WHY DO WE STILL CALL IT HOMOPHOBIA?
EXPLORING THE EVIDENCE FOR A STATE-TRAIT MODEL OF SEXUAL PREJUDICE

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ABSTRACT

WHY DO WE STILL CALL IT HOMOPHOBIA?
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Sexual prejudice occurs when one makes automatic or intentional negative evaluations of sexual minority (i.e., non-heterosexual) individuals due to their actual or perceived sexual orientation. The current study sought to extend the extant literature on sexual prejudice by using an experimental design to concurrently examine factors associated with two of the most prominent models of sexual prejudice: the personality model of homophobia and the negative affective response model of homophobia. Although the extant literature often portrays them as competing models, this study examined whether integrating elements from both models would create a more comprehensive, state-trait model of sexual prejudice that would better predict endorsement of anti-gay attitudes and negative reactions to lesbian, gay, or bisexual (LGB) stimuli.

Participants (n = 350) were invited to participate in a two-part online study that examined the relationships among two individual-level personality factors (i.e., right-wing authoritarianism [RWA] and social dominance orientation [SDO]), negative affect (i.e., fear, hostility, guilt, and cognitive and somatic symptoms of anxiety), and exposure to gay male video stimuli. This study utilized video clips drawn from mainstream news media stories about gay men; the videos were empirically selected during a pilot study that examined the reactions of participants (n = 147) who were high on either RWA or SDO to six potential videos about gay men. Results from the full study indicated that double high participants (i.e., individuals who were simultaneously high on RWA and SDO) and participants who were high on RWA alone endorsed greater levels of

sexual prejudice than participants low on both RWA and SDO; participants who were high on SDO alone did not endorse more sexually prejudiced attitudes. However, neither sexual prejudice nor emotion regulation significantly moderated the relationship between exposure to gay male material and negative affective response. Finally, although the results indicated that the relationship between personality and sexual prejudice was significant in the integrated state-trait model, the simplified model (i.e., the model that did not include the categorical personality variable as a predictor) was an overall better fit for the data. Nonetheless, because sexual prejudice can have negative implications for both sexual minority individuals and those who hold these prejudiced attitudes, it is imperative that research continues to explore which factors contribute to stigma, prejudiced attitudes, and discrimination against sexual minority individuals.

For Dr. Bertram Cohler,
who asked me the question,
“But why should I care about that?”
and changed my life.

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Hillary Clinton said that it takes a village to successfully raise a child. Well, I guess that would make this project like my first child, because it absolutely took a village for it to be a success!

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

Although there has been an increased awareness of homosexuality in mainstream U.S. culture over the past few decades, it remains a controversial issue in the U.S. For example, a 2016 survey by the Pew Research Center found that despite significant changes in the number of people endorsing the idea that "homosexuality should be accepted by society" (from 47% in 2003 to 63% in 2013; Pew Research Center, 2015), 28 percent of adults in the U.S. continue to believe that "homosexuality should be discouraged by society" (Fingerhut, 2016). Furthermore, there are segments of the population in which the majority of individuals believe that homosexuality should be discouraged (e.g., 61% of white evangelical Protestants and 63% of conservative republicans expressed this view; Pew Research Center, 2015).

Sexual prejudice refers to the specific form of prejudice that occurs when one makes automatic or intentional negative evaluations of sexual minority (i.e., non-heterosexual) individuals due to their actual or perceived sexual orientation (Herek, 2000a). Sexual prejudice can generally be conceptualized as a complex system in which concepts such as heterosexism, heteronormativity, sexism, and male dominance interact with one another to predict a number of negative psychosocial problems for lesbians and gay men (Fraïssé & Barrientos, 2016; Herek, 2009a; Newcomb & Mustanski, 2010). Numerous terms have been used in the extant literature to describe these negative attitudes toward lesbians and gay men (e.g., homophobia, heterosexism, sexual prejudice, sexual stigma; Herek, 2004; Herek, 2009b; Lingiardi & Nardelli, 2014), but despite subtle distinctions between these terms they all refer to the same general multidimensional construct (Adolfsen, Iedema, & Keuzenkamp, 2010; Walls, 2008).

Sexual prejudice can have negative implications for both sexual minority individuals and those who hold these prejudiced attitudes. Sexually prejudiced, heterosexist environments have been associated with an array of negative psychosocial outcomes for lesbians and gay men (e.g., depression and other mood disorders, anxiety disorders, suicidality, eating disorders, and substance abuse) compared to heterosexual individuals (Austin et al., 2009; Feinstein, Goldfried, & Davila, 2012; Meyer, 2003; Newcomb & Mustanski, 2010; Russell, 2003). While comparatively little research has focused on the negative consequences of homophobia on those who hold sexually prejudiced beliefs, extant literature suggests that possessing sexually prejudiced attitudes may be associated with an increase in negative affect (e.g., anxiety, anger, defensiveness) upon encountering sexual minorities or LGB-themed stimuli (Ciocca et al., 2015; Dasgupta, DeSteno, Williams, & Hunsinger, 2009; Zeichner & Reidy, 2009). Furthermore, research on racial prejudice indicates that intergroup anxiety, which refers to anxiety that majority group members may experience in interactions with outgroup members, can have a negative effect on cognitions, behavioral reactions, and emotional responses (Stephan & Stephan, 1985). Intergroup anxiety can also negatively impact both the quality and quantity of intergroup contact (Turner, Hewstone, & Voci, 2007; Voci & Hewstone, 2003), and nonverbal expressions of anxiety by majority group members can be interpreted as signs of prejudice by members of marginalized outgroups (Dovidio, Penner, Albrecht, Norton, Gaertner, & Shelton, 2008). Thus, intergroup anxiety can potentially cause harm for members of both majority and marginalized groups.

Acknowledging the elevated risks born by sexual minority individuals and the potential costs to those who hold prejudiced attitudes, it is important to identify which factors contribute to stigma, prejudiced attitudes, and discrimination against sexual minority individuals. Change at

the societal level can be slow to take hold and difficult to measure; nevertheless, even subtle positive changes in the level of sexual prejudice could lead to noticeably better outcomes for sexual minority individuals. Given that social changes often reflect changes across individuals, researchers tend to investigate individual-level factors that may be associated with sexual prejudice as proxies for larger social constructs. The current study followed in this tradition by integrating two prominent models of sexual prejudice that are focused on individual-level personality factors and negative affective responses to LGB-related stimuli.

Specifically, this study sought to extend the extant literature on sexual prejudice by using an experimental design to concurrently examine factors associated with two of the most prominent models of sexual prejudice: the personality model of homophobia and the negative affective response model of homophobia. The personality model of homophobia proposes that two individual-level personality factors, right-wing authoritarianism (RWA) and social dominance orientation (SDO), have a robust association with sexual prejudice (Case, Fishbein, & Ritchey, 2008; Goodman & Moradi, 2008; Stones, 2006; Whitley & Lee, 2000; Wilkinson, 2004a). The negative affective response model of homophobia posits that some sexually prejudiced individuals experience a negative affective response (e.g., anxiety, anger, disgust) after exposure to an LGB-themed stimulus (Shields & Harriman, 1984; Terrizzi, Shook, & Ventis, 2010; Zeichner & Reidy, 2009).

Although these two models of sexual prejudice are often presented as conflicting and contradictory models in the extant literature (Herek, 2004; Herek, 2015; Herek, 2016), it is possible that these two models are actually complementary. Specifically, the personality model of homophobia (which is often used to predict which individuals are more likely to endorse anti-gay attitudes; e.g., Poteat, Horn, & Armstrong, 2016) may explain sexual prejudice at a trait

level, whereas the negative affective response model (which is often used to predict how individuals might respond upon encountering an LGB-related stimulus; e.g., Zeichner & Reidy, 2009) may account for sexual prejudice at the episodic, state level. Thus, taken together, these two models of sexual prejudice may be able to predict which individuals are most likely to endorse anti-gay attitudes and how these individuals will react when confronted with LGB-related stimuli.

The majority of the research on the construct of sexual prejudice has implicitly or explicitly focused on negative attitudes towards gay men (Keiller, 2010; Stones, 2006; Worthen, 2013). Moreover, the research that has addressed sexual prejudice directed toward lesbians has found that in general, people are significantly more accepting of lesbians than gay men (Herek, 2000b; Stoever & Morena, 2007; Whitley & Kite, 1995). Because sexual prejudice is more strongly directed against gay men, the current study operationalized homophobia as negative attitudes toward gay men and drew upon video images depicting only gay male couples.

The Current Study

The current study expands the extant literature on sexually prejudiced attitudes by concurrently exploring the relationship between the personality model of homophobia and the negative affective response model of homophobia. Utilizing video clips taken from mainstream news media stories about gay men, this study examined whether an integrated model of sexual prejudice that incorporated elements from these two previously discrete and disparate models of homophobia was able to adequately account for the variance in sexually prejudiced attitudes and negative affect following exposure to gay male stimuli.

There were three primary objectives of the current study. First, this study examined the personality model of homophobia by exploring whether two individual-level personality factors

(i.e., RWA and SDO) were associated with a greater endorsement of sexually prejudiced attitudes. Second, the current study examined the negative affective response model of homophobia by investigating whether watching videos of mainstream news media stories about gay men was associated with increased negative affect (i.e., fear, hostility, guilt, sadness, and cognitive and somatic symptoms of anxiety), particularly for the participants who initially endorsed more sexually prejudiced attitudes. Finally, by integrating elements from both the personality model of homophobia and the negative affective response model of homophobia, this study examined whether an integrated, state-trait model of sexual prejudice was able to better explain why some individuals have a strong, negative affective reaction when exposed to gay male video stimuli.

CHAPTER 2

PREJUDICE

Prejudice is a hostile emotional or affective state that is activated when a person experiences thoughts about or interactions with outgroup members (i.e., members of a social group to which the individual does not belong; Aronson, 1984). Prejudice can also be conceptualized as an attitude that one adopts toward an outgroup or its members (Perreault & Bourhis, 1999). While attitudes toward other groups can be positive or negative, social scientists have focused primarily on people's negative impressions of other outgroups and outgroup members (Haddock & Zanna, 1998). Thus, prejudice not only reflects a negative evaluation of a social group but also a negative perception of an individual based on his or her group membership (Crandall & Eshleman, 2003).

Sexual Prejudice

Sexual prejudice is a specific form of prejudice in which one makes automatic or intentional negative evaluations of sexual minority (i.e., non-heterosexual) individuals due to their actual or perceived sexual orientation (Herek, 2000a). Sexual prejudice operates similarly to other forms of prejudice (e.g., racism, sexism). Accordingly, sexual prejudice can be described as negative attitudes (i.e., cognitions, affects, and behaviors) that are directed at a particular minority group (i.e., lesbians and gay men). Additionally, because the cognitive and affective elements of intergroup attitudes can be related to biased behavior, sexual minority individuals have to deal with discrimination in similar ways as members of other marginalized outgroups (Herek, 2009a).

There have been numerous terms used to describe negative attitudes toward lesbians and gay men, and although all of these terms generally relate to the same construct (i.e., negative

evaluations of sexual minorities), there are subtle distinctions between these terms (Schiffman, DeLucia-Waack, & Gerrity, 2006). The term *homophobia* was first introduced in the 1970s and was originally defined as "the dread of being in close quarters with homosexuals" (Weinberg, 1973, p. 4). *Homophobia* continues to be a commonly used term by both the general public and researchers, and it is generally used when describing anti-gay attitudes at the individual level (particularly when the source of one's negative attitudes toward lesbians and/or gay men is based in fear; Rye & Meaney, 2010). On the other hand, *heterosexism* is used to describe the oppression of non-heterosexual persons at a societal level, and can be defined as social customs or institutions that deny or disparage any non-heterosexual identities or romantic relationships (Alden & Parker, 2005). As such, heterosexism can fuel homophobia because of the pervasive belief that immoral and objectionable phenomena like homosexuality should not be allowed to peacefully exist in society (Cowan, Heiple, Marquez, Khatchadourian, & McNevin, 2005). The more general term *sexual prejudice* can be used to highlight the idea that individual-level anti-gay attitudes often stem from societal-level *sexual stigma*, which is the stigma ascribed to the identity, behaviors, or relationships of members of the sexual minority community (Herek, 2009a).

The majority of models of sexual prejudice view it as a multidimensional construct with elements related to one's response to homosexuality in general, modern societal and civil rights implications for sexual minorities, and one's cognitive and/or affective response to homosexual behavior (Adolfsen et al., 2010; Walls, 2008). First, models of sexual prejudice often include a dimension that assesses the extent to which an individual accepts homosexuality as a valid, natural phenomenon (Rye & Meany, 2010); this facet is at times referred to as the "condemnation-tolerance" factor because it represents one's general thoughts or moral

convictions about lesbians and gay men (Arseneau, Grzanka, Miles, & Fassinger, 2013; LaMar & Kite, 1998). Second, these models often incorporate a dimension of "modern homophobia" that moves away from overt prejudice and instead focuses on more subtle nuances of prejudice, such as discomfort or opposition to issues related to lesbians and gay men, establishing equal rights for sexual minorities, or concern with the representation of lesbians and gay men in popular media (Adolfsen et al., 2010; Morrison & Morrison, 2002). Third, models generally incorporate a dimension centered on the cognitive and/or affective responses people have to being around sexual minorities, such as negative emotional reactions to expressions of same-gender intimacy and sexual behavior (Herek, 2009a; Monto & Supinski, 2014). Finally, a subset of models includes the willingness to engage in prejudiced, discriminatory, or violent behavior against lesbians and gay men (Stotzer & Shih, 2012).

Research has found that sexual prejudice is related to numerous factors, including gender, adherence to traditional gender role ideology, age (i.e., generational effects), and religiosity. For example, research indicates that heterosexual women express less reproachful attitudes toward lesbians and gay men compared to heterosexual men (Gormley & Lopez, 2010; Herek, 2000b; Kite & Whitley, 1996; Kite & Whitley, 1998; Ratcliff, Lassiter, Markman, & Snyder, 2006; Roderick, McCammon, Long, & Allred, 1998; Schellenberg, Hirt, & Sears, 1999) and are more likely to support employment protection, adoption rights, and civil recognition of same-sex couples than were men (Herek, 2002).

Furthermore, traditional gender role attitudes (i.e., beliefs about normative, appropriate, and distinct roles for men and women) significantly predict anti-gay and lesbian attitudes (Callahan & Vescio, 2011; Jellison, McConnell, & Gabriel, 2004; Whitley, 2001; Wilkinson, 2004a) and anti-gay violence (Parrott, 2008). The extant literature suggests that for heterosexual

males, a strict adherence to the traditional male gender role is associated with negative attitudes about gay men, women, and femininity more generally (Kilianski, 2003; Kimmel & Mahler, 2003; Patel, Long, McCammon, & Wuensch, 1995). For instance, Davies (2004) examined whether affective reactions to homosexuality in men were related to hostile sexism (e.g., domination of and hostility towards women), male toughness (e.g., being physically and emotionally resilient), and male sexuality (e.g., always prepared to initiate sex). The results indicated that negative feelings about gay men were related to attitudes about traditional gender roles such that individuals who endorsed stronger feelings about the importance of traditional gender roles were more likely to endorse negative responses about gay men. Moreover, a similar study found that a single dimension of masculinity (i.e. fear of appearing feminine) was able to account for 11% of the variance in anti-gay attitudes (Wilkinson, 2004a). Likewise, in a study that investigated heterosexual women's attitudes about lesbians, sexual prejudice was associated with conservative, patriarchal gender-role values (Wilkinson, 2006).

In general, open endorsement of sexually prejudiced attitudes has decreased over time (Fingerhut, 2016), and there is a distinct cohort or generational effect with younger adults endorsing more positive and accepting views of homosexuality than older generations (Altemeyer, 2002; Herek, 2000a; Pew Research Center, 2015; Shackelford & Besser, 2007; Smith, Son, & Kim, 2014). For instance, a 14-year cross-sectional study found that both undergraduate students and their parents have become more accepting of homosexuality over time (Altemeyer, 2002), and similar trends have been observed across more than a dozen countries (Smith et al., 2014).

Sexual prejudice is also strongly correlated with religiosity (Balkin, Schlosser, & Levitt, 2009; Herek, 2009a; Whitley, 2009), particularly among people whose religion condemns

homosexuality (Whitley, 2009). However, research indicates that the acceptance of homosexuality has been steadily increasing across many U.S. Christian denominations in recent years (Fingerhut, 2016); for instance, a 2014 survey by the Pew Research Center found that 54% of Christians in the U.S. now believe that homosexuality should be accepted by society (as compared to only 44% of U.S. Christians in 2007; Murphy, 2015). Researchers have proposed that this increased acceptance of homosexuality among religious individuals in the U.S. is driven in part by younger church members (Murphy, 2015).

Tripartite Models of Prejudice

Tripartite models are often used to conceptualize attitudes in general (Breckler, 1984; Eagly & Chaiken, 1993) and prejudiced attitudes specifically (Cuddy, Fiske, & Glick, 2007; Esses & Dovidio, 2002), positing that attitudes are comprised of three distinct, yet interrelated, components: cognition, affect, and behavior. The cognitive element of prejudiced attitudes includes an individual's thoughts or beliefs about a person or object (e.g., stereotypes), the affective element consists of the feelings or emotions associated with a person or object (e.g., disgust, fear, anger), and the behavioral element presumes how an individual might act in an encounter with a person or object (e.g., discrimination). Contemporary models of prejudiced attitudes suggest that there is a bidirectional relationship among these components that accounts for the structure and formation of attitudes (Dalege et al., 2016; Fazio & Olson, 2003; Monroe & Read, 2008). Specifically, evaluative reactions to an attitude object are derived from cognitive, affective, and/or behavioral information, and subsequent interactions between these reactions can in turn influence ensuing cognitions, affect, and behavior.

Despite the cognitive and affective elements of intergroup attitudes being highly correlated, they are each able to explain a unique amount of the variance in prejudiced attitudes

and are differentially able to predict prejudiced or discriminatory behavior (Esses & Dovidio, 2002). In general, previous research has found that the affective facet of intergroup attitudes is the strongest predictor of an individual's discriminatory behavior toward a broad assortment of outgroups (Cuddy et al., 2007; Esses & Dovidio, 2002), and the affective element may in fact mediate the relationship between cognitions and behavior (Mackie, Devos, & Smith, 2000). For example, in a study of the negative affective states of anger and fear, willingness to engage in active harm against an outgroup member (e.g., a propensity for actively bullying or harassing members of the outgroup) was predicted by the perception that the outgroup was a competitor (Mackie et al., 2000). Specifically, social outgroups who pose a threat to the well-being of one's ingroup are likely to elicit negative affective states (e.g., fear, anxiety, or hostility), which may in turn predict a willingness to engage in discriminatory behavior against that outgroup (Mackie et al., 2000).

Models of Sexual Prejudice

Overall, the tripartite model of prejudiced attitudes offers a foundation for understanding how the cognitive and affective elements of intergroup attitudes may be related to sexual prejudice or discriminatory behavior. The extant literature has primarily focused on two models of sexual prejudice: the personality model of homophobia and the negative affective response model of homophobia. The personality model of homophobia posits that two personality factors, namely right-wing authoritarianism (RWA) and social dominance orientation (SDO), have a robust and meaningful association with anti-gay prejudice (Case et al., 2008; Goodman & Moradi, 2008; Stones, 2006; Whitley & Lee, 2000; Wilkinson, 2004b). On the other hand, the negative affective response model of homophobia proposes that when a homophobic individual is required to confront an LGB-themed stimulus (e.g., male-on-male erotica), some homophobic

individuals appear to experience an anxious, fearful response (e.g., heart rate acceleration; Shields & Harriman, 1984).

Although these models are often presented as competing with one another, they may be better conceptualized as two complimentary constructs, with the personality model of homophobia explaining sexual prejudice at the individual, trait level and the negative affective response model accounting for sexual prejudice at the episodic, state level. Taken together, these two models may be able to predict which individuals are most likely to endorse antigay attitudes in general, and how they are likely to respond upon encountering an LGB-related environmental stimulus.

CHAPTER 3

THE PERSONALITY MODEL OF HOMOPHOBIA

Allport (1954) suggested that people acquire one of two universal styles: generalized prejudice or generalized tolerance. While individuals who are generally tolerant have a sense of internal security and are capable of thinking in "shades of gray," those who are generally prejudiced are more likely to be insecure, anxious, and unable to cope with internal conflicts (Duckitt, 2005; Duckitt & Sibley, 2007). According to Allport (1954), generalized prejudice, which he referred to as the authoritarian personality, is associated with seven surface-level traits: emotional ambivalence, rigid convention, dichotomization (e.g., good or bad), need for definiteness, externalization, institutionalization, and authoritarianism. Thus, generally prejudiced individuals are thought to perceive the social world as threatening and dangerous, and their actions against an assortment of outgroups are based on the apprehension that these outgroups are attempting to disrupt social order (Duckitt, 2005). There are also robust and meaningful relationships between prejudiced attitudes and two individual-level personality factors: right-wing authoritarianism (RWA) and social dominance orientation (SDO).

Right-Wing Authoritarianism (RWA)

Right-wing authoritarianism (RWA) is a personality factor used to describe individuals who value conventionalism (i.e., a strict adherence to traditional middle class values) and have a tendency to condemn, reject, or punish people who violate conventional values (Adorno, Frenkel-Brunswik, Levinson, & Sanford, 1950). Individuals who are high in RWA often exhibit a submissive attitude toward "moral authority" figures (e.g., religious leaders and/or politicians who espouse support for "traditional family values"). Furthermore, these individuals are prone to engaging in maladaptive psychosocial practices such as stereotypy (i.e., a tendency to think in

rigid categories) and projectivity (i.e., a tendency to attribute one's own negative characteristics to members of outgroups; Adorno et al., 1950).

RWA is a strong predictor of prejudice. More than 50 years of research has shown that high RWA individuals tend to exhibit an elevated degree of prejudice across a wide variety of outgroups (Laythe, Finkel, & Kirkpatrick, 2001), including feminists (Duncan, Peterson, & Winter, 1997), lesbians and gay men (Whitley & Lee, 2000), Native Americans (Altemeyer, 1998), and Jews (Frindte, Wettig, & Wammetsberger, 2005).

One possible explanation for this relationship may be grounded in three specific components of RWA (Childs, 2011). The first component, authoritarian submission, posits that individuals high on RWA tend to submit to authority figures that they deem legitimate (Altemeyer, 1981). This authoritarian submission guides high RWA individuals toward unquestioningly adopting established authority figures' positions on a variety of issues. The second component, authoritarian aggression, guides high RWA individuals to act aggressively toward outgroups that authority figures have condemned using symbolic aggression (e.g., verbal expressions of prejudicial attitudes) or physical violence (e.g., attacks on outgroup members; Altemeyer, 1981). Consequently, individuals high on RWA typically hold positive attitudes toward war, corporal punishment, and penal code violence (Benjamin, 2006). The third component, conventionalism, guides high RWA individuals to closely identify with the current social norms and look down upon individuals or groups who do not adhere to those norms (Altemeyer, 1981; Childs, 2011). These components lead high RWA individuals to partition society into groupings of "us" versus "them," which may help to clarify why RWA has been so frequently associated with prejudice. That is, because outgroups often challenge or jeopardize the traditional values that high RWA individuals fiercely protect, degrading and demeaning the

members of threatening outgroups serves to diffuse the outgroup's ability to threaten social stability (Whitley & Ægisdóttir, 2000).

There is a strong association between sexual prejudice and RWA in the extant literature, demonstrating that RWA exerts both direct and indirect effects on sexual prejudice (Keiller, 2010). In particular, while modeling authority figures' prejudiced behavior accounts for the direct relationship between RWA and sexual prejudice, high RWA individuals' support of traditional gender role beliefs exerts an indirect effect on sexual prejudice (Whitley & Ægisdóttir, 2000). Altemeyer (2002) posits that social learning theory is best able to describe the relationship between sexual prejudice and RWA. Specifically, aversive stimuli elicit the tendency to aggress, but social norms dictate that it is inappropriate to act on one's aggressive instincts. Because homosexuality is thought to elicit a strong, fearful reaction in high RWA individuals, Altemeyer (2002) speculates that this reaction instigates feelings of aggression and the negative stereotypes they hold about homosexuality lessens the social pressure to avoid aggression. Thus, high RWA individuals are able to justify acting on their aggressive impulses when confronted with homosexual stimuli because they perceive others as holding similar negative stereotypes of lesbians and gay men and believe it as their responsibility to defend traditional values.

Social Dominance Orientation (SDO)

Social dominance orientation (SDO) is a personality factor characterized by the desire to have one's own group be superior and dominate over other groups (Pratto, Sidanius, Stallworth, & Malle, 1994) and is comprised of two basic components, namely group-based dominance and opposition to equality (Jost & Thompson, 2000; Kugler, Cooper, & Nosek, 2010). Group-based dominance is the belief that social groups should be positioned hierarchically and that one's own

social group should be ranked at the top of the hierarchy (Kugler et al., 2010). As such, those high in SDO often experience hostility toward outgroups, perceive competition between their group and other groups, and generally view the world as competitive by nature with rewards for ruthlessness and amorality (Duckitt, 2005; Wilson, 2003). Following these beliefs, opposition to equality reflects the conviction that socially inferior outgroups should not receive assistance to improve their circumstances because they rightfully belong on the lower rungs in the social hierarchy. Moreover, people high in SDO tend to perceive resources as being scarce and believe that an equitable allocation of these resources across social groups will place an undue burden on their ingroup. Therefore, high SDO individuals will often deny resources to members of outgroups, keep outgroup members from gaining any authority that could force them to share resources, and then justify these behaviors by denigrating others as undeserving (Whitley, 1999).

In accordance with social dominance theory, those who belong to a powerful group often have higher scores on measures of SDO, because high SDO scores correspond to a desire to preserve the level of social dominance they have already attained (Crawford & Pilanski, 2014). As such, SDO is often higher in men than in women (Sidanius, Sinclair, & Pratto, 2006) and predicts men's prejudice toward women (Bates & Heaven, 2001). SDO's emphasis on the inequality between social strata may lead high SDO individuals to denigrate outgroup members in order to maintain their ingroup's standing at the top of the social hierarchy. Thus, by opposing social programs that would be of assistance to members of marginalized groups and engaging in discriminatory practices, high SDO individuals are better able to ensure that the social hierarchy will remain unchanged (Whitley & Ægisdóttir, 2000).

SDO is often associated with approval of racially insensitive jokes (Hodson, Rush, & MacInnis, 2010), political conservatism, and a lack of humanitarian compassion for the

disadvantaged (Kugler et al., 2010). Similar to RWA, individuals high in SDO possess negative attitudes toward an assortment of social outgroups and tend to be prejudiced against social groups who question the legitimacy of social inequality, including African Americans and Asian Americans (Sidanius & Pratto, 2001), Native Americans (Altemeyer, 1998), and lesbians and gay men (Whitley & Lee, 2000).

The Association between RWA and SDO

Although both RWA and SDO are related to prejudiced attitudes, they are derived from independent constructs (Altemeyer, 1998) and therefore make independent contributions to intergroup attitudes (Crawford, Jussim, Cain, & Cohen, 2013; Duckitt & Sibley, 2007; Wilson & Sibley, 2013). RWA tends to focus on the maintenance and defense of ingroup norms and values, whereas SDO promotes the maintenance of existing social hierarchies (Altemeyer, 1988). Because the world is perceive as threatening and dangerous, individuals high on RWA are driven by the goal of maintaining social cohesion and stability. On the other hand, individuals high on SDO are motivated by goals of dominance and superiority because they view the world as a competition in which only the strong will thrive (Duckitt, 2005).

The existing literature suggests that an individual's scores on measures of RWA and SDO can predict a large segment of the variance in prejudiced attitudes toward a variety of outgroups (approximately 50%; Altemeyer, 1998). However, RWA and SDO are only mildly correlated with one another (r = .20), which implies that these two constructs reflect distinct categories of prejudiced individuals (Altemeyer, 2004). Thus, because these personality facets are thought to sanction prejudice for unrelated reasons, studies often find differences between individuals high on RWA, SDO, or both (Duckitt & Sibley, 2007; Heaven & Quintin, 2003; Hiel & Mervielde, 2005; Sibley, Wilson, & Duckitt, 2007b).

Consequently, *double highs* (i.e., individuals who score in the top quartile on measures of both RWA and SDO) pose a particularly alarming problem for marginalized populations (Altemeyer, 2004). Previous research has discovered that double highs appear to be the result of an additive, rather than interactive, association between the constructs of RWA and SDO (Sibley, Robertson, & Wilson, 2006). The additive nature of the relationship between the constructs of RWA and SDO seems to be consistent with Altemeyer's finding that double high individuals express elevated levels of prejudice when compared with individuals who are classified as high in only RWA or SDO (2004). Although double high individuals are rare, accounting for only 5-10% of participants in studies on RWA and SDO, they may significantly affect public opinion regarding prejudice when allowed to advance to positions of power (Altemeyer, 2004).

While double highs are as likely as individuals high on only SDO to crave power, domination, and inequality, double highs are also as likely as individuals high on only RWA to be religious. This differentiates individuals who are only high on RWA (who do not desire to be the ones with power) from individuals who are only high on SDO (who generally are not religious). Similar to high RWA individuals, double highs are likely to discriminate against outgroups on the basis of religion and endorse dogmatic views (Altemeyer & Hunsberger, 1992). However, unlike highly religious RWA individuals, double highs are also inclined to lie, cheat, and manipulate others. In general, Altemeyer (2004) suggests that double high individuals "alloy the least attractive qualities of each trait" (p. 441).

Previous research has found that sexual prejudice related to RWA and SDO is significantly associated with discrimination (Case et al., 2008; Goodman & Moradi, 2008; Stones, 2006; Whitley & Lee, 2000; Wilkinson, 2004b). For instance, Goodman and Moradi (2008) found that RWA was not only correlated with anti-gay and lesbian attitudes, but also with

an escalation in rejecting behaviors (e.g., changing seats after finding out someone is gay, gossiping about someone because they are gay). Overall, the combination of RWA, SDO, and traditional gender role beliefs was able to account for 72% of the variance in anti-gay and lesbian attitudes and 42% of the variance in gay and lesbian rejecting behavior.

Overall, the extant literature on prejudice supports the concept that prejudice toward outgroup members can in principle be predicted by a small number of personality characteristics (i.e., RWA and SDO). Furthermore, the relationship between RWA and SDO and sexually prejudiced attitudes has been observed in a variety of populations by a number of different researchers, and one meta-analysis that examined the association of RWA and SDO with sexual prejudice over time found an average effect size of $d = 1.26$ for RWA and $d = .72$ for SDO (Childs, 2011).

CHAPTER 4

THE NEGATIVE AFFECTIVE RESPONSE MODEL OF HOMOPHOBIA

A great deal of what is known about the construct of sexual prejudice has drawn from the extant literature on other categories of prejudiced attitudes (e.g., racism, sexism). Accordingly, variables that are regularly associated with other forms of prejudiced attitudes (e.g., RWA and SDO) have received the most attention in previous research. However, sexual orientation deviates from many other marginalized statuses in several fundamental ways. For instance, lesbians and gay men often have to make a decision of whether or not to disclose their sexual orientation (or "come out") to others (Herek, 1996), but societal factors frequently make this evaluation more complicated. In the U.S., acts of discrimination against lesbians and gay men are often defended on the basis of the perpetrators' "sincerely held religious beliefs," and several states have even enacted laws protecting people's right to discriminate against someone on the basis of sexual orientation (Wang et al., 2016). Further complicating this issue, classifying sexual orientation as an immutable, inborn characteristic (versus a choice made by lesbians and gay men) continues to be a point of contention in this country (Pew Research Center, 2015). Additionally, research has found that some individuals report experiencing a negative affective or visceral reaction to images of same-sex intimacy that is not often seen with other marginalized groups (Guerra Meneses, 2015; Inbar, Pizarro, Knobe, & Bloom, 2009; Meier, Robinson, Gaither, & Heinert, 2006). For these reasons, traditional models of prejudiced attitudes may fail to fully explain why sexual prejudice continues to be prevalent in this country.

The negative affective response model of homophobia proposes that when a homophobic individual is confronted by an LGB-themed stimulus, he or she may experience a negative

psychophysiological response. Previous research has concentrated on several specific dimensions of negative affect: 1) fear/anxiety, 2) anger/aggression, and 3) disgust.

Within the extant literature on this model of sexual prejudice, researchers have found that some sexually prejudiced individuals report more symptoms of fear and anxiety after viewing LGB-related stimuli (Bernat, Calhoun, Adams, & Zeichner, 2001; Hudson & Ricketts, 1980; Mahaffey, Bryan, & Hutchison, 2005a; Mahaffey, Bryan, & Hutchison, 2005b; Mahaffey, Bryan, Ito, & Hutchinson, 2011; Shields & Harriman, 1984; Zeichner & Reidy, 2009). For instance, previous research has found that homophobic men reported significantly more anxiety, anger-hostility, and negative affect after being exposed to male same-sex erotica (Bernat et al., 2001). Although most of the studies in this area of research have used only self-report measures of fear and anxiety (e.g., Bernat et al., 2001; Hudson & Ricketts, 1980), a small number of studies have also examined physiological markers of anxiety and found that exposure to same-sex erotica was associated with heart rate acceleration (Shields & Harriman, 1984) and a startle eye blink response (Mahaffey et al., 2005a; Mahaffey et al., 2005b; Mahaffey et al., 2011). In sum, findings have been consistent across time and samples that some homophobic individuals endorse greater feelings of fear and anxiety on both self-report and physiological measures after being exposed to LGB-themed stimuli.

Researchers have suggested that both the self-reported and observed anxiety and/or fear some heterosexual males experience when exposed to homoerotic material may not actually be a fear of sexual minorities in general or even male same-sex sexual behavior, but rather it may be a fear of their own sexual arousal in response to the stimulus (Meier et al., 2006; Zeichner & Reidy, 2009). Studies that have examined arousal in sexually prejudiced participants have found that homophobic males were more likely than non-homophobic males to become aroused when

watching erotic films featuring male same-sex sexual activity (arousal was measured by penile tumescence, which is increased penile circumference indicating arousal; Adams, Wright, & Lohr, 1996). However, despite significant increases in penile tumescence, sexually prejudiced participants were more likely to underestimate or deny their sexual arousal in response to male homosexual stimuli (Adams et al., 1996). The authors suggested that these participants might have been utilizing defense mechanisms (e.g., repression, denial, reaction formation) in response to feeling threatened by their homosexual impulses (Adams et al., 1996). On the other hand, the authors also proposed that the significant increases in penile tumescence might be better attributed to the sexually prejudiced participants' anxiety (rather than sexual arousal) as penile tumescence has also been associated with anxiety and attention in previous research (Adams et al., 1996).

One recent study that sought to explain the relationship between sexual prejudice and psychological dysfunction in Italian university students found that homophobia was related to psychoticism and immature defense mechanisms (Ciocca et al., 2015); conversely, the authors found that depressive symptoms and the use of neurotic defense mechanisms were predictive of lower levels of sexually prejudiced attitudes. Ciocca et al. (2015) proposed that negative emotions might be inappropriately directed at individuals who are perceived to be a threat when they are externalized. Furthermore, the authors suggested that fear may be a major contributing factor to sexual prejudice because individuals who self-reported an insecure/fearful attachment style also endorsed higher levels of sexually prejudiced attitudes (Ciocca et al., 2015).

Previous research has also found that sexually prejudiced individuals report more anger and feelings of aggression after viewing LGB-related material compared to those without such prejudices (Bernat et al., 2001; Dasgupta et al., 2009; Hudepohl, Parrott, & Zeichner, 2010;

Parrot & Peterson, 2008; Parrot & Zeichner, 2005; Zeichner & Reidy, 2009). For instance, one study found that when sexually prejudiced heterosexual males were exposed to male same-sex erotica, they reacted with high amounts of anger (Ziechner & Reidy, 2009) and were more likely to show anger than those who viewed heterosexual erotic material (Parrott & Zeichner, 2008). This increase in anger was also observed when sexually prejudiced participants viewed non-erotic depictions of gay intimacy (Hudepohl, Parrott, & Ziechner, 2010). As was the case with fear and anxiety, the majority of the studies used self-report indicators of anger and aggression; however, a few studies have used interactive laboratory tasks to directly assess aggression following exposure to LGB-related material. For instance, when Bernat et al. (2001) exposed heterosexual male participants to gay male pornography, the sexually prejudiced participants reported more anger and feelings of aggression. Participants were then asked to compete against an opponent in a reaction time task; when the sexually prejudiced participants who had been shown gay male pornography believed that their opponent was a gay man, they were more aggressive and willing to administer shocks to their opponent (Bernat et al., 2001).

Finally, a number of studies have identified disgust as a component of negative attitudes toward sexual minorities (Inbar, Pizzaro, & Bloom, 2012; Röndahl, Innala, & Carlsson; 2004; Tapias, Glaser, Keltner, Vasquez, & Wickens, 2007; Terrizzi et al., 2010). For example, one study found that inducing disgust in participants resulted in increased sexually prejudiced attitudes (Terrizzi et al., 2010). Similarly, following an inducement of disgust, participants who were generally more sensitive to the feeling of disgust exhibited more sexually prejudiced attitudes in response to gay male public displays of affection while approval of heterosexual public displays of affection remained the same (Inbar et al., 2012). The extant literature offers competing explanations for the relationship between disgust and sexual prejudice (Dasgupta et

al., 2009; Olatunji, 2008). Whereas several studies suggest that the relationship between disgust and sexual prejudice can primarily be attributed to an association between sexually transmitted diseases (particularly HIV/AIDS) and male same-sex sexual behavior (e.g., Dasgupta et al., 2009; Terrizzi et al., 2010), others attribute this relationship to religious purity and conservative sexual ideas (e.g., Olatunji, 2008). Overall, while some studies have not found a significant relationship between sexual prejudice and disgust (e.g., Zeichner & Reidy, 2009), others have observed a significant association between sexually prejudiced attitudes and feelings of disgust (particularly when studies use gay male stimuli; e.g., Dasgupta et al., 2009; Hudson & Ricketts, 1980).

In general, research on the negative affective response model of homophobia has been inconsistent, which may be indicative of methodological flaws or the failure to account for confounding variables. First, the different methods that previous studies have used to assess affect (e.g., self-report questionnaires versus physiological or interactive tasks) may be partially responsible for the inconsistencies in the extant literature. For instance, a study that compared self-reports of arousal to penile tumescence in sexually prejudiced males found that participants demonstrated more physical arousal in response to gay male pornography than they reported (Adams et al., 1996). Thus, while utilizing multiple methods to investigate a research question is generally advantageous, different methodology may yield different results (particularly when participants are being asked to endorse socially undesirable attitudes like homophobia), which can make it more difficult to compare findings across studies.

Second, the majority of the research on the negative affective response model of homophobia uses erotic gay male imagery as stimulus material. While the shocking stimulus material may lead to a more negative affective response, the use of erotic gay male imagery may

interfere with the studies' external validity. In other words, when erotic gay male imagery is used to induce a negative affective reaction, the researchers are potentially exposing homophobic individuals to a visual image that they are unlikely to encounter in their daily lives. Thus, it is difficult to use the findings of this line of research to predict how sexually prejudiced individuals might react to LGB-related stimuli in their everyday lives.

Finally, one commonality across studies is that there were significant differences in reactions across sexually prejudiced individuals. For instance, while Shields and Harriman (1984) found that some of the sexually prejudiced participants in their study exhibited a defensive heart rate pattern, this defensive pattern was not observed universally across all of the homophobic participants. Similarly, Adams et al. (1996) found that only half of their participants experienced marked penile tumescence in response to male same-sex erotica. Thus, the existence of sexually prejudiced attitudes might be a necessary but insufficient predictor of negative affective responses after exposure to LGB-related stimuli (Shields & Harriman, 1984).

The inconsistencies across sexually prejudiced individuals observed in previous research may indicate that there are potential moderating or mediating variables that have not yet been identified. Recently, one study found that a dual-process model (i.e., the impulsive/reflective system described in Strack & Deutsch, 2004) was able to account for some of the variation in homophobic participants' sexual interest in same-sex visual stimuli (Guerra Meneses, 2015). Using a mixed method design that included self-report questionnaires, eye-tracking, and a manikin task to measure impulsive tendencies, the author found that an impulsive tendency to approach "homosexual stimuli" moderated the relationship between homophobia and attraction to same-sex visual stimuli among college-aged males with a high level of sexual prejudice (Guerra Meneses, 2015).

Emotion Regulation

Likewise, it is possible that a moderating or mediating factor may be able to account for the inconsistencies in the association between sexual prejudice and negative affective responses to LGB-related material in the extant literature. One of these potential moderating variables is emotion regulation, which refers to "the processes that influence which emotions we have, when we have them, and how we experience or express these emotions" (Gross, Sheppes, & Urry, 2011, p. 767). While emotion regulation is often associated with attempts to decrease or "down-regulate" negative emotions (e.g., anxiety, anger, sadness; Gross, 2015), individuals regulate both negative and positive emotions by altering the intensity, duration, or quality of emotional states (Gross, 1998).

There are three core features common to a wide array of emotion regulation strategies (Gross, 2014). First, emotion regulation involves the activation of an intrinsic or extrinsic goal that can be triggered to modify the generation of emotions. Second, emotion regulation includes explicit and implicit regulatory processes responsible for altering the trajectory of one's emotions. Third, emotion regulation involves attempts to control the experiential, behavioral, or physiological experience of an emotional response (e.g., the latency, magnitude, intensity, or duration of an emotional reaction).

According the process model of emotion regulation (Gross, 2014), there are five distinct categories of regulatory processes that can be engaged during an emotional response to regulate affect: 1) situation selection (i.e., taking action to decrease one's exposure to internal or environmental situations that will likely result in negative emotions); 2) situation modification (i.e., altering a situation to modify its emotional impact); 3) attentional deployment (i.e., intentionally focusing one's attention within a situation to shape an emotional response); 4)

cognitive change (i.e., shifting one's emotional response to a situation by altering one's thoughts about the situation or his or her ability to successfully respond to the situation); and 5) response modulation (i.e., attempting to influence one's emotional response to a situation after it has already appeared; Gross, 1999).

The process model of emotion regulation is linked to the modal model of emotions (Gross, 2014), which proposes that multifaceted emotional responses occur when an internal or environmental situation draws an individual's attention and the situation is appraised to have meaning to the individual at this time (see Figure 1; Barrett, Ochsner, & Gross, 2007).

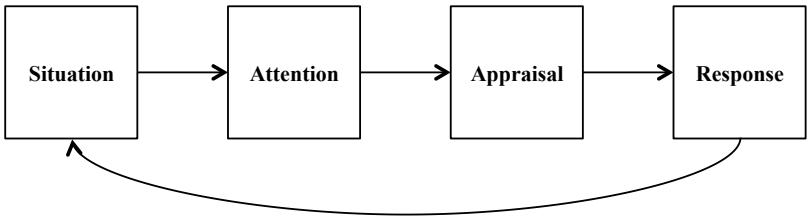

Figure 1. The modal model of emotion.

The modal model of emotions integrates elements from the basic emotion approach (in which emotional responses are automatically elicited from hardwired neural circuits) and the appraisal approach (in which emotional responses are triggered by individuals' patterns of cognition; Barrett et al., 2007). Furthermore, the five distinct facets of the process model of emotion regulation can be overlaid on the modal model of emotions such that there is an opportunity for emotion regulation to occur at five different points along this trajectory of emotional experiences (see Figure 2; Gross, 2014).

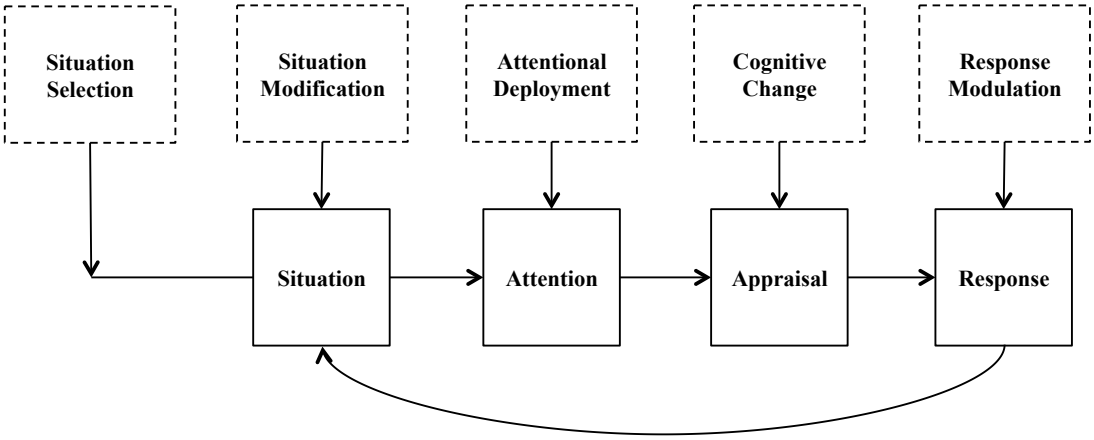

Figure 2: The five categories of the process model of emotion regulation overlaid on the modal model of emotions.

Because emotion regulation is often associated with attempts to decrease negative emotions (Gross, 2015), the current study evaluated the role of this potential confounding variable on the self-report of negative affective responses after viewing stimuli featuring gay men. Specifically, this study examined the potential influence of two emotion regulation strategies, cognitive reappraisal (i.e., altering one's cognitions to change the emotional impact of an emotion-eliciting situation) and expressive suppression (i.e., modulating one's responses to inhibit existing emotion-expressive behavior; Gross, 1998), on self-reported negative affective responses.

CHAPTER 5

RATIONALE AND HYPOTHESES

The current study sought to extend the extant literature on sexual prejudice by using an experimental design to concurrently examine factors associated with two of the most prominent models of sexual prejudice: the personality model of homophobia and the negative affective response model of homophobia. Although these two models of sexual prejudice are often presented as conflicting and contradictory models in the extant literature, this study explored whether or not these two models are actually complementary. The personality model of homophobia is often used to predict which individuals are more likely to endorse anti-gay attitudes, whereas the negative affective response model is often used to predict how individuals might respond upon encountering an LGB-related stimulus. Accordingly, the personality model of homophobia may explain sexual prejudice at a trait level, whereas the negative affective response model may account for sexual prejudice at the episodic, state level. Thus, taken together, these two models of sexual prejudice may be able to predict which individuals are most likely to endorse anti-gay attitudes and how these individuals will react when confronted with LGB-related stimuli.

This study was also designed to address a number of the methodological concerns with previous research on sexual prejudice. For instance, while prior studies have often found a correlational relationship between RWA, SDO, and sexual prejudice, they generally have not used experimental manipulation to further explore these relationships. However, the current study examined whether or not exposure to videos of gay men drawn from mainstream news media stories moderated the relationship between RWA, SDO, and sexual prejudice by randomly assigning participants to one of two video conditions (i.e., gay male or control). Similarly,

previous research on the negative affective response model of homophobia has generally used same-sex erotic stimuli to induce negative affect, but it is then difficult to attribute changes in arousal solely to a negative reaction to LGB-related material because erotic stimuli alone have been related to physiological arousal. In addition, the external validity of these studies can be limited as it is relatively easy to avoid same-sex male erotica. Thus, the current study was designed to further examine and extend this model by using mainstream news media stories featuring gay men, which is a stimulus that more accurately replicates the type of sexual minority material most people are exposed to in the real world. Finally, some of the studies in this body of literature measure negative affect without cueing participants to think about what it is that makes them uncomfortable (i.e., LGB individuals); however, many people who experience fear or anxiety related to a specific entity (e.g., spiders, snakes) only experience a negative affective response after being forced to confront the feared stimulus. Thus, the current study primed participants to think about gay men by having them watch a non-erotic video of a news story featuring gay men before measuring their affective response.

In the current study, the following research questions and hypotheses were examined:

Question 1

Are the personality facets RWA and SDO associated with a greater endorsement of sexual prejudice? For individuals who are high on RWA, SDO, or both RWA and SDO, is viewing a video featuring gay men related to an increased endorsement of homophobia (see Figure 3)?

Hypothesis 1a. The personality facets RWA and SDO will be associated with a greater endorsement of sexual prejudice. Participants who are high on both RWA and SDO (i.e., double highs) will endorse the most sexually prejudiced attitudes, followed by participants who are high

on either RWA or SDO; participants who are low on both RWA and SDO will endorse the least sexually prejudiced attitudes.

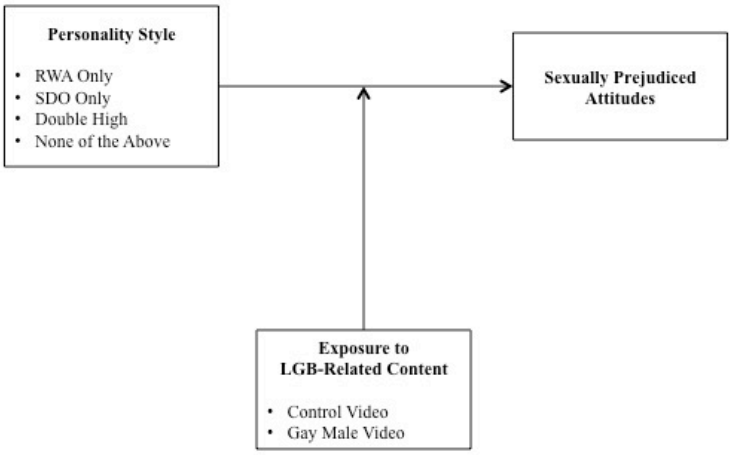

Figure 3. Moderation model in which exposure to gay male video content moderates the relationship between personality style and sexually prejudiced attitudes. RWA = Right-Wing Authoritarianism. SDO = Social Dominance Orientation.

Hypothesis 1b. The content of the video clip (i.e., gay male or control) will moderate the relationship between the personality facets RWA and SDO and homophobia. Specifically, the relationship between RWA, SDO, and endorsement of sexually prejudiced attitudes will be larger when participants view a video featuring gay men versus the control video.

Question 2

Is exposure to gay male content (e.g., the videos from Question 1) associated with a negative affective response? Does sexual prejudice moderate the relationship between viewing video clips that feature gay men and a negative affective response? Can emotion regulation moderate the relationship between sexual prejudice and a negative affective response after viewing videos that feature gay male content (see Figure 4)?

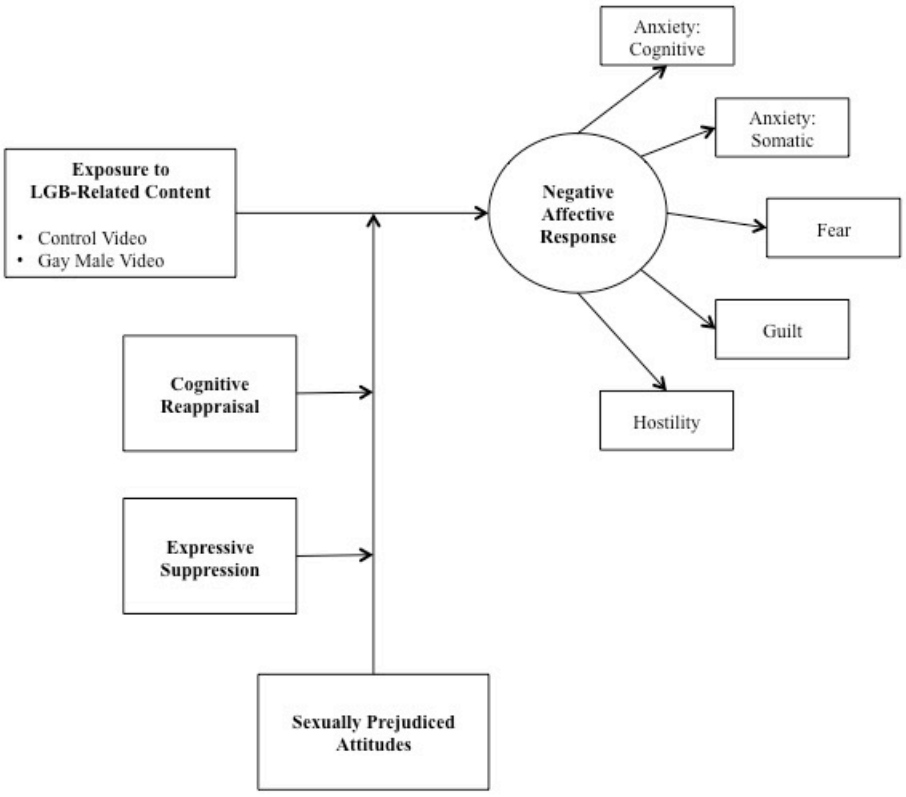

Figure 4. Moderated moderation model (i.e., three-way interaction model) in which the two indicators of emotion regulation (cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression) moderate the moderating effect of sexually prejudiced attitudes on the relationship between negative affective response (a latent variable with five manifest indicators) and exposure to gay male content.

Hypothesis 2a (main effect of exposure on negative affect). Overall, exposure to videos that feature gay male content will be associated with a significantly more negative affective response.

Hypothesis 2b (moderation). Sexual prejudice will moderate the relationship between viewing video clips featuring gay men and a negative affective response, such that the association between viewing gay male content and having a negative affective response will be stronger in individuals with more sexually prejudiced attitudes.

Hypothesis 2c (moderated moderation). Emotion regulation will moderate the moderating effect of sexual prejudice on the relationship between negative affective response and exposure to video clips featuring gay men. In other words, there will be a three-way interaction between exposure to gay male content, negative affective response, and emotion regulation, such that individuals who endorse an elevated degree of homophobia and have poorer emotion regulation will demonstrate a larger negative affective response than individuals who endorse an elevated degree of homophobia but have better emotion regulation.

Question 3

Will a combined state-trait model of sexual prejudice better explain why some individuals have a strong, negative affective reaction when exposed to video clips featuring gay men compared to models that address sexual prejudice as either a stable, trait-level personality variable or a state-level negative affective response?

Hypothesis 3. A state-trait model of sexual prejudice (see Figure 5) will adequately fit the data. Specifically, according to a trait model of sexual prejudice, for participants who are high on RWA, SDO, or both RWA and SDO, viewing a video that features gay male content will be associated with a greater endorsement of sexually prejudiced attitudes. Furthermore, according to a state model of sexual prejudice, this greater endorsement of sexually prejudiced attitudes after viewing video clips featuring gay men will be associated with a more negative affective response, particularly for participants who have poor emotion regulation.

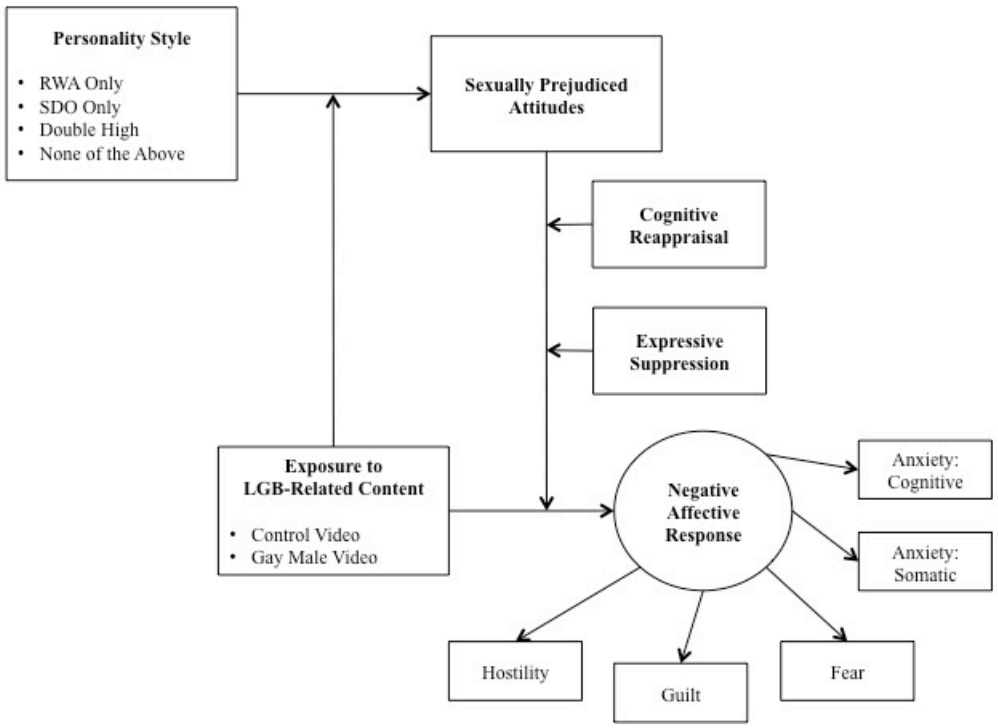

Figure 5. "State-trait" model of homophobia: an integrated model of sexual prejudice that includes facets of both the personality and negative affective response models of sexual prejudice.

CHAPTER 6

PILOT STUDY

In order to empirically select the video clips used in the full study, a pilot study was conducted to examine the reactions of individuals who were high on either RWA or SDO to videos taken from mainstream news media stories about gay men. First, the researcher selected 10 potential video clips from mainstream news media stories online. The videos all featured stories about white openly gay men, focused on topics that would be relevant to individuals high in RWA or SDO (e.g., freedom to discriminate against gay men on the basis of deeply held religious beliefs; equal rights for same-sex couples), and were all edited to approximately the same length (between two and two and a half minutes). Second, undergraduate research assistants who had been trained on the subjects of RWA and SDO evaluated these 10 potential videos to ensure they all exhibited either RWA- or SDO-related content, had a similarly positive or negative valence, and were equally engaging to watch. On the basis of this initial review of the videos, six videos were selected for the pilot study.

Method

Participants. Participants (n = 147) were recruited from the Michigan State University Human Participation in Research (HPR) system to participate in a study examining individuals' reactions to video clips taken from mainstream news media stories about gay men. All participants were between 18 and 23 years old (M = 19.47, SD = 1.27). The majority were female (female: n = 99, 67.3%; male: n = 47, 32.0%). Most of the participants identified as heterosexual (n = 136, 92.5%), followed by bisexual (n = 5, 3.4%), gay or lesbian (n = 2, 1.4%), and other (n = 3, 2.0%; "questioning," "asexual," and "heterosexual and biromantic"). The majority of the sample identified as White (n = 104, 70.7%), followed by Asian (n = 24, 16.3%),

Black or African American (n = 9, 6.1%), and other (n = 9, 6.1%). The majority of the participants were "single, never married" (n = 141, 95.9%), and none reported having children (n = 145, 98.6%; n = 2 did not answer this question). Participants were raised in a variety of religions, including Catholic (n = 53, 36.1%), Christian or Protestant (n = 35, 23.8%), Muslim (n = 5, 3.4%), Orthodox (n = 3, 2.0%), Jewish (n = 3, 2.0%), Hindu (n = 3, 2.0%), and Buddhist (n = 2, 1.4%); 26.5% of the sample reported not being raised in any religion (n = 39) and 2% were raised in an "other" religion (n = 3). Participants currently identified with numerous different religions, including Catholic (n = 43, 29.3%), Christian or Protestant (n = 27, 18.4%), Muslim (n = 5, 3.4%), Jewish (n = 3, 2.0%), Hindu (n = 3, 2.0%), Orthodox (n = 2, 1.4%), and Buddhist (n = 2, 1.4%); 7.5% currently identified with an "other" religion (n = 11) and 34.0% of the sample reported not identifying with any religion (n = 50; Agnostic: n = 15, 10.2%; Atheist: n = 12, 8.2%; "nothing in particular": n = 22, 15.0%).

Procedure. Participants were invited to participate in an online study on the HPR website; they were then redirected to the online survey hosted by Qualtrics, where participants read the informed consent and indicated their agreement to participate in the study electronically. Next, participants completed demographic measures as well as measures of RWA, SDO, and sexual prejudice. They then watched six brief video clips; three of the video clips were meant to elicit negative feelings in high RWA individuals (e.g., bakery refused to make the cake for a gay wedding; gay male couple adopts and raises 12 children; couple denied adoption of daughter they had cared for since birth) and three of the video clips were meant to elicit negative feelings in high SDO individuals (e.g., husband of a male state trooper denied death benefits; gay male couple harassed and evicted from their apartment; company denies spousal benefits for same-sex couples). After each video clip, participants were asked to rate the video to ensure that they had

a similarly positive or negative valence (e.g., “Did you find the overall tone of this video clip to be more negative or more positive?”) and were equally engaging to the participants (e.g., “To what degree did you like or enjoy this video clip?”). Participants were then asked use a forced sort method to rank the videos from most to least upsetting (e.g., “You just watched six different video clips taken from mainstream news media that featured stories about gay men. Now, we would like you to please rank the six videos from most to least upsetting (i.e., "1" = most upsetting and "6" = "least upsetting). Keep in mind that the term "upsetting" can refer to many different emotions, such as shocked, offended, sad, angry, etc. There is no right or wrong order for the video clips - we are only interested in *your opinion* of the news stories.”).

Measures. The reliability coefficients (Cronbach’s alpha) as well as the overall sample means and standard deviations for all measures used in the pilot study are reported in Table 1. Unless otherwise indicated below, item responses are summed for each measure such that a higher score on the measure indicates a greater level of the construct.

Right-wing authoritarianism. The Right-Wing Authoritarianism (RWA) Scale contains 34 self-report items (Altemeyer, 1988, 1996; see Appendix). Participants were asked to indicate the extent to which they agree or disagree with a given statement on a 9-point Likert scale (-4 = *very strongly disagree*; -3 = *strongly disagree*; -2 = *moderately disagree*; -1 = *slightly disagree*; 1 = *slightly agree*; 2 = *moderately agree*; 3 = *strongly agree*; 4 = *very strongly agree*). The RWA Scale has demonstrated good reliability and validity among college students (Cronbach’s alpha = 0.92; Cramer, Miller, Amacker, & Burks, 2013).

Social dominance orientation. Social Dominance Orientation (SDO) was measured with a 16-item self-report questionnaire, the SDO Scale (Pratto et al., 1994; see Appendix). The SDO Scale is scored on a 7-point Likert scale (1 = *strongly disagree/disapprove* to 7 = *strongly*

agree/approve), and it includes items such as, "Some groups of people are simply inferior to other groups," "If certain groups stayed in their place, we would have fewer problems," and "It's OK if some groups have more of a chance in life than others." The SDO scale has been found to have good reliability and construct validity among college students (Cronbach's alpha = 0.91; Pratto et al., 1994).

Sexually prejudiced attitudes (Homophobia). The 30-item measure of sexual prejudice used in the current study includes items that are designed to assess cognitive (e.g., "Homosexual behavior should be against the law."), affective (e.g., "Gay men make me nervous."), and behavioral (e.g., "I avoid gay individuals.") facets of homophobia. The questionnaire (see Appendix) included 30 items drawn from four different measures of homophobia: the Homophobia Scale (HS; Wright, Adams, & Bernat, 1999); the Attitudes Toward Lesbians and Gay Men Scale (ATLG; Herek, 1988); the Index of Homophobia (IHP; Hudson & Ricketts, 1980); and the Multifaceted Scale for Measuring Attitudes Toward Homosexuality (MS; Adolfsen et al., 2010). Sexual prejudice can be somewhat of an ill-defined construct (Costa, Bandeira, & Nardi, 2013), but there is notable consistency in the content of items across the most commonly used homophobia measures (Grey, Robinson, Coleman, & Bockting, 2013); however, none of these scales has emerged as the gold standard measure of homophobia (Siebert, Chonody, Siebert, & Rutledge, 2014). Due to the considerable overlap in the content of these scales as well as the inability of any one of these measures to assess all three facets of sexually prejudiced attitudes, the questionnaire used in this study selected its items from four of the most commonly used measures. Because the current study is focused on attitudes towards gay men, wherever necessary, the items in the homophobia scale were reworded to focus exclusively on

homosexuality in men. Participants respond to items on a 5-point scale (1 = *strongly disagree*; 2 = *somewhat disagree*; 3 = *neither agree nor disagree*; 4 = *somewhat agree*; 5 = *strongly agree*).

Table 1
Means, Standard Deviations, and Reliability Coefficients for All Scales Used in the Pilot Study

Scale	Number of Items	α	*M*	*SD*
Right-Wing Authoritarianism (RWA) Scale	34	0.84	131.97	35.96
Social Dominance Orientation (SDO) Scale	16	0.93	40.03	16.65
Sexually Prejudiced Attitudes Scale	30	0.96	57.15	21.87

Results

There were 155 individuals who participated in the pilot study; after eliminating those who failed to complete the study (n = 5) or participated in the study more than one time (n = 3), 147 participants were retained for data analysis. The overall ratings of the valence (from "extremely negative" to "extremely positive") and participants' enjoyment (from "disliked a great deal" to "liked a great deal") of the six videos can be found in Table 2.

Next, total scale scores for the RWA, SDO, and homophobia scales were calculated and participants were grouped according to their scores. Because of the possible additive nature of the relationship between the constructs of RWA and SDO, the number of "double

Table 2
Ratings of Negative or Positive Valence and Overall Enjoyment of Videos Used in the Pilot Study

	Video 1	Video 2	Video 3	Video 4	Video 5	Video 6
Did you find the overall tone of this video clip to be more negative or more positive?						
M (SD)	2.57 (0.86)	2.25 (0.88)	4.15 (0.83)	3.08 (1.16)	2.17 (0.83)	2.37 (0.84)
1 = Extremely negative	11 (7.5%)	26 (17.7%)	0 (0.0%)	13 (8.8%)	30 (20.4%)	19 (12.9%)
2 = Somewhat negative	62 (42.2%)	69 (46.9%)	4 (2.7%)	36 (24.5%)	67 (45.6%)	64 (43.5%)
3 = Neither positive nor negative	48 (32.7%)	35 (23.8%)	28 (19.0%)	36 (24.5%)	36 (24.5%)	47 (32.0%)
4 = Somewhat positive	21 (14.3%)	12 (8.2%)	53 (36.1%)	43 (29.3%)	9 (6.1%)	11 (7.5%)
5 = Extremely positive	1 (0.7%)	1 (0.7%)	58 (39.5%)	15 (10.2%)	0 (0.0%)	1 (0.7%)
To what degree did you like or enjoy this video clip?						
M (SD)	2.85 (0.94)	2.63 (0.99)	3.94 (0.97)	3.21 (1.04)	2.52 (0.99)	2.63 (0.89)
1 = Disliked a great deal	14 (9.5%)	26 (17.7%)	2 (1.4%)	9 (6.1%)	26 (17.7%)	16 (10.9%)
2 = Disliked somewhat	28 (19%)	25 (17.0%)	6 (4.1%)	22 (15.0%)	40 (27.2%)	41 (27.9%)
3 = Neither liked nor disliked	71 (48.3%)	71 (48.3%)	40 (27.2%)	57 (38.8%)	54 (36.7%)	66 (44.9%)
4 = Liked somewhat	25 (17.0%)	18 (12.2%)	44 (29.9%)	38 (25.9%)	20 (13.6%)	17 (11.6%)
5 = Liked a great deal	5 (3.4%)	3 (2.0%)	50 (34.0%)	16 (10.9%)	2 (1.4%)	2 (1.4%)

Note. Video 1 = bakery refused to make the cake for a gay wedding; Video 2 = husband of a male state trooper denied death benefits; Video 3 = gay male couple adopts and raises 12 children; Video 4 = gay male couple harassed and evicted from their apartment; Video 5 = couple denied adoption of daughter they had cared for since birth; Video 6 = company denies spousal benefits for same-sex couples. Unless otherwise specified, figures represent the total number of participants in each category with the percentage of the total sample reported in parentheses.

highs" (i.e., individuals who scored in the top quartile on measures of both RWA and SDO) was also calculated (n = 27); participants who were classified as double highs were excluded from the pilot study analyses in order to isolate the videos that were most salient to individuals high on either RWA or SDO. Participants were then grouped into tertiles based on their scores on the measures of RWA and SDO; the top tertile for both the RWA scale and the SDO scale included 37 participants.

A frequency analysis was used to identify which of the videos were most frequently ranked as the most upsetting for participants in either group. Two of the videos were consistently identified as the most upsetting across the two groups: 1) the video in which a couple is denied adoption of the daughter they had cared for since birth and 2) the video in which the husband of a state trooper is denied death benefits. For individuals who were in the top tertile on the RWA scale, 31.3% of the participants selected the adoption denial video as the most upsetting. However, there was a tie between two videos for individuals in the top tertile on the SDO scale: 35.3% of the high SDO participants rated the state trooper death benefits video as the most upsetting video clip and 35.3% of these participants rated the adoption denial video as the most upsetting. Given that the goal of the pilot study was to select the videos that were most likely to elicit a negative reaction from sexually prejudiced individuals, the adoption denial video (which was identified as the most upsetting video by 31.3% of the high RWA participants and 35.3% of the high SDO participants) and the state trooper death benefits video (which was identified as the most upsetting video by 25.0% of the high RWA participants and 35.3% of the high SDO participants) were selected as the stimulus videos for the full study. Due to the considerable overlap between the two groups on which videos were identified as the most upsetting as well as the sizeable number of "double high" participants in the sample, the two

stimulus videos (i.e., the adoption denial video and the state trooper death benefits video) were collapsed into one category (i.e., gay male videos) for the full study.

CHAPTER 7

METHOD – FULL STUDY

Participants

Participants were recruited from the Michigan State University Human Participation in Research (HPR) system and Amazon's Mechanical Turk (mTurk); after viewing a brief description of the study on the HPR or mTurk website, participants completed the study online via the Qualtrics website. Participants recruited from the HPR system were compensated with research credit, and participants who completed both parts of the survey could also choose to be entered into a lottery to win one of two $50 Amazon gift cards. Participants recruited through mTurk were compensated with $5, which was deposited in their Amazon Payments account. Participation in the study was limited to heterosexually identified individuals who were at least 18 years of age.

Electronic data collection has become increasingly popular in the field of psychology, largely because it allows for quicker, more economical data collection as well as access to more diverse samples than are generally found in traditional university-based student participant pools (Paolacci & Chandler, 2014). Amazon's Mechanical Turk (mTurk) has become one of the most popular places for recruiting online participants in the social sciences (Goodman, Cryder, & Cheema, 2013; Paolacci & Chandler, 2014), and it was selected for the current study due to the quality of the data produced by mTurk workers (Buhrmester, Kwang, & Gosling, 2011). While mTurk workers often differ from traditional student participants on several important demographic variables (e.g., age, gender, level of education, employment status; Goodman et al., 2013), previous research has been able to replicate a number of traditional social scientific findings using samples of participants recruited on mTurk (Berinsky, Huber, & Lenz, 2012).

In addition, previous research has discovered that RWA and SDO do not significantly differ between samples of traditional student participants and samples of participants recruited on mTurk, and sample (i.e., traditional student participants versus mTurk participants) does not significantly moderate the effects of RWA and SDO on intolerance (Crawford & Pilanski, 2014). Furthermore, RWA and SDO were both associated with support for political candidates who opposed same-sex marriage in a sample of participants recruited on mTurk (Crawford, Brady, Pilanski, & Erny, 2013). However, one study that compared the equivalency of responses from traditional student participants (collected both in-person and online) and participants recruited on mTurk found significant differences on three constructs related to prejudice (i.e., modern racism, RWA, and SDO) among the three samples (in-person student participants, online student participants, and mTurk participants; Gamblin, Winslow, Lindsay, Newsom, & Kehn, 2016). Specifically, while the sample recruited on mTurk was equivalent to the in-person student participants on measures of modern racism and SDO, they reported significantly lower average scores on the RWA scale than both in-person and online student participants and significantly lower average scores on the modern racism and SDO scales than the online student participants (Gamblin et al., 2016). Because the authors attributed the differences on these scales to disparities on several key demographic factors (e.g., gender, age) between their samples (Gamblin et al., 2016), participants recruited from the traditional student participant pool and mTurk were randomly assigned to one of the video conditions in the current study to produce reasonably equivalent groups across conditions.

Part I of the study had 501 participants (HPR: n = 397; mTurk: n = 104) and 413 participants completed Part II of the study (HPR: n = 313; mTurk: n = 100) for an overall retention rate of 82.44% (HPR: 78.84%; mTurk: 96.15%). Items to check for careless

responding (e.g., questions directing participants to select a specific response; factual multiple-choice questions about the content of the videos) were included to ensure that participants were paying careful attention throughout the study. Participants were only retained in the final sample if they had less than 10% of their total data missing across both parts of the study and correctly answered at least seven of the ten careless responding questions (including at least three out of the five multiple-choice validity check questions about the video). Furthermore, because this study was primarily interested in externalized homophobia (rather than internalized homophobia), participants who identified exclusively as "gay or lesbian" (n = 10, 2.8%) were removed prior to data analysis. The final total sample included 350 participants (HPR: n = 262; mTurk: n = 88).

Procedure

Data for this study were collected between April and June of 2016 (Part I: 04/19/2016-06/10/2016; Part II: 04/26/2016-06/17/2016). Participants were invited to participate in a two-part online study on the HPR and mTurk websites; they were then redirected to the online survey hosted by Qualtrics, where participants read the informed consent and indicated their agreement to participate in the study electronically. Participants then completed the demographic measures; baseline measures of homophobia, state and trait anxiety, and positive and negative affect; as well as measures of RWA, SDO, emotion regulation, social desirability, and traditional gender role ideology. One week after their participation in Part I of the study, participants were contacted via email and asked to complete Part II of the study (via a direct link in the email to the survey on Qualtrics) within the following seven days.

In Part II, participants were randomly assigned (via the Qualtrics random assignment algorithm) to one of the three video conditions during the study: the "RWA-themed" video

condition (n = 120), the "SDO-themed" video condition (n = 117), or the control video condition (n = 123). Each video lasted approximately 2 minutes and 30 seconds and was drawn from news reports about topical issues. The RWA- and SDO-themed stimulus videos used in this study were selected from a pool of six potential video clips on the basis of the aforementioned pilot study; because of the considerable overlap between the ratings of these videos in the pilot study, the RWA- and SDO-themed stimulus videos were collapsed into one category (i.e., gay male videos) for data analysis. The RWA-themed stimulus video featured two men who had adopted a newborn girl who was taken away from them nearly two years later despite the girl's biological mother petitioning for the two men to retain custody of the girl. The SDO-themed stimulus video featured the long-term partner of a State Highway Patrol trooper who was denied death benefits normally paid out to the surviving spouse after the trooper was killed in the line of duty. The control video featured a discussion of the increased presence and struggles experienced by adjunct professors at colleges and universities. The control video was similar to the RWA- and SDO-themed videos in length and style, but it did not contain any discussion of politically charged issues nor did it feature any LGB-related content. To reduce potential confounds, all of the videos featured news reports about White, openly gay men (except for the control video, which introduced three white male professors whose sexual orientation was not discussed).

In order to ensure that participants were adequately exposed to the content of the stimulus video, they watched the video twice with a brief pause in between and the online survey instrument included a timing variable that did not allow the participants to advance until the video's playtime had elapsed. To ensure that participants adequately attended to the content of the video clips, they were asked to answer five factual multiple-choice questions about the content of the video, and a minimum score of 3 out of 5 was required (participants who failed

this exposure criterion were excluded from subsequent data analyses). Finally, participants once again completed the homophobia measure, as well as the measures of state anxiety and positive and negative affect. Upon completion of the survey, participants were offered a written explanation of the aims of the study, as well as a list of campus, community, and online resources related to mental health.

Measures

The reliability coefficients (Cronbach's alpha) as well as the overall sample means and standard deviations for all measures used in the study are reported in Table 3. Unless otherwise indicated below, item responses are summed for each measure such that a higher score on the measure indicates a greater level of the construct.

Criterion Variables

Right-wing authoritarianism. The Right-Wing Authoritarianism (RWA) Scale contains 34 self-report items (Altemeyer, 1988, 1996; see Appendix). Participants were asked to indicate the extent to which they agree or disagree with a given statement on a 9-point Likert scale (-4 = *very strongly disagree*; -3 = *strongly disagree*; -2 = *moderately disagree*; -1 = *slightly disagree*; 1 = *slightly agree*; 2 = *moderately agree*; 3 = *strongly agree*; 4 = *very strongly agree*). The RWA Scale has demonstrated good reliability and validity (Cronbach's alpha = 0.92; Cramer, Miller, Amacker, & Burks, 2013).

Social dominance orientation. Social Dominance Orientation (SDO) was measured with a 16-item self-report questionnaire, the SDO Scale (Pratto et al., 1994; see Appendix). The SDO Scale is scored on a 7-point Likert scale (1 = *strongly disagree/disapprove* to 7 = *strongly agree/approve*), and it includes items such as, "Some groups of people are simply inferior to other groups," "If certain groups stayed in their place, we would have fewer problems," and "It's

OK if some groups have more of a chance in life than others." The SDO scale has been found to have good reliability and construct validity (Cronbach's alpha = 0.91; Pratto et al., 1994).

Outcome Variables

Sexually prejudiced attitudes (Homophobia). The 30-item measure of sexual prejudice used in the current study includes items that are designed to assess cognitive (e.g., "Homosexual behavior should be against the law."), affective (e.g., "Gay men make me nervous."), and behavioral (e.g., "I avoid gay individuals.") facets of homophobia. The questionnaire (see Appendix) included 30 items drawn from four different measures of homophobia: the Homophobia Scale (HS; Wright et al., 1999); the Attitudes Toward Lesbians and Gay Men Scale (ATLG; Herek, 1988); the Index of Homophobia (IHP; Hudson & Ricketts, 1980); and the Multifaceted Scale for Measuring Attitudes Toward Homosexuality (MS; Adolfsen et al., 2010). Sexual prejudice can be somewhat of an ill-defined construct (Costa et al., 2013), but there is notable consistency in the content of items across the most commonly used homophobia measures (Grey et al., 2013); however, none of these scales has emerged as the gold standard measure of homophobia (Siebert et al., 2014). Due to the considerable overlap in the content of these scales as well as the inability of any one of these measures to assess all three facets of sexually prejudiced attitudes, the questionnaire used in this study selected its items from four of the most commonly used measures. Because the current study is focused on attitudes towards gay men, wherever necessary, the items in the homophobia scale were reworded to focus exclusively on homosexuality in men. Participants respond to items on a 5-point scale (1 = *strongly disagree*; 2 = *somewhat disagree*; 3 = *neither agree nor disagree*; 4 = *somewhat agree*; 5 = *strongly agree*).

Anxiety. The State–Trait Inventory for Cognitive and Somatic Anxiety (STICSA) is a 40-item self-report questionnaire, which is designed to evaluate cognitive and somatic symptoms of state (in the moment) and trait (in general) anxiety (Ree, MacLeod, French, & Locke, 2000; see Appendix). The STICSA includes two subscales, both of which can be assessed in the moment or in general (i.e., state and/or trait): Cognitive (10 items; e.g., "I think the worst will happen," "I can't get some thoughts out of my mind") and Somatic (10 items; e.g., "My muscles are tense," "My breathing is fast and shallow"). Participants score items on a 4-point scale (1 = *not at all*; 2 = *a little*; 3 = *moderately*; 4 = *very much so*). The STICSA State (Cronbach's alpha = 0.92) and Trait (Cronbach's alpha = 0.91) scales, as well as the subscales (State-Cognitive: Cronbach's alpha = 0.88; State-Somatic: Cronbach's alpha = 0.88; Trait-Cognitive: Cronbach's alpha = 0.87; and Trait-Somatic: Cronbach's alpha = 0.87) have demonstrated good internal consistency (Gros, Antony, Simms, & McCabe, 2007). In the current study, both state and trait anxiety were assessed in Part 1 of the study, whereas only state anxiety was assessed in Part 2.

Positive and negative affect. The Positive and Negative Affect Schedule - Expanded Form (PANAS-X) is a 60-item self-report questionnaire that is designed to measure one's current positive and negative affect (Watson & Clark, 1994; see Appendix). The PANAS-X contains two higher-level subscales that reflect the *valence* of the mood descriptors (i.e., Positive Affect (PA) and Negative Affect (NA)) and 11 lower-level subscales that reflect specific affective content (i.e., Fear, Sadness, Guilt, Hostility, Shyness, Fatigue, Surprise, Joviality, Self-Assurance, Attentiveness, and Serenity). Participants are asked to indicate the extent to which they currently feel a particular emotion (e.g., afraid, scared, nervous, distressed, enthusiastic, excited, angry, hostile, irritable, disgusted) on a 5-point scale (1 = *very slightly or not at all*; 2 = *a little*; 3 = *moderately*; 4 = *quite a bit*; and 5 = *extremely*). When asked to classify one's affect

"right now (that is, at the present moment)", the PA subscale (Cronbach's alpha = 0.88) and the NA subscale (Cronbach's alpha = 0.85) have demonstrated good internal consistency (Watson & Clark, 1994). The PANAS-X was administered in both Parts 1 and 2 of the current study.

Moderating Variables

Emotion regulation. The Emotion Regulation Questionnaire (ERQ) is a 10-item self-report questionnaire that is designed to measure one's tendency to regulate his or her emotions (Gross & John, 2003; see Appendix). The ERQ contains two subscales: Cognitive Reappraisal (6 items; e.g., "When I want to feel more positive emotion (such as joy or amusement), I change what I'm thinking about.") and Expressive Suppression (4 items; e.g., "I keep my emotions to myself."). Respondents score items on a 7-point Likert scale from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*). The scale has good convergent and divergent validity and internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha coefficients range from .68 to .76; Gross & John, 2003).

Control and Covariant Variables

Social desirability. A 10-item short form of the Social Desirability Scale (SDS; Crowne & Marlowe, 1960; see Appendix) was used to measure social desirability bias (e.g., "I like to gossip at times," "There have been occasions when I took advantage of someone," and "I'm always willing to admit it when I make a mistake"; Strahan & Gerbasi, 1972). Participants are asked to indicate whether each statement is true (1) or false (0) for them. Previous research has found that this particular short form of the SDS is able to more accurately measure social desirability than other short form measures (Fischer & Fick, 1993). The Strahan and Gerbasi short form of the SDS that will be used in this study has strong validity and internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha = 0.88; Fischer & Fick, 1993).

Traditional gender role ideology. The Gender Role Beliefs Scale (GRBS) is a 20-item self-report questionnaire that is designed to measure gender role ideology and traditional gender role expectations (e.g., "It bothers me more to see a woman who is pushy than a man who is pushy," "Women with children should not work outside the home if they don't have to financially"; Kerr & Holden, 1996; see Appendix). Participants are asked to rate items on a 7-point Likert scale (1 = *strongly agree*; 4 = *undecided*; 7 = *strongly disagree*). The GRBS has good validity and internal consistency (Cronbach's alpha = 0.89; Nierman, Thompson, Bryan, & Mahaffey, 2007).

Demographic information. Participants were asked to self-report their age, gender, race, sexual orientation, marital status, parental status, religious affiliation, political affiliation, and their highest degree or level of school completed. College student participants recruited from the HPR system were also asked to report the educational degree toward which they are currently working, their current major, grade point average, and year in school. Community sample participants recruited from mTurk were asked to report their current employment status and their total household income before taxes during the past 12 months.

Table 3
Means, Standard Deviations, and Reliability Coefficients for All Scales Used in Part I and Part II of the Full Study

Scale	Number of Items	Part I			Part II		
		α	*M*	*SD*	α	*M*	*SD*
Right-Wing Authoritarianism (RWA) Scale	34	0.94	127.51	38.31	-	-	-
Social Dominance Orientation (SDO) Scale	16	0.95	38.43	18.89	-	-	-
Sexually Prejudiced Attitudes Scale	30	0.97	56.25	21.44	0.97	56.86	22.29
State–Trait Inventory for Cognitive and Somatic Anxiety							
Trait Subscale	21	0.95	31.84	11.49	-	-	-
State Subscale	21	0.94	30.10	10.21	0.95	28.92	10.08
State – Cognitive Subscale	10	0.92	16.24	6.68	0.94	15.16	6.35
State – Somatic Subscale	11	0.89	13.86	4.44	0.91	13.77	4.51
Positive and Negative Affect Schedule (PANAS-X)							
Positive Affect Subscale	10	0.91	24.63	8.90	0.92	23.01	8.66
Negative Affect Subscale	10	0.93	14.91	6.85	0.93	14.37	6.34
Fear Subscale	6	0.90	8.54	4.08	0.90	8.39	3.90
Hostility Subscale	6	0.89	8.35	3.85	0.88	8.13	3.49
Guilt Subscale	6	0.91	8.56	4.41	0.92	8.19	4.13
Sadness Subscale	5	0.90	7.86	4.09	0.90	7.47	3.79
Emotion Regulation Questionnaire (ERQ)							
Cognitive Reappraisal Subscale	6	0.88	29.74	6.10	-	-	-
Expressive Suppression Subscale	4	0.79	14.69	5.13	-	-	-
Social Desirability Scale (SDS)	10	0.62	4.35	2.10	-	-	-
Gender Role Beliefs Scale (GRBS)	20	0.92	97.00	22.65	-	-	-

CHAPTER 8

RESULTS - FULL STUDY

Demographic Information

All participants were between 18 and 69 years old (M = 24.19, SD = 9.47). The majority of participants were female (female: n = 225, 64.3%; male: n = 125, 35.7%). The majority of the sample identified as White (n = 277, 79.1%), followed by Asian (n = 37, 10.6%), Black or African American (n = 27, 7.7%), American Indian or Alaskan Native (n = 1, 0.3%), Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander (n = 1, 0.3%), and other (n = 7, 2.0%). The majority of the participants were currently "single, never married" (n = 301, 86.0%), with the remaining participants reporting being married (n = 27, 7.7%), divorced (n = 13, 3.7%), or other (n = 9, 2.6%); only a small number of participants reported having children (n = 32, 9.1%). Participants were raised in a variety of religions, including Christian or Protestant (n = 117, 33.4%), Catholic (n = 112, 32.0%), Jewish (n = 7, 2.0%), Muslim (n = 5, 1.4%), Buddhist (n = 4, 1.1%), Orthodox (n = 3, 0.9%), Hindu (n = 3, 0.9%), and Mormon (n = 1, 0.3%); 25.4% of the sample reported not being raised in any religion (n = 89) and 2.6% were raised in an "other" religion (n = 9). Participants currently identified with numerous different religions, including Christian or Protestant (n = 92, 26.3%), Catholic (n = 86, 24.6%), Jewish (n = 7, 2.0%), Muslim (n = 4, 1.1%), Orthodox (n = 3, 0.9%), Hindu (n = 3, 0.9%), Mormon (n = 2, 0.6%), and Buddhist (n = 1, 0.3%); 5.4% currently identified with an "other" religion (n = 19) and 38.0% of the sample reported not identifying with any religion (n = 133; Atheist: n = 35, Agnostic: n = 45, and "nothing in particular": n = 52). The majority of participants reported affiliating with the Democrats (n = 149, 42.6%), followed by Republicans (n = 82, 23.4%), Independents (n = 64, 18.3%), "none" (n = 52, 14.9%), and "other" (n = 3, 0.9%). Most participants had completed

"some college, but no college degree" (n = 187, 53.4%) or were a "high school graduate" (n = 79, 22.6%; "GED": n = 4, 1.1%); the remaining participants' highest level of school completed varied widely, from "some high school, but no diploma" (n = 1, 0.3%), college degrees ("2 year college/Associate's degree": n = 28, 8.0%; "4 year college/Bachelor's degree": n = 36, 10.3%), and graduate degrees ("Master's degree": n = 8, 2.3%; "Doctoral or professional degree": n = 4, 1.1%; "some graduate school, but no graduate degree": n = 3, 0.9%). Demographic information separated by participant source (HPR or mTurk) can be found in Table 4.

Table 4
Demographic Variables by Participant Source (HPR or mTurk)

	HPR	mTurk
Age	M = 19.95 (SD = 2.05)	M = 36.82 (SD = 11.47)
Gender		
Male	74 (28.2%)	51 (58.0%)
Female	188 (71.8%)	37 (42.0%)
Race		
White	207 (79.0%)	70 (79.5%)
Black or African American	22 (8.4%)	5 (5.7%)
American Indian or Alaska Native	0 (0%)	1 (1.1%)
Asian	28 (10.7%)	9 (10.2%)
Native Hawaiian or Pacific Islander	0 (0%)	1 (1.1%)
Other	5 (1.9%)	2 (2.3%)
Education		
Some high school (but no diploma)	1 (0.4%)	0 (0%)
High school graduate	71 (27.1%)	8 (9.1%)
GED (or high school equivalency)	2 (0.8%)	2 (2.3%)
Some college (but no college degree)	164 (62.6%)	23 (26.1%)
2 year college/Associate degree	16 (6.1%)	12 (13.6%)
4 year college/Bachelor's degree	7 (2.7%)	29 (33.0%)
Some graduate school (but no graduate degree)	1 (0.4%)	2 (2.3%)
Master's degree	0 (0%)	8 (9.1%)
Doctoral or professional degree	0 (0%)	4 (4.5%)

Table 4 (cont'd)

Political Affiliation		
Democrat	111 (42.4%)	38 (43.2%)
Republican	66 (25.2%)	16 (18.2%)
Independent	36 (13.7%)	28 (31.8%)
Other	1 (0.4%)	2 (2.3%)
None	48 (18.3%)	4 (4.5%)
Religious Affiliation – Past		
Christian or Protestant	91 (34.7%)	26 (29.5%)
Catholic	96 (36.6%)	16 (18.2%)
Mormon	0 (0%)	1 (1.1%)
Orthodox (such as Greek or Russian Orthodox)	3 (1.1%)	0 (0%)
Jehovah's Witness	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Jewish	7 (2.7%)	0 (0%)
Muslim	4 (1.5%)	1 (1.1%)
Buddhist	4 (1.5%)	0 (0%)
Hindu	2 (0.8%)	1 (1.1%)
Other	7 (2.7%)	2 (2.3%)
None	48 (18.3%)	41 (46.6%)
Religious Affiliation – Current		
Christian or Protestant	76 (29.0%)	16 (18.2%)
Catholic	75 (28.6%)	11 (12.5%)
Mormon	0 (0%)	2 (2.3%)
Orthodox (such as Greek or Russian Orthodox)	3 (1.1%)	0 (0%)
Jehovah's Witness	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Jewish	7 (2.7%)	0 (0%)
Muslim	3 (1.1%)	1 (1.1%)
Buddhist	1 (0.4%)	0 (0%)
Hindu	2 (0.8%)	1 (1.1%)
Other	15 (5.7%)	4 (4.5%)
None	80 (30.5%)	53 (60.2%)
Social Desirability Scale (SDS)	*M* = 4.34 (*SD* = 1.95)	*M* = 4.42 (*SD* = 2.56)
Gender Role Beliefs Scale (GRBS)	*M* = 95.23 (*SD* = 21.39)	*M* = 100.23 (*SD* = 25.41)

Note. Unless otherwise specified, figures represent the total number of participants in each category with the percentage of the total sample reported in parentheses.

In an attempt to control for potential confounds, variables that were identified as covariates in previous research were measured in this survey. A series of one-way ANOVAs (for continuous variables) or chi-square tests (for categorical variables) were conducted to determine if there were any significant differences on these demographic and individual difference variables among the three video conditions (see Table 5). There were no significant differences between the three conditions for any of the potential covariates, which indicates that Qualtrics was able to successfully randomly assign participants to a video condition. Because the random assignment was able to produce reasonably equivalent groups across the three conditions, these potential covariates were not included in subsequent analyses to maximize the degrees of freedom (Rosenthal & Rosenthal, 2011). Table 6 contains the correlations between all of the variables included in the subsequent data analyses.

Table 5
Video Condition Differences for Potential Covariates and Demographic Variables

	F or χ^2	*df*	*p*
Participant Source (HPR or mTurk)	1.14	4	0.89
Age	0.17	2, 349	0.85
Gender	0.50	2	0.78
Race	8.29	10	0.60
Sexual Orientation	7.30	4	0.12
Education	11.02	16	0.81
Political Affiliation	6.52	8	0.59
Religious Affiliation – Past	16.35	18	0.57
Religious Affiliation – Current	14.18	18	0.72
Social Desirability Scale (SDS)	0.60	2, 348	0.55
Gender Role Beliefs Scale (GRBS)	1.12	2, 349	0.33

Table 6
Correlations between All Study Variables Included in Data Analysis

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12
1	RWA	-											
2	SDO	.60**	-										
3	Sexual Prejudice	.69**	.51**	-									
4	Anxiety: Cognitive	.12*	.07	.10	-								
5	Anxiety: Somatic	.16**	.17**	.22**	.71**	-							
6	Fear	.22**	.17**	.27**	.63**	.73**	-						
7	Hostility	.22**	.22**	.33**	.58**	.70**	.82**	-					
8	Guilt	.18**	.13*	.20**	.67**	.69**	.82**	.78**	-				
9	Sadness	.13*	.12*	.17**	.71**	.66**	.78**	.75**	.82**	-			
10	Cognitive Reappraisal	.00	-.11*	-.08	-.19**	-.17**	-.08	-.11*	-.16**	-.16**	-		
11	Expressive Suppression	.19**	.15**	.20**	.16**	.07	.11*	.22**	.21**	.25**	-.06	-	
12	Social Desirability	-.03	-.05	-.10	-.17**	-.02	-.08	-.06	-.08	-.08	.07	-.01	-
13	Gender Role Beliefs	-.58**	-.44**	-.50**	-.07	-.12*	-.17**	-.18**	-.15**	-.11*	.10	-.11*	.05

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

Hypothesis 1

Hypothesis 1 addressed whether or not the personality facets RWA and SDO were associated with a greater endorsement of sexual prejudice, and whether exposure to gay male content in a brief video clip would moderate this relationship. A hierarchical moderated regression analysis was used to explore whether the relationship between RWA, SDO, and the endorsement of homophobia was greater when participants viewed a video featuring gay men versus the control video.

The analyses for Hypothesis 1 were run using the PROCESS macro for SPSS, which uses an OLS regression-based path analytical framework to estimate conditional direct and indirect effects in moderation and mediation models (Hayes, 2013). In order to determine whether the impact of the predictor variable is significantly different from zero, the PROCESS macro conducts an analysis of the simple slopes by estimating the effect of the predictor variable at low, moderate, and high values of the moderator (or in a case like this with a dichotomous moderator, by estimating the effect of the predictor variables at both levels of the moderator). In addition, the PROCESS macro provides several values of $\hat{Y}$ as a function of the moderator and the predictor variable in order to create a graphical representation of the interaction.

The personality facets were entered into PROCESS as the predictor variable. Participants were all placed into one of four personality categories based on their total RWA and SDO scale scores: RWA Only, SDO Only, Double High, or None of the Above. First, participants were grouped into tertiles based on their total scale scores on the RWA and SDO measures. Second, participant's rankings (i.e., low, moderate, or high) on these two measures were combined; any participants who were ranked as being "high" (i.e., in the top tertile) on both RWA and SDO were considered to be "Double High," while participants who were only ranked as "high" on

either RWA or SDO were categorized as "RWA Only" or "SDO Only," respectively. For this sample, 42 participants (12.0%) were categorized as being high on RWA Only, 43 were high on SDO Only (12.3%), 75 were high on *both* RWA and SDO (i.e., "Double High"; 21.4%), and 190 were not high on RWA or SDO (i.e., "None of the Above"; 54.3%). The dichotomous video condition variable (i.e., 0 = control video, 1 = gay male video) was entered as the moderator variable, and the total score on the homophobia scale from Part II of the study was entered as the outcome variable.

Hypothesis 1a. It was hypothesized that the personality facets RWA and SDO would be associated with a greater endorsement of sexual prejudice. Specifically, it was hypothesized that participants who were high on both RWA and SDO (i.e., Double Highs) would endorse the most sexually prejudiced attitudes, followed by participants who were high on either RWA or SDO (i.e., RWA Only or SDO Only); it was hypothesized that participants who were low on both RWA and SDO (i.e., None of the Above) would endorse the least sexually prejudiced attitudes. A hierarchical, moderated regression was performed in order to establish whether the personality facets were associated with a greater endorsement of homophobia. Because the Personality variable was a multicategorical predictor (i.e., 0 = "None of the Above," 1 = "RWA Only," 2 = "SDO Only," and 3 = "Double High"), PROCESS automatically used simple indicator (i.e., "dummy variable") coding to represent the groups with "None of the Above" serving as the reference category. An examination of the main effects revealed that participants who were in the RWA Only ($\beta = 25.93$, $p < 0.0001$) and the Double-High ($\beta = 33.13$, $p < 0.0001$) groups had significantly greater sexually prejudiced attitudes than participants who were not high on either RWA or SDO; there was not a significant main effect for the SDO Only group ($\beta = 8.06$, $p = 0.11$). In addition, there was a main effect of video condition on sexual prejudice ($\beta = -5.81$, $p <$

0.05) such that participants who viewed a video featuring gay male content reported less sexually prejudiced attitudes than participants who watched the control video (see Table 7).

Hypothesis 1b. Additionally, it was hypothesized that the content of the video (i.e., gay male or control) would moderate the relationship between the personality facets RWA and SDO and greater endorsement of sexual prejudice. Specifically, the relationship between RWA, SDO, and endorsement of homophobic beliefs would be larger when participants viewed video clips featuring gay men versus the control video. A hierarchical, moderated regression was used to examine whether exposure to videos that feature gay male content was able to moderate the association between the personality facets RWA and SDO and a greater endorsement of sexual prejudice. PROCESS created interaction terms between the personality dummy variables and the dichotomous video condition variable. The interactions between video condition and RWA Only (β = -2.81, p = 0.66), SDO Only (β =5.17, p = 0.40), and Double-High (β = 0.43, p = 0.93) were not significant (see Figure 6).

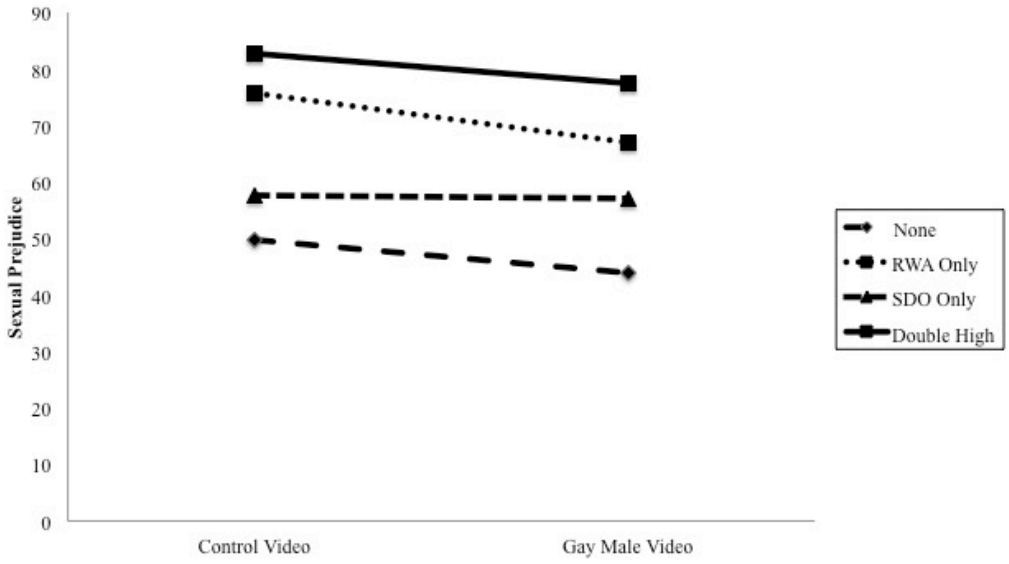

Figure 6. Estimated effect of the predictor variable (i.e. personality category) for both conditions of the moderator (i.e., video condition). Simple indicator coding was used to represent the personality category groups.

Table 7
Model 1: Hierarchical Moderated Regression Analyses Predicting Sexually Prejudiced Attitudes from Personality Category Moderated by Exposure to Gay Male Content

	R^2	F	Coefficient β	Standard Error	t
Model Summary	0.41	33.64***			
Main Effects					
Exposure to Gay Male Content			-5.81	2.62	-2.22*
Personality Category					
RWA Only			25.93	5.41	4.79***
SDO Only			8.06	5.07	1.59
Double High			33.13	3.89	8.53***
Interactions	$\Delta R^2 = 0.002$	0.35			
RWA Only x Exposure			-2.81	6.45	-0.43
SDO Only x Exposure			5.17	6.20	0.83
Double High x Exposure			0.43	4.88	0.09

Note. All regression coefficients are unstandardized.
*$p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. ***$p < .001$.

Hypothesis 2

For Hypothesis 2, a moderated moderation regression model was used to explore the relationship between the content of the video (i.e., gay male or control), sexual prejudice, emotion regulation, and negative affective response. Specifically, Hypothesis 2 addressed whether or not exposure to video clips featuring gay men was associated with a more negative affective response, and whether the relationship between viewing these gay male videos and a negative affective response was moderated by sexual prejudice. Furthermore, this model evaluated whether there was a three-way interaction between indicators of emotion regulation, sexual prejudice, and negative affective response, such that emotion regulation moderated the relationship between sexual prejudice (the proposed moderator) and a negative affective response after viewing video clips featuring gay male content.

The moderated moderation regression model was estimated using MPlus Version 7. First, the latent outcome variable (negative affective response) was specified using five manifest variables (i.e., the State-Cognitive and State-Somatic subscales from the STICSA as well as the Fear, Guilt, and Hostility subscales from the PANAS-X administered during Part II of the study). Second, all of the predictor (i.e., video condition, which was a manifest dichotomous variable) and moderator (i.e., homophobia [the total score on the sexual prejudice scale from Part II of the study] and emotion regulation [the total score on the two subscales from the ERQ: Cognitive Reappraisal and Expressive Suppression]) variables were defined. Prior to being entered into the regression analyses, the continuous moderator variables (homophobia, cognitive reappraisal, and expressive suppression) were mean centered to ensure that the coefficients for the products of these variables would be more readily interpretable (Hayes, Glynn, & Huge, 2012). Third, the 2-way interaction terms (i.e., video condition x homophobia; video condition x cognitive

reappraisal; video condition x expressive suppression; homophobia x cognitive reappraisal; homophobia x expressive suppression) and the 3-way interaction terms (i.e., video condition x homophobia x cognitive reappraisal; video condition x homophobia x expressive suppression) were defined. Finally, the predictor and moderator terms were all regressed on the latent outcome variable (i.e., negative affective response) using maximum likelihood estimation (see Figure 7 for the statistical diagram). The unstandardized and standardized regression weights were examined for each of the paths in the model to determine the contribution of the measures directly (see Table 8).

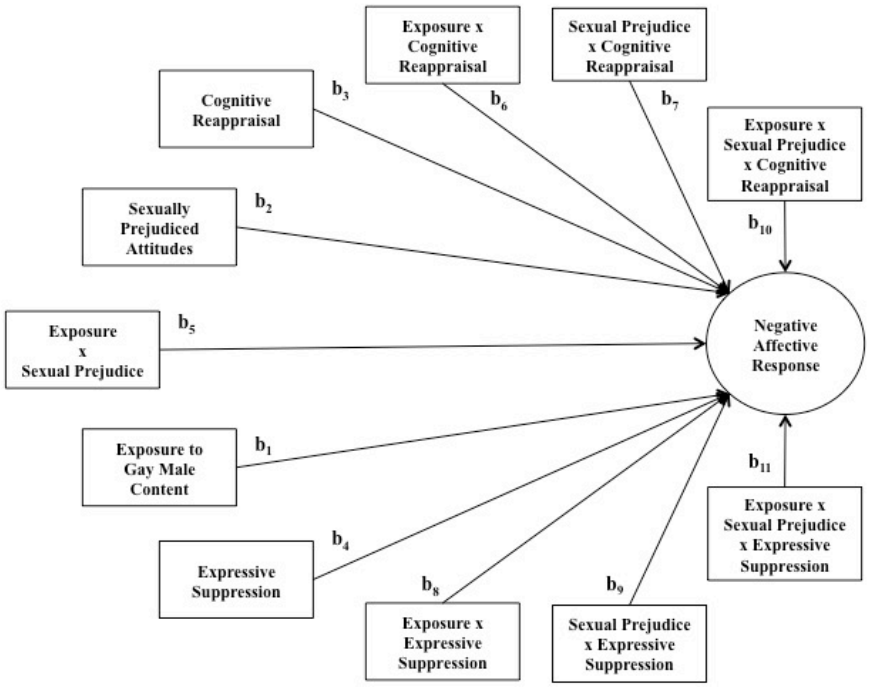

Figure 7. Statistical diagram for the moderated moderation model (i.e., three-way interaction model) in which the two indicators of emotion regulation (cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression) moderate the moderating effect of sexually prejudiced attitudes on the relationship between negative affective response (a latent variable with five manifest indicators) and exposure to gay male content.

Hypothesis 2a. It was hypothesized that participants exposed to video clips that featured gay male content would have a significantly greater negative affective response than participants who viewed the control video. An examination of the main effects revealed that there was not a significant relationship between video condition and negative affective response ($\beta = -0.05$, $p = 0.93$).

Hypothesis 2b. It was hypothesized that sexual prejudice would moderate the relationship between viewing videos featuring gay male content and a negative affective response, such that the association between viewing gay male content and having a negative affective response would be stronger in more homophobic individuals. Neither the main effect of homophobia on negative affective response ($\beta = 0.04$, $p = 0.41$) nor the interaction between video content and homophobia on negative affective response were significant ($\beta = 0.00$, $p = 0.93$).

Hypothesis 2c. It was hypothesized that the two emotion regulation processes (i.e., cognitive reappraisal and expressive suppression) would moderate the moderating effect of homophobia on the relationship between negative affective response and exposure to videos featuring gay male content. In other words, I hypothesized that there would be a three-way interaction between exposure to gay male content, homophobia, emotion regulation, and negative affective response, such that individuals who endorsed an elevated degree of homophobia and had poorer emotion regulation would demonstrate a more negative affective response than individuals who endorsed an elevated degree of homophobia but had better emotion regulation.

While the main effect of the expressive suppression subtype of emotion regulation on negative affective response was significant ($\beta = 0.38$, $p < 0.05$), the results found that participants who reported greater expressive suppression actually endorsed a more negative

Table 8

Model 2: Hierarchical Moderated Moderation Regression Analyses Predicting Negative Affective Response from Exposure to Gay Male Content, Sexually Prejudiced Attitudes, and Emotion Regulation

	Unstandardized Model Results			STDYX Standardized Model Results		
	Est. (β)	*SE*	*p*	Est. (β)	*SE*	*p*
Main Effects						
Exposure to Gay Male Content	-0.05	0.51	0.93	-0.01	0.05	0.93
Sexually Prejudiced Attitudes	0.04	0.05	0.41	0.19	0.23	0.40
Emotion Regulation						
Cognitive Reappraisal	-0.01	0.16	0.97	-0.01	0.22	0.97
Expressive Suppression	0.38	0.19	0.05	0.44	0.22	0.05
2-Way Interactions						
Exposure x Sexual Prejudice	0.00	0.03	0.93	0.02	0.22	0.93
Exposure x Emotion Regulation						
Exposure x Cognitive Reappraisal	-0.07	0.10	0.45	-0.17	0.23	0.45
Exposure x Expressive Suppression	-0.16	0.12	0.18	-0.30	0.22	0.17
Sexual Prejudice x Emotion Regulation						
Sexual Prejudice x Cognitive Reappraisal	-0.01	0.01	0.17	-0.37	0.25	0.15
Sexual Prejudice x Expressive Suppression	0.00	0.01	0.71	0.10	0.26	0.71
3-Way Interactions						
Exposure x Sexual Prejudice x Cognitive Reappraisal	0.00	0.01	0.43	0.21	0.26	0.42
Exposure x Sexual Prejudice x Expressive Suppression	-0.00	0.01	0.91	-0.03	0.25	0.91

affective response. However, the main effect of cognitive reappraisal on negative affective response was not significant ($\beta = -0.01$, $p = 0.97$). Furthermore, the interactions between video condition and emotion regulation (Cognitive Reappraisal: $\beta = -0.07$, $p = 0.45$; Expressive Suppression: $\beta = -0.16$, $p = 0.17$) as well as homophobia and emotion regulation (Cognitive Reappraisal: $\beta = -0.01$, $p = 0.18$; Expressive Suppression: $\beta = 0.00$, $p = 0.71$) on negative affective response were not significant. Finally, the three-way interaction between video condition, homophobia, and the two subtypes of emotion regulation were also not significant (Cognitive Reappraisal: $\beta = 0.00$, $p = 0.43$; Expressive Suppression: $\beta = -0.00$, $p = 0.91$).

Hypothesis 3

Hypothesis 3 was designed to evaluate if a more comprehensive, integrated model of sexual prejudice, which includes facets of both the personality and negative affective response models of sexual prejudice, would be able to represent a "state-trait" model of homophobia. Specifically, it was hypothesized that participants who were high on the personality facets RWA and/or SDO would endorse more sexually prejudiced attitudes than participants who are not high on either, particularly when participants viewed video clips featuring gay men versus the control video. It was further hypothesized that this greater endorsement of homophobia after viewing gay male content would be associated with a more negative affective response, particularly for participants who have poor emotion regulation.

As was the case with Model 2, this regression model was estimated using MPlus Version 7. First, the latent outcome variable (negative affective response) was specified. Second, the remaining variables were all identified and defined; prior to being entered into the regression analyses, the continuous predictor and moderator variables (i.e., homophobia, cognitive reappraisal, and expressive suppression) were mean centered to ensure that the coefficients for

the products of these variables would be more readily interpretable (Hayes, Glynn, & Huge, 2012). Third, the 2-way interaction terms (i.e., personality category x video condition; video condition x homophobia; video condition x cognitive reappraisal; video condition x expressive suppression; homophobia x cognitive reappraisal; homophobia x expressive suppression) and the 3-way interaction terms (i.e., video condition x homophobia x cognitive reappraisal; video condition x homophobia x expressive suppression) were defined. Finally, the regression models (i.e., personality category on homophobia; video condition on homophobia; personality category x video condition on homophobia; video condition on negative affective response; homophobia on negative affective response; cognitive reappraisal on negative affective response; expressive suppression on negative affective response; homophobia x video condition on negative affective response; video condition x cognitive reappraisal on negative affective response; video condition x expressive suppression on negative affective response; homophobia x cognitive reappraisal on negative affective response; homophobia x expressive suppression on negative affective response; video condition x homophobia x cognitive reappraisal on negative affective response; and video condition x homophobia x expressive suppression on negative affective response) were specified using maximum likelihood estimation (see Figure 8 for the statistical diagram).

The unstandardized and standardized regression weights were examined for each of the paths in the model to determine the contribution of the measures directly (see Table 9). There main effects of personality category ($\beta = 9.65$, $p < 0.00$) and video condition ($\beta = -5.52$, $p < 0.05$) on homophobia were significant. In addition, there was a significant main effect of expressive suppression (a subtype of emotion regulation) on negative affective response ($\beta = 0.38$, $p < 0.05$). However, none of the other relationships in this model were significant.

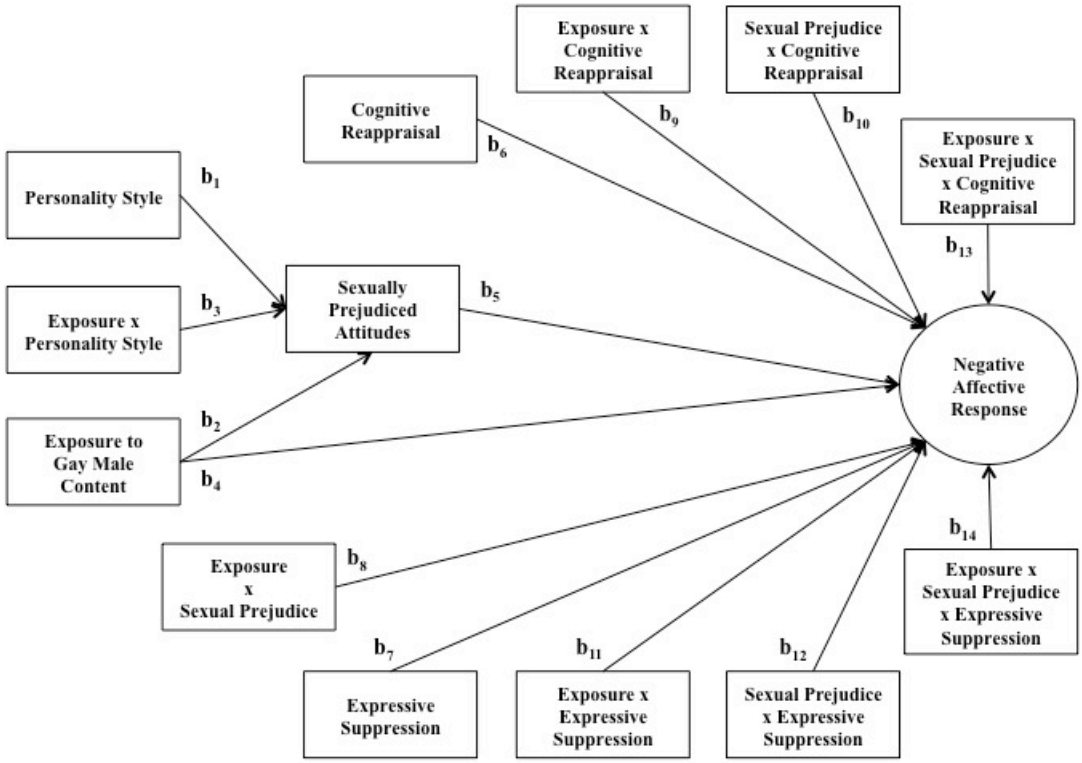

Figure 8. Statistical diagram for the "state-trait" model of homophobia, an integrated model of sexual prejudice that includes facets of both the personality and negative affective response models of sexual prejudice.

Comparison of Model Goodness of Fit

The regression paths specified from the additional predictors (i.e., personality category, video condition) that were included in the structural model for Hypothesis 3 were significant. However, this more comprehensive, integrated model of sexual prejudice that included facets of both the personality and negative affective response models of sexual prejudice did not offer a better fit for the data. Specifically, while the goodness of fit indicators for Model 2 were generally acceptable ($\chi^2_{(49)} = 188.29$, $p < 0.001$; RMSEA = 0.09; CFI = 0.91; TLI = 0.88; SRMR = 0.04), the goodness of fit indicators for Model 3 were universally poor ($\chi^2_{(68)} = 1079.31$, $p < 0.001$; RMSEA = 0.21; CFI = 0.59; TLI = 0.48; SRMR = 0.06; see Table 10 for additional

indicators of model fit). Furthermore, when the Akaike information criterion (AIC) and the Bayesian information criterion (BIC) were compared for Model 2 (the negative affective response model) and Model 3 (the integrated state-trait model), both the AIC and BIC values were lower for Model 2 (AIC = 8789.42; BIC = 8889.73) than for Model 3 (AIC = 11816.57; BIC = 11936.17), indicating that Model 2 was a better balance of model fit and parsimony.

Table 9
Model 3: Latent Variable Regression Model for the "State-Trait" Model of Homophobia

	Unstandardized Model Results			STDYX Standardized Model Results		
	Est. (β)	*SE*	*p*	Est. (β)	*SE*	*p*
Main Effects						
Sexual Prejudice on Personality Category	9.65	2.97	0.00	0.54	0.16	0.00
Sexual Prejudice on Exposure to Gay Male Content	-5.52	2.53	0.03	-0.12	0.05	0.03
NAR on Exposure to Gay Male Content	-0.05	0.51	0.93	-0.01	0.05	0.92
NAR on Sexual Prejudice	0.04	0.05	0.41	0.19	0.21	0.35
NAR on Emotion Regulation						
NAR on Cognitive Reappraisal	-0.01	0.16	0.97	-0.01	0.21	0.97
NAR on Expressive Suppression	0.38	0.19	0.05	0.44	0.22	0.04
2-Way Interactions						
Sexual Prejudice on Personality x Exposure	0.38	1.69	0.82	0.04	0.16	0.82
NAR on Exposure x Sexual Prejudice	0.00	0.03	0.93	0.02	0.20	0.92
NAR on Exposure x Emotion Regulation						
NAR on Exposure x Cognitive Reappraisal	-0.07	0.10	0.45	-0.17	0.22	0.44
NAR on Exposure x Expressive Suppression	-0.16	0.12	0.18	-0.30	0.21	0.16
NAR on Sexual Prejudice x Emotion Regulation						
NAR on Sexual Prejudice x Cognitive Reappraisal	-0.01	0.01	0.17	-0.37	0.24	0.13
NAR on Sexual Prejudice x Expressive Suppression	0.00	0.01	0.71	0.10	0.26	0.70
3-Way Interactions						
NAR on Exposure x Sexual Prejudice x Cognitive Reappraisal	0.00	0.01	0.43	0.21	0.25	0.40
NAR on Exposure x Sexual Prejudice x Expressive Suppression	-0.00	0.01	0.91	-0.03	0.24	0.91

Note. NAR = Negative Affective Response.

Table 10
Goodness of Fit Indicators for Model 2 and Model 3

	χ^2 (df)	RMSEA (90% C.I.)	AIC	BIC	CFI	TLI	SRMR
Model 2	188.29*** (49)	0.09 (0.08-0.10)	8789.42	8889.73	0.91	0.88	0.04
Model 3	1079.31*** (68)	0.21 (0.20-0.22)	11816.57	11936.17	0.59	0.48	0.06

Note. RMSEA = Root Mean Square Error of Approximation; AIC = Akaike Information Criterion; BIC = Bayesian Information Criterion; CFI = Comparative Fit Index; TLI = Tucker-Lewis Index; SRMR = Standardized Root Mean Square Residual.
*$p < .05$. ** $p < .01$. ***$p < .001$.

CHAPTER 9

DISCUSSION

The current study was designed to extend the extant literature on sexual prejudice by concurrently assessing factors associated with two of the most prominent models of sexual prejudice: the personality model of homophobia and the negative affective response model of homophobia. Because sexual prejudice can have negative implications for both sexual minority individuals and those who hold these prejudiced attitudes, it is imperative that research identifies which factors contribute to stigma, prejudiced attitudes, and discrimination against sexual minority individuals. This study had three primary objectives: 1) to examine the personality model of homophobia by exploring the relationship between RWA, SDO, and the endorsement of sexually prejudiced attitudes; 2) to examine the negative affective response model of homophobia by investigating the relationship between exposure to video clips featuring gay men, sexual prejudice, emotion regulation, and negative affective responses; and 3) to examine whether an integrated state-trait model of sexual prejudice was better able to explain why certain individuals have a strong, negative affective reaction when exposed to gay male video stimuli.

In accordance with extant literature (Altemeyer, 2002; Childs, 2011; Keiller, 2010; Whitley & Ægisdóttir, 2000), the current study found that individuals who were in the upper tertile for RWA endorsed greater levels of sexual prejudice. Furthermore, the current study also determined that "double high" participants (i.e., those individuals in the upper tertile for both RWA and SDO) also endorsed significantly more sexually prejudiced attitudes than did participants who were not in the upper tertile for RWA or SDO. While the majority of previous research has focused on the relationship between sexual prejudice and RWA and/or SDO alone,

studies that have specifically accounted for "double high" individuals have uncovered comparable results to the current study (Altemeyer, 2004; Sibley et al., 2006).

However, the current study notably differed from previous research (Goodman & Moradi, 2008; Whitley & Lee, 2000) in that participants whose scores were in the upper tertile on only the SDO scale did not endorse significantly greater levels of sexual prejudice. Consequently, the significant relationship between "double high" participants and sexual prejudice may indicate that being in the upper tertile for SDO alone is not sufficient to predict sexually prejudiced attitudes. The landscape for LGB rights has been rapidly changing in recent years (McCormack & Anderson, 2014). With the Supreme Court now requiring states to recognize and license marriages for same-sex couples (*Obergefell v. Hodges*, 2015) and recent legal decisions against businesses that violate anti-discrimination laws on the basis of sincerely held religious beliefs (American Civil Liberties Union, 2017), it is possible that the inequalities and the desire to preserve these inequalities is no longer enough to predict homophobia except when a person is also sexually prejudiced on the basis of their religious or moral beliefs (Bahns & Crandall, 2013).

Recent research has found that RWA and SDO predict different "moral signatures" (Milojev et al., 2014); specifically, while RWA was associated with a *High Moralist* signature (one in which the five moral foundations – harm, fairness, ingroup, authority, and purity – are all highly valued), SDO was associated with a "Neutral" moral signature where the five moral foundations are all held uniformly low. Thus, if there has been a pervasive cultural shift towards supporting equal rights for LGB individuals, SDO alone may no longer be strongly related to sexual prejudice unless the High Moralist values associated with RWA are also present. It will be interesting to observe if any trend emerges in studies that collected data more recently,

because without additional data it is impossible to determine whether the findings of the current study are indicative of a systemic change in the nature of sexual prejudice or merely an anomaly specific to this sample.

This study further hypothesized that the content of the video (i.e., gay male or control) would moderate the relationship between the personality facets RWA and SDO and greater endorsement of sexually prejudiced beliefs, but this hypothesis was not supported. RWA and SDO are generally conceptualized to be individual-level personality factors, and therefore it is possible that situational factors (e.g., watching a brief news story featuring gay men) may not be powerful enough to affect the relationship between RWA, SDO, and sexually prejudiced attitudes. However, research has found that for individuals high on RWA, even seemingly minor alterations to wording (e.g., "homosexuals" versus "gay men and lesbians"; Rios, 2013) or how a political message is framed (e.g., framing same-sex marriage in terms of individual liberty versus social equality; Crawford, Brady, Pilanski, & Erny, 2013) was associated with increased sexual prejudice. It is also possible that because the videos used in this study were taken from mainstream news sources, they may have not been provocative enough to produce a more homophobic response. Specifically, while the news stories discussed the relationships between the individuals in the video, they were very careful to not use any potentially controversial images (e.g., two men kissing or being physically affectionate). Thus, the videos may have been too tame to elicit much of a response even from individuals who endorsed more homophobic beliefs; without using more scandalous content in the video clips (e.g., gay male pornography), the video manipulation simply may not have been strong enough to impact the relationship between personality factors and sexually prejudiced attitudes.

This study also examined whether or not exposure to videos that feature gay male content was associated with a more negative affective response, and whether the relationship between viewing video clips featuring gay men and a negative affective response was modified by homophobia. Specifically, the present study hypothesized that exposure to video clips featuring gay men would be associated with negative affective response, particularly among participants who endorsed more sexually prejudiced beliefs. However, this hypothesis was not supported: neither the relationship between viewing videos with gay male content and having a negative affective response nor the interaction between exposure to gay male content, homophobia, and negative affective response were significant. While some studies have found that exposure to video clips featuring gay men was able to successfully incite a negative affective state (e.g., fear/anxiety, anger/aggression, disgust), these studies have commonly used extremely provocative sexual stimuli (e.g., male-on-male erotica; Parrott & Zeichner, 2008; Shields & Harriman, 1984; Zeichner & Reidy, 2009). Conversely, the present study utilized stimuli drawn from mainstream news media to examine whether similar results could be evoked using imagery that one is more likely to encounter in daily life.

Regardless of the persistence of the term *homophobia* in popular culture, a great deal of the extant literature in this field has proposed that it is an erroneous way to describe sexual prejudice (Herek, 2015). While the empirical findings on the relationship between exposure to gay-male stimuli and a phobic-like reaction have generally been mixed (Mahaffey et al., 2005a; Mahaffey et al., 2005b; Mahaffey et al., 2011; Shields & Harriman, 1984; Zeichner & Reidy, 2009), there has been consistent evidence that sexual prejudice may be associated with increased anxiety and negative affect (Bernat et al., 2001; Hudson & Ricketts, 1980; Mahaffey et al., 2005a; Mahaffey et al., 2005b; Mahaffey et al., 2011; Shields & Harriman, 1984; Zeichner &

Reidy, 2009). Accordingly, although it may be an exaggeration to suggest that the majority of sexually prejudiced individuals would actually meet the diagnostic criteria for a Specific Phobia of gay people consistent with the *Diagnostic and Statistical Manual of Mental Disorders* (5th ed.; *DSM-5*; American Psychiatric Association, 2013), there is consistently an element of anxiety, discomfort, and distress associated with sexual prejudice.

Furthermore, case studies have been able to identify a small subset of sexually prejudiced individuals who appear to actually experience a true phobic response to sexual minorities. These case studies have examined individuals whose surface-level sexual prejudice is actually driven by an obsession or paranoia with the concern that they may experience unwanted same-gender sexual attraction (Bhatia & Kaur, 2015; Murphy, 2006; Williams, 2008; Williams, Crozier, & Powers, 2011; Williams, Wetterneck, Tellawi, & Duque, 2015). Thus, in the same way that numerous people designate their fear of spiders as *arachnophobia* although only a small proportion of those individuals would actually meet the *DSM-5* diagnostic criteria for a Specific Phobia of spiders, a similar pattern may occur with homophobia. Consequently, the persistence of labeling sexual prejudice as *homophobia* may be due in part to the societal tendency to apply overtly pathological labels to behaviors that only minimally resembles a psychological disorder (e.g., classifying a preference for one's possessions to be organized in a specific way as "OCD" when the behavior is only marginally similar to the *DSM-5* diagnostic criteria for Obsessive-Compulsive Disorder).

There was a significant main effect of expressive suppression, which is one of the subtypes of emotion regulation, on negative affective response. However, the results indicated that participants who reported greater expressive suppression actually endorsed a more negative affective response. Emotion regulation has often been conceptualized within a dual-process

framework in which both explicit and implicit forms of emotion regulation can be simultaneously engaged to help manage unwanted or undesirable emotions (Gyurak, Gross, & Etkin, 2011). Because the affective states measured in this study were largely negative, one would expect that individuals who are skilled at regulating emotions would either implicitly or explicitly utilize these skills to decrease negative affect. Furthermore, studies have found that instructing participants to label an affective state can have the unintentional consequence of lowering activation in the limbic system (Lieberman, Eisenberger, Crockett, Tom, Pfeifer, & Way, 2007). In this study, the participants were asked to complete the questionnaires about their current emotional state shortly after being exposed to the video stimulus; it is therefore possible that by using self-report measures of affective states (as opposed to direct psychophysiological measures), participants who had strong emotion regulation abilities were unintentionally able to reduce their negative affect merely through the act of being asked to pay attention to what they were feeling.

Finally, this study examined whether a "state-trait" model of sexual prejudice that integrated elements from both the personality and negative affective response models of homophobia was better able to predict which individuals are most likely to endorse anti-gay attitudes and how these individuals will react when confronted with LGB-related stimuli. In other words, although these two models of sexual prejudice are often portrayed as conflicting or contradictory models in the extant literature (Herek, 2015), the current study explored whether or not they might have a complementary relationship. However, despite the relationship between personality and sexual prejudice being significant in the integrated state-trait model, the simplified model that did not include the categorical personality variable as a predictor was a stronger fit for the data while being more parsimonious, and as such, this model was retained.

Limitations and Future Directions

Some of the more notable limitations of the current study are related to the stimulus videos. For instance, given that this study was unable to find a significant relationship between the content of the video and a negative affective response, it is possible that the decision to use segments from mainstream television news programs resulted in stimulus videos that were not provocative enough to incite the negative affective states observed in previous studies that utilized gay male pornography. It will therefore be important to replicate this study with a stronger induction that is still less provocative than using pornography. In particular, future studies could script several vignettes and record them with professional actors to create carefully crafted stimulus videos, which would allow the researcher to explicitly match the content of the video to the specific aspects of RWA and SDO that have been associated with sexual prejudice in previous research. The ability to tailor the stimulus materials would be particularly useful because research that examined the relationship between RWA, SDO, and evaluations of news articles indicated that the unique ideologies that differentiate these two groups (e.g., perceptions of threat toward social stability versus threat toward social advantage) predicted different interpretations of veracity and author bias in the articles when the content matched their ideological beliefs (Crawford et al., 2013).

An additional limitation of the current study was the inclusion of only White, American, gay men in the stimulus videos. The majority of the extant literature has focused exclusively on attitudes towards gay men, largely because attitudes towards gay men tend to be more negative than attitudes towards lesbians (Herek, 2000b). Consistent with this, stimulus videos in similar studies have also solely focused on White, American, gay men; thus, using videos featuring only White, American, gay men in this study was intentional for the purpose of allowing direct

comparisons of the current findings with those of the extant literature. Although this allowed for more scientific rigor by minimizing the influence of potential confounding variables, the opportunity to broaden the research to more diverse populations is lost. Future research should extend this work by featuring a diverse assortment of individuals as the potential targets of sexual prejudice in the stimulus videos to examine the variability in participants' reactions. For example, both RWA and SDO have been associated with prejudice toward a number of outgroups (Kugler et al., 2010; Laythe et al., 2001; Sidanius & Pratto, 2001). Intersectionality is a theory that examines how multiple social identities (e.g., race, gender, sexual identity) intersect to shape an individual's experience of the world (Bowleg, 2012); research on intersectionality finds that when these multiple marginalized identities intersect with one another, it often leads to social and structural inequalities that exceed those of individual's with only a single marginalized identity (Icard, 1996). Consequently, because ethnic minority gay men represent a doubly marginalized group, they may provoke an even more negative reaction from others, particularly among high SDO individuals. Similarly, RWA and SDO are associated with a strong belief in traditional gender roles; like gay men, lesbians violate traditional gender roles as a direct consequence of their relationships, and therefore future studies investigating whether these personality factors are also related to sexual prejudice toward lesbians may prove illuminating.

It will also be important for future studies to determine if the relationship between RWA, SDO, and sexual prejudice may be changing over time. In this study (and in the pilot study in particular), it was very difficult to separate the "pure" RWA/SDO participants from the double highs. In addition, research is continuing to find increased acceptance for homosexuality in general and legal rights for the LGB community in particular. As the LGB community continues

to advance in the social hierarchy, one might anticipate that the relationship between SDO and sexual prejudice may fundamentally change. These social changes over time may warrant longitudinal or cohort studies to explicitly examine if the relationship between RWA and SDO is fundamentally changing with regard to sexual prejudice and, if so, what the potential long-term implications of these changes could be.

An additional limitation of the current study is its reliance on self-report measures of emotional states. While self-report measures are extremely common in social science literature, there are varied reports about how accurately people are able to report their own emotions. Furthermore, self-reported emotions can be influenced by other variables such as social desirability and may be edited or downplayed. The current study explicitly considered the influence of social desirability, but because the social climate has gradually become more accepting of LGB individuals, it is possible that the participants were reluctant to report any negative emotions in response to material featuring gay men. In the future, studies that incorporate other measures of attitudes (such as the Implicit Association Task) or emotion (EEG research) could better capture participant's emotional response to the stimulus material.

Conclusion

In summary, the results of the current study did not support the integrated, state-trait model of sexual prejudice, which incorporated elements from both the personality model of homophobia and the negative affective response model of homophobia. Results indicated that compared to the integrated model, the simplified model in which the categorical personality variable was excluded was better able to describe the data while remaining parsimonious. This study offered additional support for the personality model of homophobia, as individuals who were high on both RWA and SDO ("double high") or were high on RWA alone endorsed greater

levels of sexual prejudice than those low on both RWA and SDO. However, contrary to previous research, the relationship between sexual prejudice and high SDO alone was not significant; future research should investigate whether the changing landscape for LGB equality has rendered SDO insufficient to predict sexually prejudiced attitudes on its own. While the current study was unable to replicate previous research findings on the negative affective response model of homophobia, there was a significant main effect of one subtype of emotion regulation, expressive suppression, on negative affective response. Future research should investigate the potential role of emotion regulation in altering the intensity, duration, or quality of negative emotional states related to sexual prejudice.

Because sexual prejudice can have negative implications for both sexual minority individuals and those who hold these prejudiced attitudes, it will be important for future research to continue exploring the factors that contribute to stigma, prejudiced attitudes, and discrimination against sexual minority individuals. One of the strengths of the current study was its exploration of the relationship between the personality model of homophobia and the negative affective response model of homophobia concurrently in the same sample. Furthermore, this study offers an additional unique contribution to the research literature by expanding upon past research on the personality model of homophobia by explicitly accounting for double highs while exploring the relationships between RWA, SDO, and sexually prejudiced attitudes.

APPENDIX

RIGHT-WING AUTHORITARIANISM (RWA) SCALE

This survey is part of an investigation of general public opinion concerning a variety of social issues. You will probably find that you *agree* with some of the statements, and *disagree* with others, to varying extents. Please indicate your reaction to each statement according to the following scale:

Very strongly disagree	Strongly disagree	Moderately disagree	Slightly disagree	Neutral	Slightly agree	Moderately agree	Strongly agree	Very strongly agree
- 4	- 3	- 2	- 1	0	+ 1	+ 2	+ 3	+ 4

1. Life imprisonment is justified for certain crimes.
2. Women should have to promise to obey their husbands when they get married.
3. The established authorities in our country are usually smarter, better informed, and more competent than others are, and the people can rely upon them.
4. It is important to protect the rights of radicals and deviants in all ways.
5. Our country desperately needs a mighty leader who will do what has to be done to destroy the radical new ways and sinfulness that are ruining us.
6. Gays and lesbians are just as healthy and moral as anybody else. *
7. Our country will be great if we honor the ways of our forefathers, do what the authorities tell us to do, and get rid of the "rotten apples" who are ruining everything.
8. Atheists and others who have rebelled against the established religions are no doubt every bit as good and virtuous as those who attend church regularly.
9. The *real* keys to the "good life" are obedience, discipline, and sticking to the straight and narrow.
10. A lot of our rules regarding modesty and sexual behavior are just customs which are not necessarily any better or holier than those which other people follow. *
11. There are many radical, immoral people in our country today, who are trying to ruin it for their own godless purposes, whom the authorities should put out of action.
12. It is always better to trust the judgment of the proper authorities in government and religion than to listen to the noisy rabble-rousers in our society who are trying to create doubt in people's minds.
13. There is absolutely nothing wrong with nudist camps. *
14. There is no "ONE right way" to live life; everybody has to create their *own* way. *
15. Our country will be destroyed someday if we do not smash the perversions eating away at our moral fiber and traditional beliefs.
16. Homosexuals and feminists should be praised for being brave enough to defy "traditional family values." *
17. The situation in our country is getting so serious, the strongest methods would be justified if they eliminated the troublemakers and got us back to our true path.
18. It may be considered old fashioned by some, but having a normal, proper appearance is still the mark of a gentleman and, especially, a lady.
19. Everyone should have their own lifestyle, religious beliefs, and sexual preferences, even it makes them different from everyone else. *

20. A “woman’s place" should be wherever she wants to be. The days when women are submissive to their husbands and social conventions belong strictly in the past. *
21. What our country really needs is a strong, determined leader who will crush evil, and take us back to our true path.
22. People should pay less attention to the Bible and the other old traditional forms of religious guidance, and instead develop their own personal standards of what is moral and immoral. *
23. The only way our country can get through the crisis ahead is to get back to our traditional values, put some tough leaders in power, and silence the troublemakers spreading bad ideas.
24. Our country *needs* free thinkers who will have the courage to defy traditional ways, even if this upsets many people. *
25. There is nothing wrong with premarital sexual intercourse. *
26. It would be best for everyone if the proper authorities censored magazines so that people could not get their hands on trashy and disgusting material.
27. It is wonderful that young people today have greater freedom to protest against things they don’t like, and to make their own "rules" to govern their behavior. *
28. What our country *really* needs, instead of more "civil rights"' is a good stiff dose of law and order.
29. Some of the best people in our country are those who are challenging our government, criticizing religion, and ignoring the "normal way" things are supposed to be done. *
30. Obedience and respect for authority are the most important virtues children should learn.
31. Nobody should “stick to the straight and narrow.” Instead, people should break loose and try out lots of different ideas and experiences. *
32. Once our government leaders give us the "go ahead," it will be the duty of every patriotic citizen to help stomp out the rot that is poisoning our country from within.
33. We should treat protestors and radicals with open arms and open minds, since new ideas are the lifeblood of progressive change. *
34. The facts on crime, sexual immorality, and the recent public disorders all show we have to crack down harder on deviant groups and troublemakers if we are going to save our moral standards and preserve law and order.

Altemeyer, B. (1996). *The authoritarian specter*. Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

SOCIAL DOMINANCE ORIENTATION (SDO) SCALE

Strongly disagree						Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

1. Some groups of people are simply inferior to other groups.
2. In getting what you want, it is sometimes necessary to use force against other groups.
3. It's OK if some groups have more of a chance in life than others.
4. To get ahead in life, it is sometimes necessary to step on other groups.
5. If certain groups stayed in their place, we would have fewer problems.
6. It's probably a good thing that certain groups are at the top and other groups are at the bottom.
7. Inferior groups should stay in their place.
8. Sometimes other groups must be kept in their place.
9. It would be good if groups could be equal. *
10. Group equality should be our ideal. *
11. All groups should be given an equal chance in life. *
12. We should do what we can to equalize conditions for different groups. *
13. Increased social equality is beneficial to society. *
14. We would have fewer problems if we treated people more equally. *
15. We should strive to make incomes as equal as possible. *
16. No group should dominate in society. *

Pratto, F., Sidanius, J., Stallworth, L. M., & Malle, B. F. (1994). Social dominance orientation: A personality variable predicting social and political attitudes. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 67(4),* 741-763.

SEXUALLY PREJUDICED ATTITUDES
(HOMOPHOBIA)

Below you will find a series of statements. Please indicate the degree to which you agree or disagree with each statement by selecting the number that best describes your response. Please respond to each item.

Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neither agree nor disagree	Agree	Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5

1. If I had a child, I would object to having a gay man as my child's teacher.
2. I would rather live next door to a heterosexual couple than a gay male couple.
3. I prefer not being confronted with homosexuality.
4. Gay male couples should have the same rights as heterosexual couples regarding the adoption of children. *
5. Nowadays, gay men have too many rights.
6. Male homosexuality is a perversion.
7. Gay men should be free to live their lives as they wish. *
8. Gay men make me nervous.
9. Gay men deserve what they get.
10. If I discovered a friend was gay I would end the friendship.
11. I make derogatory remarks like "faggot" or "queer" about gay men.
12. Homosexuality is immoral.
13. I tease and make jokes about gay people.
14. Organizations that promote gay rights are necessary. *
15. I would feel comfortable having a gay male roommate. *
16. Homosexual behavior should not be against the law. *
17. I avoid gay individuals.
18. I think gay men are disgusting.
19. Male homosexuality is a natural expression of sexuality in men. *
20. Sex between two men is just plain wrong.
21. Male homosexuality is merely a different kind of lifestyle that should not be condemned. *
22. I would feel comfortable working closely with a gay man. *
23. I would feel comfortable knowing that my clergyman was gay. *
24. I would feel that I had failed as a parent if I learned that my child was gay.
25. If I saw two men holding hands in public, I would feel disgusted.
26. The idea of gay marriage seems ridiculous to me.
27. I would feel angry if a member of my sex made a sexual advance toward me.
28. I would feel uncomfortable if a member of my sex made an advance toward me.
29. If a member of my sex made an advance toward me I would be offended.
30. I would like to have friends of my sex who were gay. *

Includes items from:

Adolfsen, A., Iedema, J., & Keuzenkamp, S. (2010). Multiple dimensions of attitudes about homosexuality: Development of a multifaceted scale measuring attitudes toward homosexuality. *Journal of Homosexuality, 57*(10), 1237-1257.

Herek, G. M. (1988). Heterosexuals' attitudes toward lesbians and gay men: Correlates and gender differences. *Journal of Sex Research, 25(4),* 451-477.

Hudson, W. W., & Ricketts, W. A. (1980). A strategy for the measurement of homophobia. *Journal of Homosexuality, 5(4),* 357-372.

Wright Jr., L. W., Adams, H. E., & Bernat, J. (1999). Development and validation of the homophobia scale. *Journal of Psychopathology and Behavioral Assessment, 21(4),* 337-347.

STATE–TRAIT INVENTORY FOR COGNITIVE AND SOMATIC ANXIETY (STICSA)

STICSA: Your Mood at This Moment

Below is a list of statements which can be used to describe how people feel. Beside each statement are four numbers which indicate the degree with which each statement is self-descriptive of mood at this moment (e.g., 1 = not at all, 4 = very much so). Please read each statement carefully and circle the number which best indicates how you feel right now, at this very moment, even if this is not how you usually feel.

Not at all	A little	Moderately	Very much so
1	2	3	4

1. My heart beats fast.
2. My muscles are tense.
3. I feel agonized over my problems.
4. I think that others won't approve of me.
5. I feel like I'm missing out on things because I can't make up my mind soon enough.
6. I feel dizzy.
7. My muscles feel weak.
8. I feel trembly and shaky.
9. I picture some future misfortune.
10. I can't get some thought out of my mind.
11. I have trouble remembering things.
12. My face feels hot.
13. I think that the worst will happen.
14. My arms and legs feel stiff.
15. My throat feels dry.
16. I keep busy to avoid uncomfortable thoughts.
17. I cannot concentrate without irrelevant thoughts intruding.
18. My breathing is fast and shallow.
19. I worry that I cannot control my thoughts as well as I would like to.
20. I have butterflies in the stomach.
21. My palms feel clammy.

STICSA: Your General Mood State

Below is a list of statements which can be used to describe how people feel. Beside each statement are four numbers which indicate the degree with which each statement is self-descriptive of mood at this moment (e.g., 1 = not at all, 4 = very much so). Please read each statement carefully and circle the number which best indicates how often, in general, the statement is true of you.

Not at all	A little	Moderately	Very much so
1	2	3	4

1. My heart beats fast.
2. My muscles are tense.
3. I feel agonized over my problems.
4. I think that others won't approve of me.
5. I feel like I'm missing out on things because I can't make up my mind soon enough.
6. I feel dizzy.
7. My muscles feel weak.
8. I feel trembly and shaky.
9. I picture some future misfortune.
10. I can't get some thought out of my mind.
11. I have trouble remembering things.
12. My face feels hot.
13. I think that the worst will happen.
14. My arms and legs feel stiff.
15. My throat feels dry.
16. I keep busy to avoid uncomfortable thoughts.
17. I cannot concentrate without irrelevant thoughts intruding.
18. My breathing is fast and shallow.
19. I worry that I cannot control my thoughts as well as I would like to.
20. I have butterflies in the stomach.
21. My palms feel clammy.

Ree, M. J., French, D., MacLeod, C., & Locke, V. (2008). Distinguishing cognitive and somatic dimensions of state and trait anxiety: Development and validation of the State-Trait Inventory for Cognitive and Somatic Anxiety (STICSA). *Behavioural and Cognitive Psychotherapy, 36(3),* 313-332.

THE POSITIVE AND NEGATIVE AFFECT SCHEDULE - EXPANDED FORM (PANAS-X)

This scale consists of a number of words and phrases that describe different feelings and emotions. Read each item and then mark the appropriate answer in the space next to that word. Indicate to what extent you feel this way right now (that is, at the present moment). Use the following scale to record your answers:

Very slightly or not at all	A little	Moderately	Quite a bit	Extremely
1	2	3	4	5

cheerful	sad	active	angry at self
disgusted	calm	guilty	enthusiastic
attentive	afraid	joyful	downhearted
bashful	tired	nervous	sheepish
sluggish	amazed	lonely	distressed
daring	shaky	sleepy	blameworthy
surprised	happy	excited	determined
strong	timid	hostile	frightened
scornful	alone	proud	astonished
relaxed	alert	jittery	interested
irritable	upset	lively	loathing
delighted	angry	ashamed	confident
inspired	bold	at ease	energetic
fearless	blue	scared	concentrating
disgusted with self	shy	drowsy	dissatisfied with self

Watson, D., & Clark, L. A. (1999). The PANAS-X: Manual for the positive and negative affect schedule-expanded form.

EMOTION REGULATION QUESTIONNAIRE (ERQ)

We would like to ask you some questions about your emotional life, in particular, how you control (that is, regulate and manage) your emotions. The questions below involve two distinct aspects of your emotional life. One is your emotional experience, or what you feel like inside. The other is your emotional expression, or how you show your emotions in the way you talk, gesture, or behave. Although some of the following questions may seem similar to one another, they differ in important ways. For each item, please answer using the following scale:

Strongly disagree			Neutral			Strongly agree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

1. When I want to feel more positive emotion (such as joy or amusement), I change what I'm thinking about.
2. I keep my emotions to myself.
3. When I want to feel less negative emotion (such as sadness or anger), I change what I'm thinking about.
4. When I am feeling positive emotions, I am careful not to express them.
5. When I'm faced with a stressful situation, I make myself think about it in a way that helps me stay calm.
6. I control my emotions by not expressing them.
7. When I want to feel more positive emotion, I change the way I'm thinking about the situation.
8. I control my emotions by changing the way I think about the situation I'm in.
9. When I am feeling negative emotions, I make sure not to express them.
10. When I want to feel less negative emotion, I change the way I'm thinking about the situation.

Gross, J.J., & John, O.P. (2003). Individual differences in two emotion regulation processes: Implications for affect, relationships, and well-being. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 85,* 348-362.

SOCIAL DESIRABILITY SCALE (SDS) – SHORT FORM

Listed below are a number of statements concerning personal attitudes and traits. Read each item and indicate the extent to which you agree or disagree with each statement.

True	False
1	0

1. I like to gossip at times. *
2. There have been occasions when I took advantage of someone. *
3. I'm always willing to admit it when I make a mistake.
4. I always try to practice what I preach.
5. I sometimes try to get even rather than forgive and forget. *
6. At times I have really insisted on having things my own way. *
7. There have been occasions when I felt like smashing things. *
8. I never resent being asked to return a favor.
9. I have never been irked when people expressed ideas very different from my own.
10. I have never deliberately said something that hurt someone's feelings.

Strahan, R., & Gerbasi, K. C. (1972). Short, homogeneous versions of the Marlow-Crowne Social Desirability Scale. *Journal of Clinical Psychology, 28(2),* 191-193.

GENDER ROLE BELIEFS SCALE (GRBS)

Strongly agree			Undecided			Strongly disagree
1	2	3	4	5	6	7

1. It is disrespectful for a man to swear in the presence of a lady.
2. Women should not expect men to offer them seats on buses. *
3. Homosexual relationships should be as socially accepted as heterosexual relationships. *
4. The initiative in courtship should usually come from the man.
5. It bothers me more to see a woman who is pushy than a man who is pushy.
6. When sitting down at the table, proper respect demands that the gentleman hold the lady's chair.
7. Women should have as much sexual freedom as men. *
8. Women should appreciate the protection and support that men have traditionally given them.
9. Women with children should not work outside the home if they don't have to financially.
10. I see nothing wrong with a woman who doesn't like to wear skirts or dresses. *
11. The husband should be regarded as the legal representative of the family group in all matters of law.
12. I like women who are outspoken. *
13. Except perhaps in very special circumstances, a gentleman should never allow a lady to pay the taxi, buy the tickets, or pay the check.
14. Some equality in marriage is good, but by and large the husband ought to have the main say-so in family matters.
15. Men should continue to show courtesies to women such as holding open the door or helping them on with their coats.
16. It is ridiculous for a woman to run a locomotive and for a man to darn socks.
17. A woman should be as free as a man to propose marriage. *
18. Women should be concerned with their duties of childrearing and housetending, rather than with desires for professional and business careers.
19. Swearing and obscenity is more repulsive in the speech of a woman than a man.
20. There are some professions and types of businesses that are more suitable for men than women.

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