16 (0.07)*	0.18 (0.07)**
Accuracy			0.13 (0.07)†	
Gender x accuracy			0.04 (0.07)	
Only traditionalists				
Gender	-0.62 (0.08)***	0.72 (0.07)***	-0.43 (0.07)***	0.50 (0.07)***
Accuracy			0.32 (0.07)***	
Gender x accuracy			-0.13 (0.07)*	
Only traditionalist men				
Accuracy			0.19 (0.10)†	
Only traditionalist women				
Accuracy			0.45 (0.08)***	

Note. The two domains of traditionalism studied are noted in Row 1. Gender was effects-coded -1 (female) and +1 (male).

†*p* < .10. *p* < .05. **p* < .01. ***p* < .001.

Table 10

Study 3 masculinity and femininity by gender and traditionalism: Multi-level regression coefficients b(SE)

	Career traditionalism		Family traditionalism	
	Femininity	Masculinity	Femininity	Masculinity
Intercept	0.55(0.06)∗∗∗	-0.13(0.03)∗∗∗	0.46(0.07)∗∗∗	-0.11(0.03)∗∗∗
Assumed similarity	0.31(0.04)∗∗∗	0.14(0.05)∗∗	0.35(0.05)∗∗∗	0.18(0.05)∗∗
Gender	0.09(0.05)∗	-0.07(0.03)∗	0.06(0.05)	-0.03(0.04)
Traditionalism	-0.02(0.05)	0.00(0.03)	-0.16(0.05)∗∗	0.08(0.03)∗
Gender x traditionalism	-0.02(0.05)	-0.03(0.03)	-0.02(0.05)	-0.05(0.03)
Accuracy	0.36(0.05)∗∗∗	0.52(0.05)∗∗∗	0.41(0.05)∗∗∗	0.55(0.06)∗∗∗
Accuracy x gender	-0.01(0.05)	-0.03(0.05)	-0.01(0.05)	-0.03(0.06)
Accuracy x traditionalism	-0.03(0.05)	-0.06(0.05)	0.07(0.05)	0.00(0.06)
Accuracy x gender x traditionalism	0.06(0.05)	0.00(0.05)	0.08(0.05)†	0.03(0.06)
Only non-traditionalists				
Gender			0.08(0.07)	
Accuracy			0.34(0.07)∗∗∗	
Accuracy x gender			-0.09(0.07)	
Only traditionalists				
Gender			0.04(0.08)	
Accuracy			0.49(0.07)∗∗∗	
Accuracy x gender			0.08(0.07)	

Note. The two domains of traditionalism studied are noted in Row 1. Gender was effects-coded -1 (female) and +1 (male).

†*p* < .10. ∗*p* < .05. ∗∗*p* < .01. ∗∗∗*p* < .001.
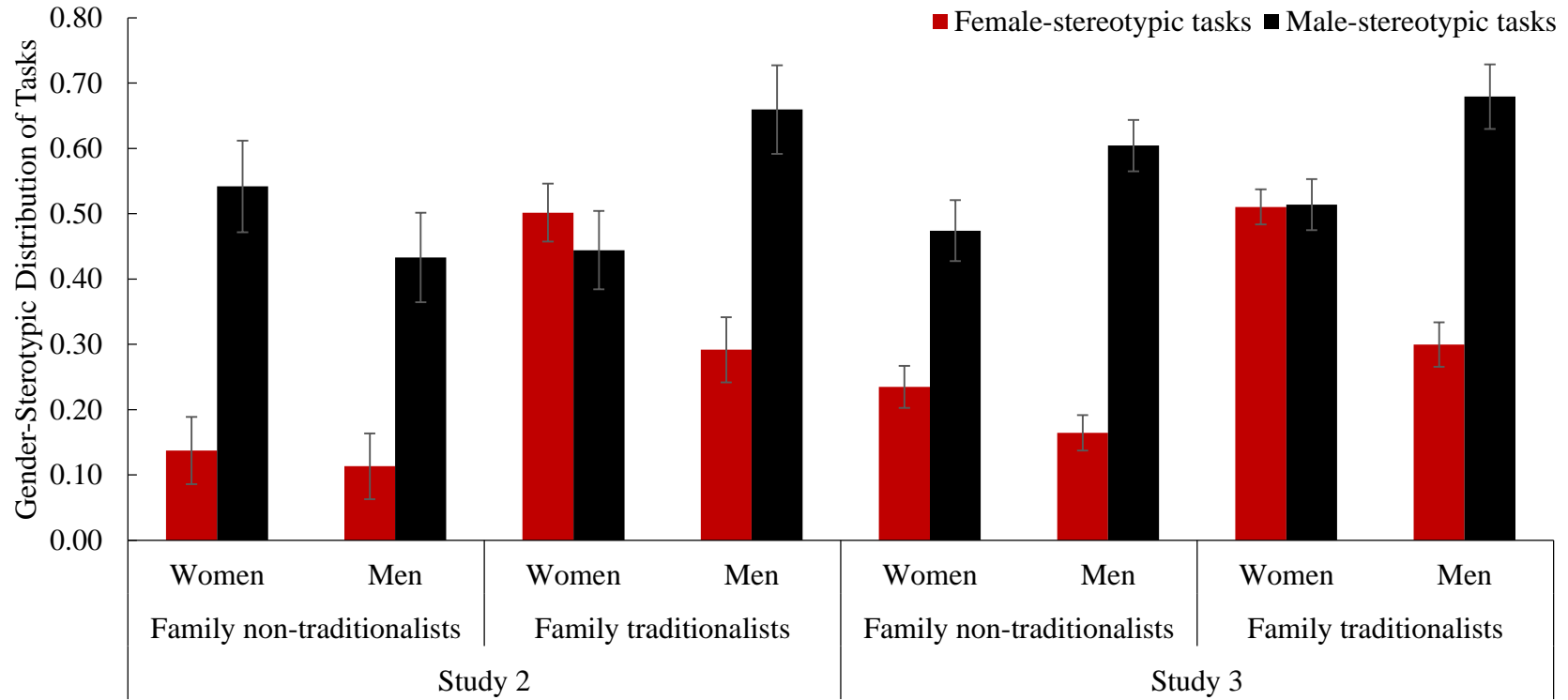
Figure 1: Estimated marginal means for female-stereotypic and male-stereotypic household and childcare tasks composites. Male-stereotypic task means were inverted, to facilitate plotting. In Study 2, means are estimated while covarying for partner type. Error bars: ± 1 SE.
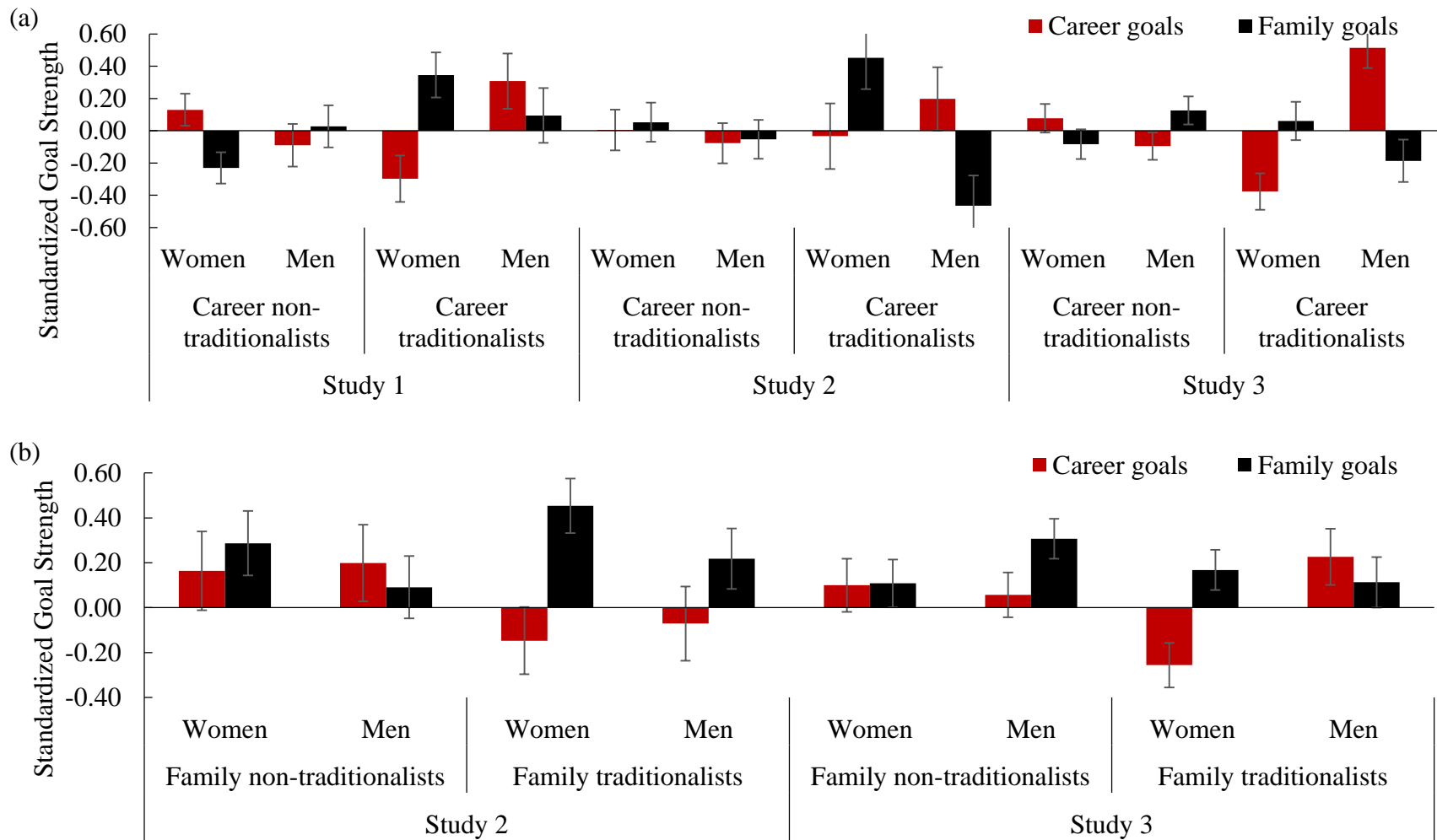
Figure 2: Estimated marginal means for career and family goals, by gender and (a) career traditionalism or (b) family traditionalism.

In Studies 1 and 2, means are estimated while covarying for partner type. Error bars: ± 1 SE.
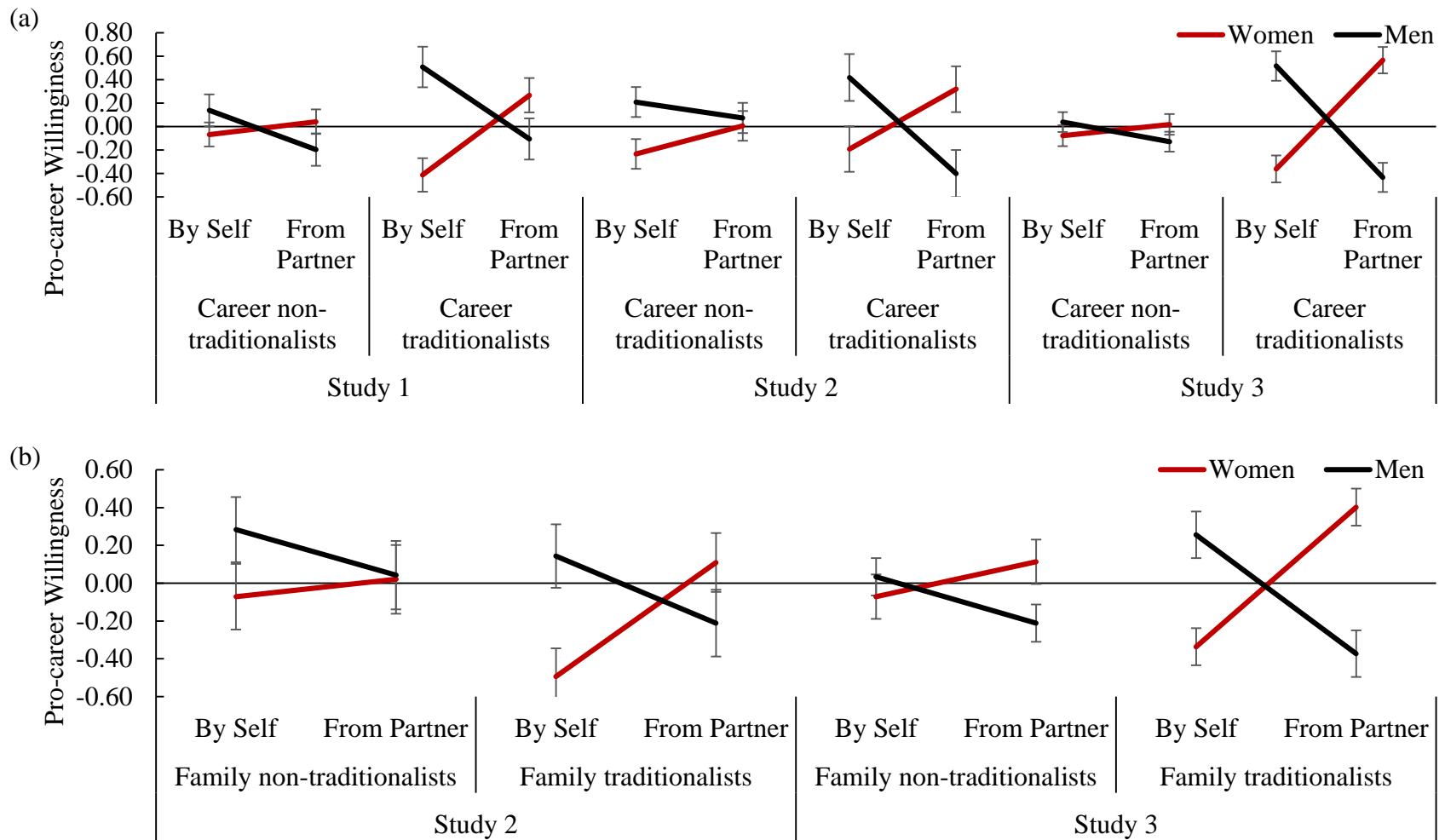
Figure 3: Estimated marginal means for standardized pro-career sacrifice willingness, by target gender and the (a) career

traditionalism or (b) family traditionalism of the observer. In Studies 1 and 2, means are estimated while covarying for partner type.
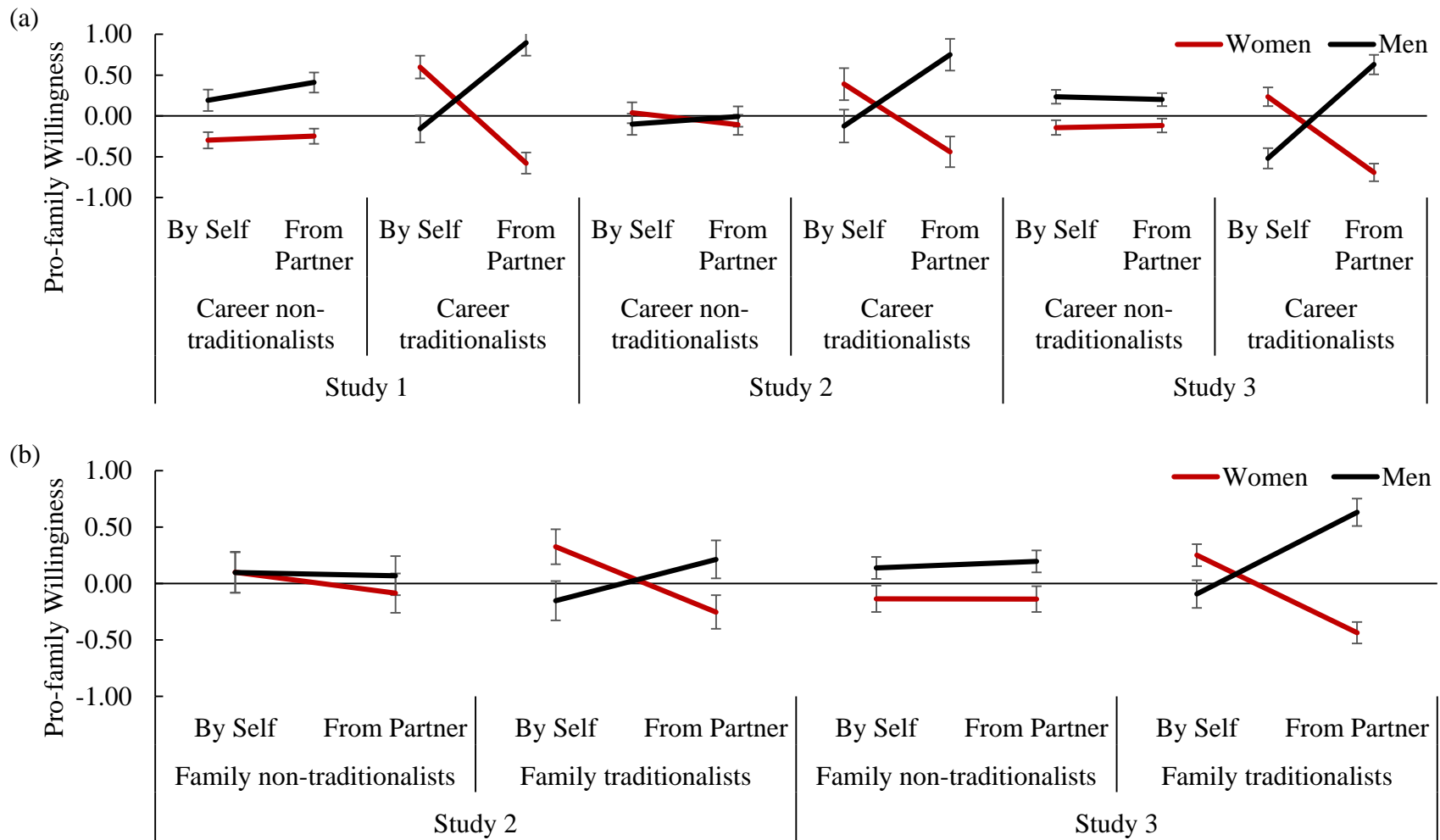
Error bars: ± 1 SE.

Figure 4: Estimated marginal means for standardized pro-family sacrifice willingness, by target gender and the (a) career traditionalism or (b) family traditionalism of the observer. In Studies 1 and 2, means are estimated while covarying for partner type. Error bars: ± 1 SE.

APPENDIX A

Career attributes

Item	Stem	Anchors
Career attainment (S1-S2)	How likely do you think it is that you will achieve {your predicted} career?	(1 = *very unlikely*, 5 = *very likely*)
Career attainment (S3)	How satisfied are you with your current progress toward your career goals?	(1 = *extremely dissatisfied*, 5 = *extremely satisfied*)
Education (S1-S3)	How many years of post-high school training (including university) will you need to achieve this career?	(1 = *0 years*, 10 = *more than 9 years*)
Required effort (S1-S3)	To achieve this career, how much effort will you need to expend?	(1 = *much less than I am right now*, 2 = *somewhat less than I am right now*, 3 = *as much as I am right now*, 4 = *somewhat more than I am right now*, 5 = *much more than I am right now*)
Hours (S2-S3)	Per week, how many hours do you expect you will work?	(1 = *much less than 40 hours*, 2 = *somewhat less than 40 hours*, 3 = *about 40 hours*, 4 = *somewhat more than 40 hours*, 5 = *much more than 40 hours*)
Salary (S2-S3)	Per year, what income do you expect you will make?	(1 = *less than 50,000*, 2 = *50,000 to 74,999*, 3 = *75,000 to 99,999*, 4 = *100,000 to 124,999*, 5 = *more than 125,000*)
Work travel (S2-S3)	Per year, how many times do you expect you will travel overnight for work-related reasons?	(1 = *0 nights*, 2 = *1-3 nights*, 3 = *4-7 nights*, 4 = *7-14 nights*, 5 = *more than 14 nights*)
Work location (S2-S3)	In general, where do you expect to do most of your work?	(1 = *entirely at home*, 2 = *mostly at home*, 3 = *equally at home and in the office*, 4 = *mostly in the office*, 5 = *entirely in the office*)
Innate talent (S2-S3)	How much innate talent or ability (as opposed to trainable skills that anyone can master) does this career require?	(1 = *no innate talent*, 2 = *low innate talent*, 3 = *moderate innate talent*, 4 = *high innate talent*, 5 = *extraordinary innate talent*)

Note. Analogous questions were asked regarding romantic partners in Study 2 and Study 3, with

"you" replaced with the partner's name or "your future partner" (depending on partner type). The

abbreviations S1, S2, and S3 denote materials used in Study 1, Study 2, and Study 3,

respectively.

APPENDIX B

Household and childcare tasks

Female-stereotypic tasks	Male-stereotypic tasks
1. Bathing / changing diapers	1. Coaching sports teams
2. Buying {children's} clothing	2. Doing taxes
3. Buying groceries	3. Driving {children} to school / activities
4. Cleaning	
5. Doing laundry	4. Electronics / computer upkeep
6. Doing the dishes	5. Enforcing {children's} house rules
7. Feeding / preparing {children's} meals	6. Household repairs
	7. Managing bill payments
8. Going to parent-teacher meetings	8. Playing / socializing {with children} outdoors
9. Helping with homework	
10. Night-time soothing / feeding	9. Taking out the trash
11. Playing / socializing {with children} indoors	10. Vehicle maintenance
12. Preparing meals	
13. Scheduling appointments	
14. Social event planning	

Note. Items were scored on a 5-point scale (1 = *always you*, 5 = *always {partner name}*), with an

N/A option.

APPENDIX C

Abstract goals

Career goals and family goals subscales

Career goals
1. Having work/a career that is interesting and exciting to me is my most important life goal.
2. I expect my job/career to give me more real satisfaction than anything else I do.
3. It is important to me that I have a job/career in which I can achieve something of importance.

Family goals
1. Although parenthood requires many sacrifices, the love and enjoyment of one's children is worth it all.
2. Having a successful marriage is the most important thing in life to me.
3. I expect the major satisfactions in my life to come from my marriage relationship.
4. If I chose not to have children, I would regret it.

Note. Items were scored on a 7-point scale (1 = *completely disagree*, 7 = *completely agree*), with

an N/A option.

APPENDIX D

Sacrifice willingness

Pro-career sacrifice willingness and pro-family sacrifice willingness subscales

Pro-career
1. Be away from home 4 or more consecutive weeks for work (e.g., for training)
2. Miss a child's recital due to a work commitment
3. Miss a family member's birthday due to work travel
4. Move your family to pursue your career in a different city/province/country
5. Work overtime on evenings and weekends (S2 and S3 only)

Pro-family
1. Be identified primarily as a homemaker rather than a professional
2. Take more parental leave than is advantageous for your career
3. Take time off from work to look after sick children or family members
4. Work only part-time to accommodate your partner's career
5. Submit a work project late to celebrate an anniversary (S2 and S3 only)

Note. Items were scored on a 7-point scale (1 = *extremely unwilling*, 7 = *extremely willing*), with

an N/A option.