# The Contribution of Male Allyship to the Struggle for Gender Equity in the Workplace: A Study in Experimental Sociology

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**Abstract**

While the legal grounds for workplace discrimination in Canada and many other Western capitalist nations have been eliminated, there is still substantial evidence of gender inequality in many workplaces. Whether conscious or unconscious, practices in work settings often create unwelcoming or exclusionary environments for women. This thesis examines the impact of male allyship as a means to mitigate sexism and motivate others to respond to instances of gender bias in the workplace. Specifically, it seeks to determine if acts of allyship by a male colleague of female employees influence the behaviour of other male colleagues in a work setting.

Using a vignette study, participants were asked to imagine starting at a new workplace where they were required to attend an orientation. During the orientation, an existing employee told a story about why they enjoyed working at the company. The gender and extent to which the existing employee shared a story involving an act of allyship against sexism were manipulated. Participants were then asked to imagine being employed at the company for several months. Participants were then exposed to an instance of gender bias and were asked how they would respond. It was hypothesized that participants who were exposed to a male employee who demonstrated an act of allyship against sexism would be more likely to report that they would be comfortable responding to an instance of sexism in an active or confrontational manner. It was also hypothesized that this trend would be most evident amongst male participants. Statistical analysis found participants exposed to a prior instance of allyship during the orientation were significantly more likely to think it was effective to confront a perpetrator of sexist comments (Brandon). On a more negative note, this research additionally revealed that male participants who were not exposed to an instance of allyship during the orientation were significantly more likely to support a perpetrator of sexist comments (Brandon). Several other significant findings

involving levels of sexism and personality traits were also found. Implications for these findings are discussed.

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## Introduction

Gender inequality in the capitalist labour market is well-documented (Hartmann 1976, Knuttila 2016: 87-95). In contemporary Western societies, the nature of labour market segregation based on gender is inextricably bound up with patriarchy and the development of capitalism, the industrial revolution, and the associated changes in the forms and functions of households and families (Hartmann 1976, Seccombe 1993:21-69). As households transitioned from places of production and consumption to spaces of mostly unremunerated reproductive labour and family consumption, and work outside the home increasingly took the form of waged labour in industrial settings, women often found themselves being pushed out of the labour market and other possibilities for revenue-generating activities. This was a long, complex, and contested historical process that is beyond the focus of this thesis. Nonetheless, it is important to keep in mind that the gendered division of labour that has been the subject of feminist critique since at least the 1960s and 1970s was the product of a historical rather than natural process (Barrett and McIntosh 1982, Connell 2005, 75-76, 196; Hartmann 1976; Knuttila 2016, 89-92, 96-103). It is also important to mention as this is the theoretical, social, and political climate in which many workplaces in the West have developed.

In the post-World War Two era, and especially since the late 1960s and early 1970s, with changes in the structure of the labour market, revisions to legislation regarding divorce, and the rise of second-wave feminism, women once again began to enter the labour market in large numbers (Knuttila 2016: 103-105). Since the 1970s, differences in rates of participation in the paid labour force between men and women have shrunk significantly (Fortin and Huberman

2002; Knuttila 2016, 103-105). Legislation outlawing discrimination in hiring, pay equity and other legislation and policies ostensibly designed to promote equal rights and opportunities have removed legal barriers to equal participation in the labour market (Dobbin and Kalev 2021). However, despite these seemingly progressive initiatives and some positive developments, the move towards more inclusive workspaces appears to be stymied, and there remain significant differences between mens' and womens' participation in the labour market today (Bonikowska, Drolet, and Fortin 2019; Knuttila 2016: 106-108; Statistics Canada 2022a, b).

This fact raises several questions. If the legal basis of gender discrimination is gone, what other issues might be restraining the emergence of more inclusive workplace environments? How can employers and their employees (specifically male employees) support changes that will enhance workplace equity and inclusion for all genders? What kind of situations, practices, or structures might drive behavioural changes that promote rather than hinder the development of inclusive workplaces?

While struggles over legislation and policy will undoubtedly continue, it is clear that progressive change in workplaces also requires changes in at least some interpersonal interactions. Employers can support their employees to counteract gender bias in the workplace by encouraging more inclusive workspace environments through facilitating gender-inclusive practices (Hall, Schmader, Aday, Inness, and Croft 2018). A specific behavioural practice that institutions can use to support their employees (specifically male employees) to act in more inclusive ways is to encourage and embody allyship against sexism. An ally is someone who uses their power to align with a disadvantaged group in the fight for equal rights (Drury and Kaiser 2014). Therefore, a male ally against sexism is a man who uses his power to work alongside feminist women in the search for gender equality (Drury and Kaiser 2014).

Encouraging male employees to practice allyship against sexism requires institutions to support and reinforce performances of inclusive masculinities. Studies in social psychology and experimental sociology have also shown there are many benefits of inclusive masculinity and men's allyship against sexism in the workplace (Anderson 2009; Cihangir, Barreto and Ellemers 2014; Drury 2013; Drury and Kaiser 2014).

Based on findings surrounding men's positive influence on others when responding to instances of gender bias (Cihangir, Barreto and Ellemers 2014; Drury 2013; Drury and Kaiser 2014) and the notion that witnessing a confrontation against gender bias may empower others to behave in similar ways in the future (Drury and Kaiser 2014; Swim and Thomas 2006), while also considering that people report being more likely to respond to an instance of gender bias when they are exposed to an inclusive workspace (Vajda 2020), this thesis explores the impact of allyship as a way to motivate and assist people to actively recognize and respond to instances of gender bias in the workplace. It is hypothesized that participants who are exposed to a male employee who demonstrates an act of allyship against sexism will be more likely to report that they would be comfortable responding to an instance of sexism in an active and/ or confrontational manner, compared to those who do not witness an act of male-allyship. It is also hypothesized that this trend will be most evident amongst male participants.

**Social, Economic, and Political Context: Gender Inequality in the Workplace**

The nature of the patriarchal gender order in Western societies is well documented (Connell 2005: 8, 40- 43; Hartmann 1976; Knuttila 2016: 4-5). The material and non-material benefits obtained by men's domination – the patriarchal dividend – are experienced within both private and public institutions. For example, men have historically had authority within the family (Guppy and Luongo 2015) while also having authority and power within the institutions

of business, government, media, religion, and education (Connell 2009: 246-247). In capitalist societies, arguably it is workplaces and the labour market more generally that are amongst the most important areas that men have historically dominated (Connell 2009; Knuttila 2016).

***History***

Hartmann's (1976) classic article on the relationship between patriarchy and capitalism powerfully argues that the former long precedes the latter. As previously mentioned, labour market segregation in contemporary Western capitalist societies is related to patriarchy, the rise of capitalism, the Industrial Revolution, and changes in the family which these developments entailed (Seccombe 1993: 21-69). In Hartmann's (1976: 150) words:

> The transition to capitalism in the cities and towns was experienced somewhat differently than in the rural areas, but [the process] tends to substantiate the argument just set out: men and women had different places in the familial authority structure, and capitalism proceeded in a way that built on that authority structure.

In the towns and cities prior to the industrial revolution and in early industrial workplaces, women and children comprised a very significant portion of the workforce (Knuttila 2016). During this time, the 'family' functioned as its own private patriarchal domestic production unit, where the father/husband had the most authority (Guppy and Luongo 2015; Knuttila 2016:85). Within the families of skilled artisans, for example, men were considered the more skilled workers, and women were responsible for family needs and tasks perceived as less demanding (Hartmann 1976:150). Within the family of a skilled worker, the husband also controlled most of the material production. Therefore, the wife was considered a part of her husband's guild and never moved forward in trade skills, and to the status of journeyman or master, as her husband secured those opportunities before her (Hartmann 1976:150). Women only controlled production when widowed and therefore were unlikely to be trained in the trade the same way as men within

their guilds (artisans of the same trade). As a result, women never acquired the same status as men (Hartmann 1976). As technology evolved and production methods changed, family production decreased, resulting in more family members having to work outside the home (Knuttila 2016; Hartmann 1976). Factory production became more common as part of the growing industrial economy (Hartmann 1976). At this time, the guild systems and smaller labour units run by men deliberated on separating artisan production from craft production and recruited men to work outside the home on the more complicated artisan tasks (Hartmann 1976:151; Knuttila 2016:89). As men controlled the guilds, and recruited men for production, they had first access to jobs throughout the first industrial revolution and onwards (Knuttila 2016). As a result, women were increasingly restricted to less skilled occupations, and to domestic and familial tasks (Hartmann 1976). Even with the decline of the guilds, the emerging trade unions (which were male-dominated institutions) (Armstrong 2007), resisted the employment of children and women and agitated for what eventually become known as the family wage; that is a wage earned by one person (usually the man) that is sufficient to provide for all members of the family (Knuttila 2016:81-89).

The notion of the family wage reinforced ideas about men being providers for their families and women as responsible for unpaid domestic labour (Connell 2005:75-76; Hartmann 1976; Knuttila 2016:91). Some male workers used these exclusionary practices to secure positions for men, and even as some male workers realized women could not be removed from the labour market entirely, their attitudes about women in the workplace and the effects of exclusionary practices would continue to push women out of many segments of the labour market (Barrett and McIntosh 1982; Connell 2005: 75-76, 196; Hartmann 1976; Knuttila 2016:89-92). Such attitudes and practices continued well into the 20th century. For example,

women entered the labour force, including many industrial settings, in large numbers during World War Two as men joined the military. Unfortunately, after the war, women were once again forced out of many workplaces in accordance with the idea that a woman's place was in the home (Frances, Kealey and Sangster 1996:58; Milkman 2016:119-138, Sangster 2010; Smith and Wakewich 1999). Thus, women faced economic, social, and political barriers to accessing work (Barrett and McIntosh 1982; Connell 2005:75-76, 196; Hartmann 1976; Knuttila 2016:89-92).

### *Evolution and Change Beginning*

It was not until the 1970s, with changes in the structure of the labour market, revisions to legislation regarding divorce, and the rise of second-wave feminism, that women once again began to enter the labour market in large numbers (Knuttila 2016:103-105). Combined with second-wave feminists directly challenging ideas associated with gender, more women felt the necessity and/or had the opportunity to pursue work within the labour market (Connell 2005:31; Knuttila 2016:103). In Canada, the percentage of women in the formal workforce was 22 percent in 1951. This figure rose to 60.1 percent by 1983 (Frances, Kealey and Sangster 1996:56). Since the 1970s, differences in labour force participation rates between men and women have shrunk significantly (Fortin and Huberman 2002; Knuttila 2016:103-105).

Various factors drove these changes. There was a significant increase in jobs in service occupations, bureaucracies in the public and private sectors, education, and health care. There was also increased access to divorce and contraceptives, which reduced men's control of women's behaviour in countries such as Canada and the United States (Connell 2005:226). Pay equity and other anti-discrimination legislation removed legal barriers to women's equal participation in the labour market in both the USA and Canada (Dobbin and Kalev 2021;

Government of Canada 2023). In the United States, courts passed the Equal Pay Act of 1963 requiring employers to pay men and women equal pay for the same work (Dobbin and Kalev 2021). The Civil Rights Act of 1964 was then passed to ensure that all private sector employees did not discriminate based on race, colour, sex, religion, and ethnicity (Dobbin and Kalev 2021). In 1995, the federal government of Canada introduced the Pay Equity Act in Parliament as part of Bill C-86 which prevented gender-based discrimination to ensure that employers provided equal pay to employees who worked the same jobs was introduced (Government of Canada 2023).

### *Change Gone Stagnant*

Despite these progressive initiatives to remove structural barriers to women's equal participation in the labour market, significant differences between men's and women's participation in and experience of the labour market persist (Bonikowska, Drolet, and Fortin 2019; Knuttila 2016:106-108; Statistics Canada 2022a, b). For example, regardless of occupation, in 2006, men were better paid than women; even when they worked in the same position (Knuttila 2016:105). In 2006, a female cashier made $18,706 for her median earnings compared to her male counterpart in the same position who made $22,585 for his median earnings (Knuttila 2016:106). In 2022, the labour force in Canada continues to remain segregated based on gender (Statistics Canada, 2022a, b). For example, in 2022, roughly 10,851,500 men participated in the labour force compared to roughly 9,800,500 women (Statistics Canada, 2022a). Men also occupied 8,978,400 full-time employment positions, compared to women who occupied 7,004,600 (Statistics Canada, 2022a). Women occupied 2,294,700 part-time employment positions, while men occupied only 1,288,900 part time employment positions (Statistics Canada, 2022a). It is important to note that most part-time employment pays less than

full-time employment. Jobs that typically pay more are dominated by men and jobs that typically pay less are dominated by women (Knuttila 2016:106). Women are also still underrepresented in the highest earning categories and within the top 10 percent of earners in Canada (Bonikowska, Drolet, and Fortin 2019). For example, within Canada's 100 highest-earning CEOS, 97% of them are men and only 3% were women (Macdonald 2023). In fact, there were more men named Mark in the top 100 paid Canadian CEOS than there were women (Macdonald 2023). Women continue to be segregated into 'female-dominated fields (Brookes, Jarman, and Blackburn 2003), and until only recently could blatantly be denied certain positions or even be fired for simply getting married or pregnant (Dobbin and Kalev 2021:282). The glass ceiling, as well as the barriers to women in the laboratory and construction sites remain intact and in contemporary society, many women continue to have negative experiences of work simply due to their sex (Fortin and Huberman 2002.)

For those women who do enter male-dominated segments of the labour market and male-dominated positions and fields, the outcome is not always positive, particularly for women who challenge gendered assumptions and threaten their male colleagues' work identity (Fortin and Huberman 2002). Consider the low numbers of women in science, technology, engineering, and math (STEM). Women comprise a minority of graduates from STEM at a university level (Ferguson 2016; Frank 2019). According to the Government of Canada (2022), this trend continues into the labour market. In 2022, only 20% of the people employed in all STEM careers were women (Government of Canada 2022). Many women report leaving due to a "hostile macho culture" and lack of mentoring and/or support (Hunt 2010). In 2010, only 10% to 13% of engineers were female (Hunt 2010). The discrepancy between women's qualifications and representation in STEM is surprising and has resulted in gender discrimination (Frank 2019).

Women often experience isolation due to their minority status within these fields (Hunt 2010). Women also face gender stereotyping and difficulty gaining respect (Hall, Schmader, Aday, Inness and Croft 2018). This subtle discrimination can lead to mental exhaustion and psychological burnout (Hall, Schmader, and Croft 2015). Women also report awareness of not fitting in and feeling a lack of belonging (Good, Rattan, and Dweck 2012). This lack of gender diversity may hinder creativity within STEM fields and is detrimental to women in general, as STEM fields are some of the highest paying and fastest growing occupations (Wall 2019), as well as areas for innovation (Frank 2019), which evidently will be a source of great employment opportunity and status in the future.

There also remain systematic barriers that prevent women's access to equal pay and employment opportunities (Dobbin and Kalev 2021:293). As a country that largely influences Canada, consider the United States Civil Rights Act of 1964 (Dobbin and Kalev 2021:282). On a systematic level, the Civil Rights Act of 1964 did assist to stop overt discrimination based on or towards someone's race, religion, sex, gender, sexuality, and ethnicity within all private-sector corporations (Dobbin and Kalev 2021:283). That being said, the instructions from policymakers on how institutions could directly comply with anti-discrimination laws were extremely vague and lacked proper guidance (Dobbin and Kalev 2021:283). This allowed within workplace personnel to create and control their own diversity programs and management (Dobbin and Kalev 2021:281). These in-workplace diversity programs often lack proof of encouraging diversity as they are not always created with inclusive intentions or conducted by truly qualified personnel (Dobbin and Kalev 2021:295). Aside from no evidence of validity or reliability, often, the employers who create and run diversity programs within their own workplaces are white men who are already in authority positions (Dobbin and Kalev 2021:281). Ultimately, these are the

same people who reinforce the existing unequal power dynamic between white men and others (Dobbin and Kalev 2021:281).

Many workplaces also take on diversity programs to appease legislative requirements and to avoid getting sued rather than to truly challenge discrimination and bias on a systematic, structural, social, and cultural level (Dobbin and Kalev 2021:288). Courts, judges, and policymakers can be hesitant to tackle gender discrimination because, collectively, they do not want to politically or socially 'rock the boat' (Dobbin and Kalev 2021:293). Ultimately, they lack motivation for the enforcement of pay equity and antidiscrimination laws or policies in the labour market (Dobbin and Kalev 2021:293). It is also evident that employers find loopholes within legislation which allow them to maintain the existing gendered employment patterns within their workplace (Dobbin and Kalev 2021:293). For example, in the United States, employers have gotten around the Equal Pay Act of 1963 by changing the job titles of higher-paying positions to a different name with lower pay (Dobbin and Kalev 2021:292). This again reinforces the division between men and women in the workplace as courts and judges turn a blind eye to employers' loopholes that covertly maintain existing hierarchies (Dobbin and Kalev 2021:293). As was previously mentioned, jobs that typically pay more have historically been dominated by men and jobs that typically paid less have historically been dominated by women (Knuttila 2016:106), therefore it is reasonable to believe it may be women who are more likely to work in retitled positions that were once higher paying.

This trend seems to follow in Canada as well. For example, Ontario's employment equity and pay equity legislation also lacks specific strategies on how to efficiently implement and enforce equity within workplaces (Armstrong 2007; Agoc 2002; Mcdonald and Thornton 2016; Singh and Peng 2010). Canada has both an anti-discrimination provision of federal and

provincial human rights codes and an employment equity policy, each systematically complicated in its own way and having little to no effect on the pay gap and employment inequality in Ontario (Agoc 2002; Mcdonald and Thornton 2016). According to the Canadian human rights codes of anti-discrimination legislation, targets or victims of discrimination are required to submit a complaint to the human rights commission in their jurisdiction (Agoc 2002; Singh and Peng 2010). Only a small number of complaints are actually heard and dealt with by a council (Agoc 2002). This process forces already vulnerable individuals (such as women) to seek their own justice (Agoc 2002). This can be both risky and costly to the person pursuing the complaint (Agoc 2002), and only allows people with sufficient resources and protection to pursue a complaint (Armstrong 2007). Inherently, this process includes undertones of victim blaming.

Another example of ineffective legislation is the Federal Employment Equity Act (1986) of Canada which requires employers to recognize and remove policies and practices that are discriminatory towards designated marginalized groups (Agoc 2002; Mcdonald and Thornton 2016). However, this act has also failed to provide guidance and strategies on how workplaces can actively enforce equitable environments (Agoc 2002). Due to its lack of success, Canada's Employment Equity Act was reviewed in 1995, and in 1996, it was decided employers were required to report annually to Human Resources Development Canada (Agoc 2002). Despite such reporting, there are no real consequences for employers who do not abide by the Federal Employment Equity Act (1986) (Armstrong 2007; Agoc 2002; Mcdonald and Thornton 2016). For example, if the Canadian Human Rights Commission does not consider an employer compliant based on their report/audit, or an employee has not filed an audit, or failed a site visit, the commission will prepare a report which sets out requirements for equity progress to be

completed by that employer in one year. The employer should then file a follow-up audit on progress made and would then receive a follow-up visit from the commission. If the commission still does not feel the employer is complying, they will file a second report with a time limit and with more direction on the work needed to abide by the 1986 Act. If the employer is still not compliant, the commission can request an order from the Employment Equity Tribunal which is issued under the Federal Court of Canada (Agoc 2002).

Clearly, this is a lengthy and complicated process as each of these phases/processes can take up to 9 months (Agoc 2002). With this length of time in between each process, employers can avoid the act for years (Agoc 2002). Moreover, the Act (1986) forbids the commission to impose a sanction on an employer or to order an employer to do anything that would cause them hardship (Agoc 2002). If the commission wants to act more insistent, the most they could do is fine an employer and order the employer to stop discriminatory practices and comply with the act requirements. This ultimately would begin the long administrative process that allows employers to avoid the act for more time (Armstrong 2007; Agoc 2002). The commission reports that 95 percent of employers require follow-up audits because they are insufficiently aware of the requirements needed to abide by the Employment Equity Act (1986). Due to budget cuts, by the time the commission is on second the second audit for most employers, the commission's workload is already exceeding the resources and funding assigned to the Act (1986). On many levels, the processes used to uphold the acts are flawed and ridden with loopholes.

Canada’s minimum labour standards and minimum wage standards are also exclusionary towards some women (Armstrong 2007). Minimum labour standards legislation does not cover all workers, particularly those that work in private homes and are hired for private domestic labour (Armstrong 2007). It is well-known that it is mostly women who occupy this type of work

(Armstrong 2007; Knuttila 2006, Statistics Canada 2022b). Women and other marginalized groups are susceptible and sensitive to the loopholes within the structure of the labour market as they often occupy the most vulnerable and low-paying forms of work (Armstrong 2007; Knuttila 2006, Statistics Canada 2022b). Unsurprisingly, this leaves women and other marginalized groups susceptible to being hired by private employers who could avoid legislation and treat them in discriminatory and oppressive ways (Armstrong 2007).

Furthermore, employers can also blatantly avoid The Pay Equity Act and minimum wage legislation by changing titles of positions and assigning different tasks to men and women and manipulating grey areas in policies (Armstrong 2007). For example, not paying women in restaurants serving wage; signing them a check and forcing them to sign it back over to the employer (Armstrong, 2007:18). Based on these discrepancies, it seems that the Federal Employment Equity Act of Canada (1986) and minimum labour standards and minimum wage legislation are lacking resources and strategies on how to enforce more equitable workplaces. This has resulted in a vicious cycle for women and other marginalized groups in the Canadian labour market (Armstrong 2007; Agoc 2002; Mcdonald and Thornton 2016). Improvements will likely not be made in pay equity (for example) unless legislation is restructured and considers the large loopholes within the policy (Singh and Peng 2010).

Although there have been significant changes made toward more equitable and inclusive workplaces, progress has stagnated and there remain significant differences between men's and women's participation in the labour market today (Bonikowska, Drolet, and Fortin 2019; Knuttila 2016:106-108; Statistics Canada 2022a, b). This results in the need for further research on policies and workplace practices that can further advance gender equity in the workplace.

## Chapter Two: Theoretical Context and Orientation: Masculinities as a concept, and form(s) of gender practice.

### Introduction

Given that men's behaviour in workplaces, labour organizations, families, and other aspects of social life influence women's access to and participation in the labour market, it is necessary to understand how men's behaviour has been interpreted within sociology. The core of the discussion since the 1990s has been around Connell's concept of hegemonic masculinity. This has been central to the body of literature known as critical men's studies. Although the concept of hegemonic masculinity has always been subject to criticism, in recent years there has been much discussion of social, cultural, and economic developments that are driving changes in men's behaviour. In this chapter, the debates about the concept of hegemonic masculinity are discussed and more recent discussions about inclusive and hybrid masculinities are examined. Ultimately, ideas about men's allyship for feminist struggles for equity in the workplace need to be rooted in the ongoing arguments about masculinities, their relationship to femininities, and broader social, cultural, and economic changes.

### Gender as a Social Construct

Gender is a social construct that is formed and personified over time and space, resulting in an array of different performances and embodiments (Connell, 2005:71-76, Knuttila 2016:4-5). However, gender performances are not valued equally (Connell 2005; Knuttila 2016). Historically in Western societies, masculine gender performances have had more social, political, and cultural power than feminine gender performances (Connell 2005).

***Masculinities and Patriarchy***

Masculinity is a type of gender performance and is a concept used to explain the social practices of men in different cultures and historical circumstances (Knuttila 2016). Patriarchy is a term that came into use during the 1970s to describe a system in which men dominate women (Connell 2005:41). According to Connell (2005:7) hegemonic masculinity is "the configuration of gender practice which embodies the currently accepted answer to the problem of the legitimacy of patriarchy, which guarantees (or is taken to guarantee) the dominant position of men and the subordination of women." Those who are hegemonically masculine dominate women, other forms of masculinity, and non-binary gender practices (Connell 2005:76-81).

Connell's use of the term 'hegemonic' as an adjective is derived from Antonio Gramsci's analyses of the role of culture in class relations, and specifically its part in securing the consent of the dominated. Gramsci's reflections on the cultural dynamic by which a group claims and sustains a leadership position in social life was deeply influenced by his experience of the fascist regime in Italy between the World Wars and the failure of the Italian communist movement. For Gramsci, cultural leadership of the hegemonic group often produced imitation among those "hegemonized" (Anderson 2017:26). Ultimately, the point is that hegemony is a form of domination that involves consent. Force is a secondary element, a kind of last resort to stabilize control. Thus, the concept of hegemonic masculinity draws attention to a widespread acceptance or recognition of certain embodied behaviours or practices as normal for men and how these are related to unequal gender and power relations (Connell 2005; Messerschmitt 2019). It is important to emphasize the relational nature of hegemonic masculinity. Although, as discussed below, certain qualities historically have been associated with masculinity in the West, it is the relational nature of hegemony that is key to the following discussion and to attempts to initiate progressive social change (Yang 2020).

In the contemporary culture of the West, hegemonic masculinity is frequently bound up with a series of other elements of identity, behaviour, or character traits: whiteness, heterosexuality, homophobia, sexism, competitiveness, control, and emotional stoicism (Knuttila, 2016:15-17). This is sometimes summarised as the four rules of masculinity (Knuttila 2016: 16-17). The first rule is *no sissy stuff*. No sissy stuff translates into a lack of emotionality, anti-femininity, and homophobia (Anderson 2009; Knuttila 2016:16-17). The next rule is *the big wheel*. The big wheel suggests that men must be prosperous, confident, and competitive (Knuttila 2016:6-17). The third rule is to be a *sturdy oak*. To be *a sturdy oak* one must be stable, independent, a protector, and a provider (Knuttila 2016:16-17). A hegemonically masculine man is reliable in a crisis and in other life situations more generally. The last rule is to "*give em hell*." This requires men to be tough and do what it takes to achieve goals in life, even if that involves violence and aggression (Kimmel 2017; Knuttila, 2016:16-17).

As previously stated, hegemonic masculinity is constructed in relation to and dominates over all feminine and non-hegemonic masculine gender performances. Moreover, its elements or characteristics are not fixed. The form and content of hegemonic masculinity is in continual flux in relationship to femininities and other masculinities.

In his original formulation, Connell identified three other masculinities defined in relation to hegemonic masculinity: subordinate, marginal, and complicit. Each of these categories contain other types or modes of expression. For example, protest masculinity is a particular subset of a marginality. Racialized masculinities are often marginal or subordinate to hegemonic masculinity. (Connell 2005:77-81; Connell and Messerschmidt 2005; Messerschmidt 2019). Over time, in an effort to recognize changes new labels have been created. For example, international business masculinity attempts to capture the ideas, practices, and behaviours of a

class fraction that grew significantly along with globalization since the 1980s (Connell 1998; Connell and Wood, 2005).

Women and those who perform other non-hegemonic forms of masculinity have historically paid the price of the patriarchal dividend and have suffered spiritually, emotionally, physically, and financially at the hands of the hegemonically masculine performers (Knuttila 2016:161-181). It is important to note that these gender performances[1] are resilient and have historically challenged hegemonic masculinity (Anderson 2009; Connell 2005; Knuttila 2016).

Subordinate masculinities are any form of masculine gender performance that is constructed as less than or deviant to hegemonic masculinity (Connell 2005:78-79; Messerschmidt, 2019). Essentially this is any non-hegemonic form of masculinity, but a common example of an expression of subordinate masculinity is effeminacy (Connell 2005:78-79; Messerschmidt 2019). Key to this is understanding how deeply intertwined femininity is with effeminate masculine gender performances (Anderson 2009). When a hegemonically masculine man oppresses effeminate men and compares them to women, it not only establishes a hierarchy amongst men but amongst men and women in general (Anderson 2009).

Marginalized masculinities are also oppressed by hegemonic masculinity as they are discriminated against due to inequality outside of gender relations such as race, ethnicity, and class (Connell 2005:80-81; Messerschmidt 2019). Black men are often discussed within this category of masculinities (Connell 2005:80-81). Of course, marginalized men of different races and ethnicities still try to embody and claim the power of hegemonic masculinities in the West but often lack the economic and institutional authority that is needed and held by performers of

[1] Gender performances, and gender categories are socially constructed and complex. When referring to the term "women", I am referring to anyone who identifies as such, rather than restricting it to those who have female reproductive organs. It is also important to note that not all women or those who practice or embody non-hegemonic forms of masculinity challenge hegemonic masculinity or other forms of domination.

hegemonic masculinity in predominantly white former colonial powers and colonized nations (Connell and Messerschmidt 2005:847-848).

Protest masculinities are masculine gender performances that are constructed in their objection and disapproval of the domination of hegemonic masculinity (Connell and Messerschmidt 2005:848; Messerschmidt 2019). This form of masculinity can also be considered as a marginalized masculinity and can manifest in hyper-masculine ways (Messerschmidt 2019) as seen with some rap artists in hip-hop culture, athletes, and or men who commit acts of violence towards gay men. That being said, protest masculinities can also manifest in hypo-masculine ways as seen with effeminate homosexual men and drag queens who are open with their gender performances and expressions. Fortunately for feminist women and other feminist gender performances, protest, marginalized, and subordinated masculinities may be more open to embodying egalitarian views on sex and gender and therefore have more respect for women and children (Connell 2005:112).

Finally, complicit masculinity is not similarly oppressed as other non-hegemonic gender performances as it is constructed to sustain the status and power of hegemonic masculinity (Connell 2005:79-80; Messerschmidt 2019). Complicit masculinity is essential to the continued domination of hegemonic masculinity (Connell 2005:79-80; Messerschmidt 2019). Men see and desire the social capital that hegemonic masculinity obtains and try to behave in ways which will allow them to embody these benefits. While few men achieve or live the hegemonically masculine ideal, many still attempt to embody this preferred gender performance, or implicitly buy into many of its elements (Kimmel 2017; Knuttila 2016; Messerschmidt, 2019). Indeed, the aggrieved entitlement felt by what Kimmel (2017) refers to as “angry white men” stems from their admiration for the traits of and benefits (the patriarchal dividend) that supposedly accrue to

men who achieve the hegemonic ideal and their real or perceived failure in this endeavour (see also Ging 2019; Hanson, Pascoe, and Light 2023). The label of complicit masculinity also captures the practices and behaviours of the many men who largely go along with the gender status quo. Whether they consciously perceive it as the natural state of affairs or simply do not think about it at all, they frequently benefit from the way things are and, thus, comply with many of the ideas and practices of hegemonic masculinity (Connell 2005)

The discussion of non-hegemonic gender performances is important as previously mentioned many of them – women, subordinated and marginalized masculinities in particular – have historically been oppressed by the patriarchal gender order and hegemonically masculinity in the labour market (Hartmann 1976; Knuttila, 2016). That being said, these identities have also been the pioneers in challenging the power of hegemonically masculine men (Anderson 2009; Connell 2005; Knuttila, 2016)

### *Hegemonic Masculinity in the Labour Market*

Work, careers, a paycheck, the wage form – all are key factors in masculine identity for working-class and professional middle- and upper-class men (Connell 2005:93-94; Willis 1979). In the functionalist sex role theory of the 1940s, 50s, and 60s, this corresponded with the instrumental male role that was opposed, but complementary to, the expressive and emotional female role (Parsons 1942; Parsons and Bales 1955; Webster and Rashotte 2009). The critique of this perspective by feminists deeply influenced the development of critical men's studies and of concepts such as hegemonic masculinity. The argument that the "traditional" division of labour in the family and the labour market reflected power differentials rather than male and female character traits was a key feature of this critique.

As previously mentioned, due to the influence of patriarchy in the colonialized West, hegemonic masculinity historically has been inextricably bound up with control in most of the dominant, public spaces and social institutions including and in particular interest of this thesis, the economic sphere in general, labour market and the workplace more specifically (Connell, 2005:246-247; Knuttila 2016: 106-108). Literature documenting men's domination and gender inequality within the labour market dates back to the Two World Wars (Knuttila 2016:96-103). Despite resistance and efforts for change pursued by some women, racialized, gay men, and non-binary gendered people who have historically opposed domination (Connell 2005; Knuttila, 2016:96-103), men continue to dominate in numbers, power, status, and wealth within the public, economic and political realms in North America (Bonikowska, Drolet and Fortin 2019; Brookes, Jarman and Blackburn 2003; Connell 2005; Knuttila 2016, Statistics Canada 2022a, b). Even as some of the forms in which masculinity has expressed change, the significance of hegemonic masculinity in things such as dress, hairstyle, and other modes of expression remain (Barber 2008; Barry 2018).

One can speculate that women and other non-hegemonic genders continue to experience discrimination within the labour market due to the historically Eurocentric rooted ideologies about the white man, the family, women, home, and work. That being said, victims and targets of discrimination are not passive or complicit recipients of gender bias (Swim and Thomas 2006). As previously mentioned, some women and other non-hegemonic gender performances continue to challenge white hegemonically masculine men's domination (Anderson 2009; Knuttila 2016).

### *Challenging Hegemonic Masculinity and Patriarchy*

Victims and targets of discrimination are not passive and complicit sufferers of gender bias (Swim and Thomas 2006). The influential writings of second-wave feminists such as Simone de Beauvoir *(1952),* Betty Friedan *(1963),* Germain Greer (1971) and Shulamith Firestone (1980) all critiqued the structure of Western culture, particularly the ways in which it limited women from achieving their full potential. They challenged the notion that there was a natural female sex role and that women should be bound to the home. Second-wave feminists asserted that women were just as capable as men to participate in the political and economic realms. As feminists fostered the critique of the female sex role, men's liberation movements followed and produced a critique of the male sex role (Kimmel 2017:103). The men's liberation movement argued that the traditional notions of the male sex role were also outdated and toxic (Kimmel 2017:103). Men's liberationists argued that men suffered from the pressure associated with being the providers for their family, and not all men wanted this (Kimmel 2017:103-104). Around this time gay men's movements and gay liberationists also challenged notions of gender, masculinity, heteronormativity, and the domination of hegemonic masculinity within the public sphere (Anderson 2009:52; Connell 2005:39-40). The 1960s and 70s was a period of change during which feminist women, and non-hegemonic men were fighting for civil rights, equal pay, and anti-discrimination laws (Dobbin and Kalev 2021). Ultimately by doing so, these groups challenged existing gender hierarchies. This period and the critique of the male sex role were foundational in the development of critical masculinity studies. The analytical discussion around the male sex role paved the way for future critical discussion and research on masculinities (Connell 2005:31; Kimmel 2017), as well as future discussions of male allyship against sexism (Anderson 2009; Cihangir, Barreto and Ellemers 2014; Drury 2013; Drury and Kaiser 2014).

**Allies Against Sexism**

Men may decide to respond to gender bias for a variety of changing reasons, not all of which are directly related to disrupting gender bias (Estevan-Reina, de Lemus, Megias, Kutlaca, Belmonte-Garcia and Becker 2021). It is important to differentiate between a feminist male ally and a paternalistic male 'ally'. Recall, an ally is someone who uses their power to align with a disadvantaged group in the fight for equal rights (Drury and Kaiser 2014). Therefore, a male ally against sexism is a man who uses his power to work alongside feminist women in the search for gender equality (Drury and Kaiser 2014). A feminist ally is a person or feminist allies are a group of people who use their power to align with a disadvantaged group *by recognizing the need for further progress in the fight for equal rights* (Drury and Kaiser 2014) emphasis in original). A feminist ally is motivated by and linked to a feminist identity which is related to a political collective awareness aimed at trying to end gender inequality (Estevan-Reina, de Lemus, and Megías, J.L. et al 2021). Therefore, a feminist male ally against sexism is a man who uses his power to work alongside feminist women in the search and fight for gender equality (Drury and Kaiser 2014). People who respond to instances of sexism with feminist intentions are more effective in supporting women to feel more confident and empowered in their position (Estevan-Reina, de Lemus, and Megías, J.L. et al 2021). Feminist allies are also generally viewed more positively by feminist women compared to responses made by paternalistic 'allies' (Estevan-Reina, de Lemus, and Megías, J.L. et al 2021). On the contrary, a paternalistic 'ally'[2] is someone who may be motivated to respond to an instance of gender bias for reasons aside from combating inequality. Someone who is paternalistic often believes in power differences between

[2] Quotations signify the loose label of a paternalistic ally. Someone who is paternalistic is likely motivated to respond to an instance of sexism for reasons aside from truly challenging gender bias. Therefore, a paternalistic 'ally' is an innuendo and is not a true ally against sexism.

men and women and only holds positive views of women in traditional roles (Glick and Fiske 1997). A man who is paternalistic may idealize certain women and desire intimate relationships (Glick and Fiske 1997). Someone high in paternalism may also embody benevolent sexism. Those with high levels of benevolent sexism believe women are fragile and need men as saviours and protectors (Glick and Fiske 1997). Men who hold benevolently sexist views may even reward, support, and display affection towards women for 'knowing their place' (Glick and Fiske 1997). It is a more pleasant form of sexism and a more pleasant form of coercion of the subordinate group (Glick and Fiske 1997). This form of 'ally' is important to mention as it is less effective in challenging instances of gender bias compared to feminist forms of allyship and does little to disrupt existing power structures and inequality (Estevan-Reina, de Lemus, and Megías, J.L. et al 2021:7; Glick and Fiske 1997). Therefore, a paternalistic 'ally' is not a true ally.

***Past Male Allies***

The early men's liberation movement was the first well-documented instance of a feminist men's ally movement (Kimmel 2017). The narrative of the early men's liberation movement was directly inspired by second-wave feminist ideologies related to challenging existing gendered assumptions. Unfortunately, as their discussion evolved, the men's liberation movement transitioned to a paternalistic men's movement focusing on threats to the power and status of traditional masculinity (Kimmel 2017:107). Another example of a feminist men's ally movement which also stemmed from second-wave feminism was the Father's Responsibility Movement (Kimmel 2009:155). The Fathers Responsibility Movement was composed of mostly African American fathers who worked to support each other on policy and personal levels within the community and political spaces to ensure fathers had the resources and skills needed to support and have relationships with their children (Kimmel 2017:155). This is a feminist men's

ally movement because the men in the Fathers Responsibility Movement encouraged each other to build relationships with their children and within their home life. This ultimately encouraged the men to enter and create relationships within spaces women have historically dominated. Due to these men becoming more involved within the home, women within these families could be more comfortable in their decision to enter the labour market more permanently. This is also a men's ally movement that created space for the future discussion of men, family, caring and inclusive masculinities as it continues to argue that men have responsibility within the family realm.

During the influential period of second-wave feminism, there were also men's movements that embodied the role of the paternalistic 'ally'. As previously mentioned, these men are not true allies fighting against gender inequality and do little to actively disrupt power structures as paternalistic attitudes covertly reinforce power imbalances through implicitly or explicitly perpetuating benevolent sexism (Estevan-Reina, de Lemus, and Megías, J.L. et al 2021:7; Glick and Fiske 1997). Examples of paternalistic men's movements that came into existence around the time of second-wave feminism were the men and women of The Tea Party (Kimmel 2017:63-63) and the men of the Mythopoetic Men's Movement who all encouraged traditional male roles of protector and breadwinner (Kimmel 2017:105-106). Groups like The Fathers for Justice (F4J) and The Fathers' Right Movement (FRM) were also paternalistic as the movements were filled with angry fathers discussing custody and divorce laws while simultaneously criticizing women as mothers (Kimmel 2017:137). It is important to repeat that paternalistic men's movements were not feminist or inclusive male ally's movements that contributed to the discussion of inclusive masculinities and male allyship against sexism. That being said, their existence is important to mention as they can help those looking to embody

feminist/inclusive gender performances to contrast motives to better understand how to embody male allyship against gender discrimination most effectively.

It is clear that second-wave feminism and the feminist men's movements challenged existing gendered assumptions and inspired many men to question and confront their understandings of masculinity. This created space for the development of feminist masculine gender performances and inclusive masculinities. These developments continued the progression of critical discussions surrounding new gendered ideologies (Anderson 2009; Connell 2005:31, 242) and eventually led to the discussion of male allyship against sexism (Cihangir, Barreto and Ellemers 2014; Drury 2013; Drury and Kaiser 2014).

**Allyship: A Practice to Encourage Inclusivity**

Although ideas about and practices of masculinity are changing, and hegemonic masculinity is contested by marginal, subordinate and protest masculinities, as well as some women and people with non-binary gender identities, many men in the West still value traits associated with and, therefore, consciously, or not, still embody and practice elements of hegemonic masculinity (Kimmel 2009; Knuttila 2016; Messerschmidt 2019). Many men continue to embody paternalistic views rather than feminist ones. The point at issue becomes, what kind of situations, practices, or structures drive change in men's behaviours? And how do we continue to challenge dominant and oppressive ideas about gender and work, and how can employers and their employees support changes that will enhance workplace equity and inclusion? Employers can support their male employees to counteract gender bias in the workplace by encouraging more inclusive workspace environments through the enactment of gender-inclusive practices (Hall, Schmader, Aday, Inness, and Croft 2018). A practice that institutions can support their male employees to embody is allyship against sexism. Encouraging

male employees to practice allyship against sexism requires institutions to support and reinforce performances of inclusive masculinities.

### *Inclusive Masculinities*

Inclusive Masculinity theory is a social constructivist theory of gender proposed by Eric Anderson (2009) that extends and challenges Connell's (2005) theory of hegemonic masculinity. Anderson (2009) found in his observational studies of cheerleaders, fraternities, and football teams that it was difficult to describe the gendered relations amongst the teams as they did not fit the hierarchical power structure proposed by Connell's theory of hegemonic masculinity. The forms of masculinities witnessed by Anderson (2009) existed outside of a power structure and did not oppress or police each other. Inclusive masculinity theory argues that as society becomes less homophobic and less homo-hysteric, two forms of dominant but not dominating masculine gender performances will evolve – one inclusive and one orthodox– (Anderson 2009:8). The term orthodox masculinity refers to a conservative archetype of masculine gender performance and is similar to the archetype of masculinity which embodies the hegemonic form of masculinity in Connell's (2005) theory. It is competitive, anti-feminist, and anti-effeminate (Anderson 2009: 34-36). That being said, performers of orthodox masculinity are impartial to other non-orthodox masculinities and do not go out of their way or care to police others' masculine gender performances (Andersons 2009:94-126). The other dominant forms of masculinities are inclusive masculinities (Andersons 2009). Inclusive masculinities are not homophobic, sexist, or anti-effeminate and are embodied by men who show improved social attitudes concerning women (Anderson, 2009:97-101). These masculine gender performances are also supportive of men doing feminine activities and women doing masculine activities (Anderson 2009:97-101). Those who personify inclusive masculine gender performances show

emotional and physical homosocial proximity and often blend the lines between masculinity and femininity expressing both feminine and masculine qualities (Anderson 2009:96). Without being policed by a hegemonic gender performance, many traditionally marginalized and subordinated masculinities will begin to thrive as they are no longer surveilled and become aware they can behave in more feminine ways with less threat to their social and public masculine gender identity (Anderson 2009:96-97). This awareness can ultimately help encourage men to make a more holistic shift towards identifying and embodying more inclusive forms of masculinity.

Although Anderson's (2009) theory of inclusive masculinity is useful when considering what types of gender performances may be more open to supporting women and non-hegemonic or non-orthodox gender performances, it is important to consider the serious critiques of this theory and how these affect this research. Firstly, there is a lack of clarity from Anderson (2009) when discussing sexuality in relation to gender and masculinity performances (De Boise 2014; O'Neill 2015). Anderson (2009) often uses heterosexuality as a quality to describe orthodox masculinity and homosexuality as a quality to describe inclusive masculinity. For example, he argues in periods of low homo-hysteria, heterosexual men become more aware that they can behave in ways that are more feminine and were once associated with homosexuality. As a result, men performing orthodox masculinity can make a shift towards more inclusive performances of masculinity without threat to their heterosexual masculine identity. Essentially, Anderson (2009) suggests that homosexual discourse produces orthodox masculinity but fails to consider other mechanisms in the embodiment of orthodox masculinity (De Boise 2014; O'Neill 2015). Due to the convergence of same-sex behaviours with homosexuality, homosexuality as a component of inclusive masculinity, and heterosexuality as a component of orthodox masculinity, Anderson (2009) fails to consider gender and sexuality fluidity (De Boise 2014;

O'Neill 2015). For example, Anderson (2009) mentions many heterosexual men who make the transition to embody more inclusive masculinities, but he fails to acknowledge the possibility that homosexual or non-gender binary individuals also try to embody desired traits of orthodox masculinity. In Anderson's theory of inclusive masculinity (2009) it is not clear that one does not have to be feminine or homosexual to be inclusive and one does not have to be heterosexual or masculine to embody qualities of orthodox masculinity. Acknowledging and recognizing that although homophobia directed at men has been a part of the production of orthodox masculinity and therefore most orthodox performing masculine men are heterosexual, this may not be the only mechanism which produces orthodox masculinity and it is possible for homosexual, gender nonbinary, and transgender individuals to value and attempt to embody qualities of orthodox masculinity. Anderson struggles to actively consider this fluidity of gender and sexuality (De Boise 2014; O'Neill 2015)

Anderson (2009) also focuses heavily on power relations between men and men but lacks detailed discussion of gendered power relations, or sexual politics between men and women (O'Neill 2015). This omission is detrimental to the argument from a feminist standpoint as Anderson (2009) does not challenge gendered power relations between men and women or discuss how some men who seem to behave in inclusive ways are actually reinforcing existing gender power relations, upholding existing gendered power relations, and hold privileged identities (O'Neill 2015). In fact, Anderson's (2009) theory of inclusive masculinity is centered entirely around research done on white middle to upper-class university-aged men in Anglo-American cultures (De Boise 2014; O'Neill 2015). To only conduct research on men in Anglo-American cultures, then to make fairly general claims that homohysteria is diminishing is a

sweeping claim that excludes all other cultures, races, ages, and class groups and disregards the continued lived experiences of oppressed individuals (De Boise 2014; O'Neill 2015).

Anderson's (2009) theory of inclusive masculinity is also daringly optimistic when examining gendered power relations and even suggests the apex period of homohysteria has long passed (De Boise 2014; O'Neill 2015). Anderson insinuates that men in Anglo-American societies are becoming more inclusive and therefore this linear path of progression for gender equality and improvement is inevitability taking place (De Boise 2014; O'Neill 2015). This insinuates that homophobia, gendered and sexual identity discrimination and oppression are constructs of the past (De Boise 2014; O'Neill 2015). In this sense, inclusive masculinity theory resembles aspects of post-feminism (O'Neill 2015). Post-feminism refers to a shift in thought that happened after second-wave feminism which suggests feminist goals are no longer relevant; both gender discrimination, unequal gendered power relations, and the need for feminism are of the past (O'Neill 2015). This form of optimism paired with lack of critical discussion about how masculine gender performances of all sexualities maintain and reinforce existing gendered power relations reveals how inclusive masculinity theory and its post-feminist undertones depart from feminist epistemological and ontological discourse (De Boise 2014; O'Neill 2015). Anderson's (2009) claim for change curtails discussion on the new ways in which patriarchy and homohysteria are actively being reinforced by men of all gender performances and sexual identities, and how this affects other masculine gender performance and feminine gender performances more generally (De Boise 2014; O'Neill 2015).

That being said, inclusive masculinity theory captures some important changes in some men's attitudes and behaviours towards unorthodox masculine gender performances and femininities. While this does not mean that an older hegemonic form of masculinity is no longer relevant, it

does suggest that in some situations ideas about what it means to be masculine, or how much masculinity does or should matter are undergoing change. Other forms or concepts that reflect the evolution of masculinities are discussed below.

***Business masculinities and new managerial masculinities.***

A form of business masculinity that is known to be more conscious of issues regarding gender inequality and therefore possibly more likely to align with feminist women in the fight against gender bias is known as “new business masculinities” or "the new managerial masculinity” (Connell and Wood 2005). As men continue to occupy most managerial positions in the top levels of organizations, managers have become an important group for understanding modern-day masculinities in the workplace. The new managerial masculinity does not entirely differ from an older bourgeois model of business masculinity. As Connell and Wood put it: “In this central respect, the new managerial masculinity does not depart from the old. It is involved in exercising and legitimizing collective power, institutional power, and personal authority in the workplace” (Connell and Wood 2005:359). That being said, the new business masculinities may differ from the past in two ways. They are more self-conscious of and educated on contemporary issues related to nationality, sexuality, and gender, and there is “an equally conscious endorsement of gender equity” (Connell and Wood 2005:359). While it is difficult to verify just how far Connell’s and Wood’s observations hold beyond their Australian sample, they surely reflect cultural changes within a class fragment, albeit one with global influence.

***Ecological and dialogic masculinity.***

Ecological masculinity is another masculine gender performance that is more inclusive and tolerant of diversity (Hultman and Pule 2018:54) and, therefore, may be more likely to identify as an ally against sexism. Conceptually, ecological masculinity is the alternative to the

industrial/breadwinner masculinity and is embodied by men who are pro-feminist and are more socially and environmentally connected (Hultman and Pule 2018:54). Performers of ecological masculinity also generate accountability and responsibility for the well-being of others including themselves (Hultman and Pule, 2018:31). This gender performance was born out of ecological feminism which is rooted in aligning with disadvantaged and oppressed groups to advocate for the connectedness of humans and non-humans alike (Hultman and Pule 2018:8,18,54). In other words, this masculinity is a masculine gender performance that wants to fight for change, unity, and equity for future life.

Hultman and Pule (2018: 66) conceptualized ecological masculinity using the analysis of several feminist themes. The first theme used to conceptualize ecological masculinities is pro-feminist ideologies. These are ideologies held by those interested in truly challenging current power structures. For example, the ideologies held by the early Men's Liberation Movement and the Father's Responsibility Movement within second-wave feminism who sought feminist interventions to question, critique and change their roles as men and fathers (Kimmel 2017). Another theme used to conceptualize ecological masculinities is the economics of gender equity and LGBTTTQQIAA-OHP[3] masculinities (Hultman and Pule 2018: 66). This theme emphasizes the tolerance of gender diversity and the array of feminist and pro-gender ideologies held and embodied by those who personify ecological masculinities (Hultman and Pule 2018:65). Considering the emotional qualities and feminist ideologies needed to embody this form of masculinity, this gender performance may care more to notice and decide to respond to instances of gender bias in the workplace. As Hultman and Pule (2018:31) state, "All masculinities have infinite capacities to care, which can be expressed towards Earth, human others and ourselves".

[3]Lesbian, gay, bisexual, transgender, transexual, two spirited, queer, questioning, intersexed, asexual, and allied people. Also includes other, HIV affected, and pansexual individuals (Hultman and Pule 2018: 66)

Consider Peter, Bell, Jarnagin and Bauer (2000) who have argued that there is a link between farmers who engage in sustainable agriculture and dialogic as opposed to monologic masculinity. Drawing upon Mikhail Bakhtin's distinction between monologic and dialogic social conditions, dialogic masculinity is a Weberian ideal type or model of masculinity characterized by more social openness and less need for control over nature. They argue that:

> The sustainable agriculture movement is strongly dialogic not only in the social conditions it promotes but also in the social lives of those attracted to it. It emphasizes a less individualistic, less categorical, less homogeneous approach to farming, and thus a more interactive, more holistic outlook. This movement is also open to change and therefore is not (or not necessarily) a new functionalism. At least in its rhetoric, sustainable agriculture emphasizes a way of farming that attends to, and takes into account, the needs of others in society and of the physical environment (Peter, Bell, Jarnagin and Bauer, 2000, 2018).

***New therapeutic masculinity.***

Another theory and form of masculinity that may be more likely to align with feminism and feminist in the fight against gender inequality is coined and discussed by Kaplan, Rosenmann and Shuhendler (2017) as the 'new therapeutic masculinity'. New therapeutic masculinity is an alternative to the traditional form of hegemonic masculinity and is rooted in therapeutic discourse grounded in themes of emotional and holistic awareness (Kaplan, Rosenmann and Shuhendler 2017:396-99). New therapeutic masculinity embraces gender egalitarian views and considers power relations and different hierarchical distinctions between social groups (Kaplan, Rosenmann and Shuhendler 2017:399). It is argued that new therapeutic masculinities are feminist-inspired gender performances that may be more likely to respond to an instance of sexism in the workplace as they endorse gender equality, disagree with sexist attitudes, and critically reflect on emotions related to gender identity and gendered assumptions (Kaplan, Rosenmann and Shuhendler 2017:418-419).

Spector Mersel and Gilbar (2021) further analyzed new therapeutic masculine ideologies. The military has been a traditional site for reproducing hegemonic masculinity and has left many soldiers without the ability and emotional resources to cope with post-traumatic stress symptoms (Spector Mersel and Gilbars 2021). Drawing on interview data from Israeli veterans suffering from PTSS who were required to participate in therapy, Spector Mersel and Gilbar (2021) found that through therapeutic discussion, military men in therapy for PTSS began to move away from endorsing and embodying hegemonic masculinity and instead began to embody a new masculinity which was grounded in sensitivity, emotional closeness, self-care, and being more open to asking for help (Spector-Mersel and Gilbar 2021). After treatment, most veterans were able to leave with a changed perception of masculinity that was different from the hegemonic form of masculinity they previously embodied (Spector-Mersel and Gilbar 2021). These men reclaimed their masculinity by understanding manhood in relation to fatherhood, caring, and being vulnerable with those close to them (Spector-Mersel and Gilbar 2021). Some veterans even became so passionate about their new embodiment of therapeutic masculinity that they criticized their previous masculinity (Spector-Mersel and Gilbar 2021). This suggests that with support, hegemonically masculine men can begin to explore other forms of masculinity and may become more open to making transitions to embodying a more inclusive form of masculinity (Spector-Mersel and Gilbar 2021). It is possible that when encouraging men to identify their emotions and advocate for the well-being of others including themselves, they may begin to develop a more holistic awareness of issues related to gender, and possibly become more motivated to respond to future instances of sexism.

### *Hybrid masculinities.*

Hybrid masculinities are also discussed by Spector-Mersel and Gilbar (2021). Many men within therapy had changes in ideas about their masculinity but did not completely stop embodying hegemonic masculinity. The result is labelled hybrid masculinity (Spector-Mersel and Gilbar 2021). A hybrid masculinity is a single masculine gender performance that is a combination of different elements related to marginalized, and subordinated masculinities, feminine gender performances and hegemonic masculinity (Spector-Mersel and Gilbar 2021). For example, remaining in association with authority and power, but now including emotional openness and sensitivity (Spector-Mersel and Gilbar 2021). Although men practicing hybrid masculinities can sometimes try to position themselves as better than others due to their possession of qualities from multiple gender performances, it is evident that in their ability to perform hybrid masculinities, they have already negotiated and compromised certain hegemonic traits. This suggests that although embodying hybrid masculinities can involve a mix of therapeutic and hegemonic masculinity, something has already encouraged these men to make shifts in their gender performance. It is possible that with continued therapeutic support, these men could make a complete transition to embodying inclusive masculinity.

## *Implications of Allyship and Inclusive Masculinities in the Workplace*

Several experimental studies also support the interpretive, theoretical, and historical literature suggesting masculinities are changing and are becoming more inclusive resulting in positive changes for both men and women. The positive effects of feminist and inclusive forms of masculinity are now being analyzed more commonly within the public sphere and labour market to highlight the importance of male allies against sexism and to continue to advance the discussion and practice of inclusive masculinities.

Since men continue to occupy most top managerial positions in organizations, managers are an important group for understanding modern-day masculinities in the workplace (Connell and Wood 2005). When hiring for a management position, valuing inclusivity should not be an additional quality that gives a candidate an advantage, but rather a mandatory requirement for those who take on management positions (Silver, King and Hebl 2022). This is because leadership positions in the workplace are particularly important as allies against sexism (Cheng, Traylor, and King 2019). Consider a male manager who demonstrates feminist allyship in the workplace. He may be more likely to use his status and social capital to change social norms within the workplace and motivate others to respond to instances of gender bias (Silver, King and Hebl 2022). Using an online survey, Cheng, Traylor, and King (2019) asked participants to reflect on an effective instance of allyship they witnessed and to answer a series of questions about the instance (who, what, where, when, and why). They found that 41 percent of ally instances were demonstrated by coworkers, and 48% of instances were bosses. Not surprisingly, friend, customer, or nonwork-related ally instances comprised only 11% (Cheng, Traylor, and King 2019). Participants suggested 81 percent of the time when the boss exhibited allyship, it was effective in combating sexist ideology. This compares to only 56 percent of the time when coworkers embodied allyship (Cheng, Traylor, and King 2019). Participants reported that 64 percent of the time, the instance of allyship they experienced was at their workplace and 22 percent of the time, the instances were demonstrated in meetings. Participants viewed the instances of allyship that took place during meetings as most effective in challenging sexist ideology (Cheng, Traylor, and King 2019). Lastly, it was found that the most common and effective behaviours across these themes of allyship were advocating for the target of sexism, helping the target, confrontation with the perpetrator, kindness towards the target, providing

opportunity, backing up words with actions, and mentorship (Cheng, Traylor, and King 2019). With this in mind, it is important to note that not all ally behaviour is effective even with the best intentions. This can happen when an ally's reaction is not appropriate or is aggressive. Overall, these findings affirm the importance of those who hold social, political, and cultural power to align with subordinated and marginalized individuals and recognize when it is time to appropriately react to instances of gender bias.

A vignette study was conducted by Eliezer and Major (2012) where male and female participants read about a man or woman who expressed sympathy for a female colleague who claimed she did not receive funding due to gender bias. The results indicated that participants viewed both men and women who responded to the sexist claim as complainers. However, the participants were less likely to perceive the man who responded to the sexist claim with sympathy as a complainer compared to the women (Eliezer and Major 2012). This suggests that the sympathy expressed by the man is perceived as more reasonable and rational by participants compared to a women's sympathy. While this suggests there is still an imbalance in the level of respect for male and female behaviour, it does demonstrate the positive effects of inclusive forms of masculinity embodied by men who respond to instances of sexism. A vignette study conducted by Drury (2013) also demonstrated the positive effects of inclusive forms of masculinity embodied by men who respond to instances of sexism. Drury (2013) found that when men and women read about either a man or woman who confronted an instance of sexism, male participants tended to believe that the males' confrontation of the sexist perpetrator was more credible and warranted compared to the female confrontation. Male participants also believed the perpetrator's actions as more sexist when confronted by a man compared to a woman (Drury 2013). Research also suggests female victims of sexism are more likely to file a

complaint when they are shown support from their male colleagues (Cihangir, Barreto and Ellemers 2014).

These findings support the theoretical and historical argument that masculinities are changing. They also indicate some ways in which institutions should look to further support men in embodying inclusive masculinities within their workplace. These findings show the many benefits of men's allyship against sexism in the workplace (Anderson 2009; Cihangir, Barreto and Ellemers 2014; Drury 2013; Drury and Kaiser 2014), and acts of allyship in general (Cheng, Traylor, and King 2019). Based on these findings, researchers infer that when people witness a challenge to sexism, they may begin to recognize the nature of the sexist comments due to the ally's confrontation and, in time, decide to confront similar instances (Drury and Kaiser 2014; Swim and Thomas 2006). However, this inference has not been directly studied. Therefore, investigating whether men are more likely to respond to future instances of sexism when they have previously witnessed and been empowered by other male allies against sexism is warranted as it can inform institutions on how to support their male colleagues in making a shift to become more inclusive.

## Chapter Three: Methodology

In order to empirically explore the effects of male allyship in a workplace, an experimental study was proposed and designed. First, an a priori statistical power analysis was conducted using G*Power 3 (Faul, Erdfelder, Lang and Buchner 2007) to determine the minimum sample size needed to detect a small effect size (f=0.10). To achieve 80% power in detecting a small effect (f=0.10) at a significance of $\alpha = 0.05$, the sample size needed is 1095 (N= 1095). A second a prior statistical power analysis was conducted using G*Power 3 (Faul, Erdfelder, Lang and Buchner 2007) to determine the minimum sample size needed to detect a medium effect size (f=0.25). To achieve 80% power in detecting a medium effect (f=0.25) at a significance of $\alpha = 0.05$, the sample size needed is 179 (N= 179). I opted to aim for a small to medium effect size and decided on a sample of 400 participants.

### Sample and Recruitment

The survey was advertised (see Appendix A) and distributed on Amazon's MTurk via the CloudResearch tool, an online recruiting platform (Litman, Robinson and Abberbock 2017). The survey was housed on Qualtrics software, Version 2023 of Qualtrics. Copyright © 2020 (Qualtrics 2005). Qualtrics and all other Qualtrics product or service names are registered trademarks or trademarks of Qualtrics, Provo, UT, USA. Because I utilized the CloudResearch platform, I was able to ensure that data was provided by trusted participants/Amazon MTURK workers[4] from English speaking countries (in particular, Canada, the United States, and the United Kingdom). Trusted participants were defined as MTURK workers with approval rates of at least 95% over at least 100 sessions. The final sample included a total of 399 participants. Of

[4] Amazon Mechanical Turk refers to those who take surveys and complete tasks as ‘workers’.

the final sample, 278 identified their gender as female, 110 identified as male, 2 identified as gender fluid and 5 identified as gender non-binary. There were 4 participants whose gender was not included due to preference to not answer or incorrectly answering the question (one participant wrote their ethnicity, another wrote their age). The age of the participants ranged from 18-69. The highest age percentage was the age of 35. More than 65 percent of participants identified as White/Caucasian/European, roughly 15 percent identified as Black/African American, roughly 10 percent identified as Hispanic/Latino/South American, roughly 7 percent identified as Asian, roughly 2 percent identified as Middle Eastern, and roughly 1 percent identified as Aboriginal/Indigenous peoples of Canada. Participants could identify as more than one ethnicity therefore the variety of mixed races that may have been recorded are not exhaustively listed here.

## Measures

### Independent Measures

***Gender****:* In the scenario, participants were randomly assigned to be exposed to either a male or female existing employee.

***Allyship****:* The scenarios presented to participants also varied in terms of displaying allyship. Participants were randomly assigned to scenarios that either demonstrated or did not demonstrate an instance of allyship against sexism.

***Conditions****:* As both gender and a prior exposure to allyship were manipulated on two levels, there were four different conditions. (1) Female employee who demonstrates allyship, (2) Female employee who does not demonstrate allyship, (3) Male employee who demonstrates allyship and lastly, (4) Male employee who does not demonstrate allyship. In the allyship conditions (whether the existing employee is female or male), participants will

be exposed to an existing employee who tells a story of a time they demonstrated an act of allyship against sexism by defending a woman from a male colleague making a sexist remark (see Appendix B). In the non-ally conditions (whether the manager is female or male) participants will be exposed to a story about a neutral non-gender related event. All participants were then exposed to an instance of sexism (see Appendix D). Regardless of what level of the independent variables the participants received, they were all exposed to the same instance of sexism.

## Dependent Measures

Below, the dependent measures are described in relevance to the research question.

***Sexism ratings.*** Participants were asked to rate whether the comment described in the vignette was sexist using the following item. ("I think the comment was sexist."). Ratings were made on a 1–5 scale ranging from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*.

***Motivation ratings.*** Participants were then asked to rate whether they would feel motivated to respond to the sexist comment. ("I would feel motivated to take action in response to the man's behaviour."). Ratings were made on a 1–5 scale ranging from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*.

***Effectiveness ratings.*** Next, I was interested in whether participants who were exposed to a prior instance of allyship viewed more confrontational responses as more effective. Therefore, participants were asked to rate the effectiveness of different responses to the instance of sexism. ("Involving your boss."; "involving human resources."; "Confronting Brandon."; "Telling Madison and helping her find ways to take action."; "Telling Madison and offering her emotional support."; "Doing nothing."). Ratings were made on a 1–5 scale ranging from *extremely ineffective* to *extremely effective.*

***Comfortableness ratings.*** Next, I was interested in examining whether people exposed to an instance of allyship were more comfortable in deciding to respond to instances of sexism. Out of 12 different response options, a factor analysis indicated four different response types. Therefore, participants were asked to rate how comfortable they would be supporting Madison (supporting the target) ("I would tell and support Madison by offering her emotional support."; "I would tell and support Madison by helping her find ways to take action.", confronting Brandon (confronting perpetrator) ("I would confront Brandon for his remark and make sure he understood why it was wrong."; "I would pull Brandon to the side and in private tell him that he was wrong."; "I would contact Brandon after hours via email to tell him his comment was wrong."). Participants were also asked how comfortable they would be reporting Brandon (reporting the perpetrator), ("I would go to Human Resources (HR) to file a complaint against Brandon."; "I would talk to our boss about Brandon's comment before doing anything else."; "I would leave an anonymous note on our boss's desk or in the human resources comment box regarding the instance.") and supporting Brandon (supporting the perpetrator) ("I would agree with Brandon's comment."; "I would agree with Brandon and ask him if he wanted to work in a separate group together."; "I would make a light-hearted joke in response to Brandon's comment."; "I would not do anything.").

## Additional Measures

Below, the additional questionnaires that were given to participants are described.

***HEXACO.*** The HEXACO Personality Inventory-Revised is a 60-item self-report questionnaire that assesses six different personality dimensions: Honesty-Humility, Emotionality, Extraversion, Agreeableness, Consciousness and Openness to experience

(Ashton and Lee 2009). This measure is well known and has good internal consistency reliability (Ashton, Lee, and Vries 2014). The Cronbach Alpha for each factor is reported as follows; Honesty humility α=.82, Emotionality α =.84, Extraversion α= .85, Agreeableness α =.84, Conscientiousness α =.83, openness to experience α=.81 (Ashton, Lee, and Vries 2014).

***Ambivalent Sexism Inventory.*** The Ambivalent Sexism Inventory is a self-report questionnaire made up of two 11-item subscales (total of 22 questions) that measure both hostile sexism (HS) and benevolent sexism (BS). Both scales have questions measuring constructs such as ideas and roles of power, gender differentiation, heterosexuality, and relations with women. More specifically, it captures constructs of both benevolent and hostile sexism (Glick and Fiske 1997). Hostile sexism is a form of gender bias that is often displayed by those who have overtly negative views of women, support traditional gender roles, and project negative stereotypes about women. As previously noted throughout the discussion of the paternalistic 'ally', benevolent sexism is a form of sexism that is not as overt and aggressive and is embodied by men who have positive views and idealization of women in traditional roles. This form of sexism is paternalistic and is embodied by men who view themselves as the saviours, the backbone, or stability when interacting with women (Glick and Fiske 1997). This measure also has good internal consistency reliability as the average value of Cronbach's alpha for the ASI over six studies was .87 (Glick and Fiske 1996). The average value of Cronbach's Alpha for hostile sexism over six studies was also .87, and the average value for Cronbach's Alpha for benevolent sexism over six studies was .79 (Glick and Fiske 1996).

**Design and Procedure**

Using a vignette study, participants read scenarios where they were asked to imagine starting at a new workplace and attending a welcome orientation. At the orientation, they met the manager of the workplace and a group of existing employees with the same position who were responsible for aiding their transition. The manager then gave a basic and neutral introduction to the workplace and left the room due to another demand. Participants were then asked to imagine breaking into smaller groups with one of the existing employees where they would participate in icebreakers. Here the existing employee started by introducing themselves and then broke into a short story explaining their feelings toward the workplace. The gender and extent to which the existing employee's personal story demonstrates an act of allyship against sexism was manipulated (see Appendix B). Participants completed several questionnaire items to assess their perceptions of the situation (see Appendix C). Participants were then asked to imagine having been employed at the occupation for several months. During this time, they were asked to imagine having to work on a group project. Here participants read a scenario involving an instance of gender bias while working on the project (see Appendix D). Participants then made several ratings regarding the effectiveness of different response types and how comfortable they would be when responding in different ways to the instance of gender bias (see Appendix E and F). Participants then completed the HEXACO Personality Inventory-Revised (Ashton and Lee 2009) which allowed for the analysis of whether certain personality traits are associated with the tendency to respond to sexism in different ways. Participants also filled out the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (Glick and Fiske 1997) to measure attitudes related to hostile and benevolent sexism (Glick and Fiske 1997). Measuring for both types of sexism allowed for a better interpretation of participants' possible motivations in deciding to respond or not to respond to an instance of sexism. Participants also completed demographic information (Appendix G).

**Factor Analysis**

An exploratory factor analysis (Maximum Likelihood with Varimax rotation) was conducted to create composites for the responses to the scenarios. Examination of the scree plot and a criterion of eigen values greater than 1.0 found that there were four factors in which participants' responses could be categorized. Factor one embodies themes of supporting Brandon, the perpetrator of the sexist comment. Factor two embodies themes supporting Madison, the victim of the sexist comment. Factor three embodies themes of confronting Brandon, the perpetrator of the sexist comment, and factor four embodies themes of reporting Brandon, the perpetrator of the sexist comment. I decided on a loading criterion of .35 for membership in a particular factor. According to the loadings, four responses indicated support for Brandon, two indicated support for Madison, three indicated confronting Brandon, and three indicated reporting Brandon. Refer to Table i.

**Table i**

*Rotated Factor Loadings and Communalities for Instance of Gender Bias Response Types*

| | Factors | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | Communality |
| I would agree with Brandon's comment. | **.921** | | | | .857 |
| I would agree with Brandon and ask him if he wanted to work in a separate group together. | **.873** | | | | .767 |
| I would make a light-hearted joke in response to Brandon's comment. | **.512** | | | | .284 |
| I would not do anything. | **.485** | | | | .381 |
| I would tell and support Madison by offering her emotional support. | | **.946** | | | .935 |
| I would tell and support Madison by helping her find ways to take action. | | **.841** | | | .804 |
| I would pull Brandon to the side and in private tell him that he was wrong. | | | **.843** | | .722 |
| I would confront Brandon for his remark and make sure he understood why it was wrong. | | | **.807** | | .671 |
| I would contact Brandon after hours via email to tell him his comment was wrong. | | | **.371** | | .197 |
| I would go to Human Resources (HR) to file a complaint against Brandon. | | | | **.813** | .686 |
| I would talk to our boss about Brandon's comment before doing anything else. | | | | **.786** | .670 |
| I would leave an anonymous note on our boss's desk or in the human resources comment box regarding the instance. | | | | **.376** | .191 |

Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood.
Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization.[a]
a. Rotation converged in 5 iterations

**Working Hypothesis**

It is predicted that participants exposed to acts of male allyship will be more likely to report that they would respond to an instance of sexism in a more active and confrontational style than those who are not exposed to a male ally. It was also hypothesized that this trend will be most evident amongst *male participants* in the male-allyship condition.

# Chapter Four: Results

## Plan of Analysis

For each of the dependent variables (Effectiveness of Involving Boss, Effectiveness of Confronting Brandon, Supporting Madison Composite, Supporting Brandon Composite, Confronting Brandon Composite, and lastly Reporting Brandon Composite), three analyses were conducted. Independent variables were a) participant gender, b) gender of the employee in the scenario, and c) prior exposure to allyship. First, a factorial ANCOVA was conducted with the sexism variables as covariates. Then a similar analysis was conducted with HEXACO factors entered as covariates. Lastly, ANOVAS were run for each dependent variable without the covariates. All tables included in the results section have significant results. Analysis conducted that did not find any significant results are not included in the results section due to space constraints. Table ii includes results from statistical assumptions tests for each analyses conducted.

**Table ii**

*Statistical Assumptions Chart for Analysis of Variance and Covariance*

| Tests | Levene's Test | | Modified Breusch-Pagan Test | | Cook's Distance |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Statistic | Levene's Statistic | *p* | *Chi-Square* | *p* | max |
| 1.Effectiveness of involving boss, hostile and benevolent sexism | 1.128 | .345 | 2.067 | .151 | .04 |
| 2. Effectiveness of involving boss, HEXACO | .857 | .541 | 4.571 | .033 | .07 |
| 3. Effectiveness of Confronting Brandon, hostile and benevolent sexism | 1.414 | .198 | 2.675 | .102 | .05 |
| 4. Effectiveness of confronting Brandon, HEXACO | 1.139 | .338 | 5.640 | .018 | .05 |
| 5. Supporting Madison, hostile and benevolent sexism | 1.179 | .313 | .682 | .409 | .05 |
| 6. Supporting Madison, HEXACO | 1.576 | .141 | .570 | .450 | .10 |
| 7. Supporting Brandon, hostile and benevolent sexism | 2.710 | .009 | 35.790 | <.001 | .10 |
| 8. Supporting Brandon, HEXACO | .697 | .674 | 43.605 | <.001 | .09 |

| | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| 9. Confronting Brandon, hostile and benevolent sexism | 2.294 | .027 | 2.570 | .109 | .04 |
| 10. Confronting Brandon, HEXACO | 1.342 | .229 | .356 | .550 | .04 |
| 11. Reporting Brandon, hostile and benevolent sexism | 1.051 | .395 | 1.239 | .266 | .06 |
| 12. Reporting Brandon, HEXACO | .790 | .596 | .334 | .563 | .04 |
| 13. Effectiveness of confronting Brandon, no covariate | 1.431 | .191 | 1.705 | .192 | .03 |
| 14. Supporting Brandon, no covariate | 3.253 | .002 | 13.437 | <.001 | .07 |
| 15. Confronting Brandon, no covariate | 1.147 | .333 | 2.023 | .155 | .02 |

## Effectiveness of Involving Boss

### *Hostile and Benevolent Sexism as Covariates*

A Three-way Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) was performed to evaluate whether the gender of the employee, prior exposure to allyship, and participant gender affected the participants' opinion on whether it was effective to involve their boss over the instance of sexism. The independent variables were employee gender, participant gender and prior exposure of allyship. The analysis was conducted using SPSS version 28. Covariates were hostile and benevolent sexism.

Table 1a presents the findings of the ANCOVA. Participant gender was nonsignificant with $F$ (1,371) =.746, $p$=.388. Employee gender was nonsignificant with $F$ (1, 371) = 1.605, $p$=.206. Prior exposure to allyship was also nonsignificant with $F$ (1, 371) = .074, $p$=.786, all indicating nonsignificant differences at baseline. Hostile sexism as a covariate was significant with $F$ (1, 371) = 9.156, $p$=<0.01, suggesting that participants' hostile sexism scores were predictive of their opinion on whether it was effective to involve their boss. A Pearson correlation coefficient was computed to assess the direction of the relationship between hostile sexism and the effectiveness of involving boss scores. There was a significant negative correlation between the two variables with $r$ (396) = [-.115], $p$= [.022] suggesting that participants with high hostile sexism scores were less likely to think it was effective to involve their boss over the instance of gender bias compared to participants with low scores of hostile sexism. The interaction between participant gender and hostile sexism was also significant with $F$ (1,371) = 6.098, $p$=<0.05. A Pearson correlation coefficient was computed on male participants to assess the direction of the relationship between their hostile sexism scores and their opinion of whether it was effective to involve their boss. There was a significant negative

correlation between the two variables, $r$ (108) = [-.308], $p$= [.001], suggesting that male participants with high scores of hostile sexism were significantly less likely to think it was effective to involve their boss over the instance of sexism compared to male participants with low scores of hostile sexism. A Pearson correlation coefficient was then computed on female participants to assess the direction of the relationship between their hostile sexism scores and their opinion on whether it was effective to involve their boss. There was a nonsignificant negative correlation between the two variables with $r$ (275) = [-.041], $p$= [.494]. This is interesting but could suggest that already low hostile sexism scores in female participants resulted in a floor effect, meaning a large proportion of females could have scored so low on hostile sexism scores making it difficult to differentiate between the individual low scores, resulting in non-significant differences.

The interaction between employee gender and hostile sexism was also significant with $F$ (1, 371) = 5.585, $p$<0.05. A Pearson correlation coefficient was computed on participants exposed to a male employee to assess the direction of the relationship between their hostile sexism scores and their opinion on whether they thought it was effective to involve their boss. For those exposed to male employees, there was a negative correlation between hostile sexism scores and effectiveness involving boss scores, with $r$ (199) = [-.235], $p$= [<0.001]. This suggests that participants with high hostile sexism scores exposed to a male employee were less likely to think it was effective to involve their boss compared to participants with low scores of hostile sexism exposed to a male employee. A Pearson correlation coefficient was then calculated on participants exposed to a female employee to assess the direction of the linear relationship between their hostile sexism scores and their opinion on whether they thought it was effective to involve their boss. For participants exposed to a female employee, there was a positive

nonsignificant correlation between hostile sexism and effectiveness of involving boss scores with $r$ (195) = [.011], $p$ = [.874]. All other covariates and interactions were nonsignificant. Refer to Table 1a. The means for the different conditions are presented in Table 1b. Correlations can be found in Tables 1c,1d,1e, 1f, and 1g.

**Table 1a**

*Analysis of Covariance: Effectiveness of Involving Boss, with Hostile and Benevolent Sexism*

| Predictors | SS | *df* | MS | *F* | *p* | Partial Eta |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Participant gender | .722 | 1 | .722 | .746 | .388 | .002 |
| Employee gender | 1.553 | 1 | 1.553 | 1.605 | .206 | .004 |
| Exposure to allyship | .071 | 1 | .071 | .074 | .786 | .000 |
| Participant gender *employee gender | .008 | 1 | .008 | .008 | .928 | .000 |
| Participant gender *exposure to allyship | 1.357 | 1 | 1.357 | 1.402 | .237 | .004 |
| Employee gender *exposure to allyship | 1.825 | 1 | 1.825 | 1.886 | .170 | .005 |
| Participant gender *employee gender * exposure to allyship | .035 | 1 | .035 | .036 | .849 | .000 |
| Hostile sexism | 8.862 | 1 | 8.862 | 9.156 | .003** | .024 |
| Participant gender *hostile sexism | 5.902 | 1 | 5.902 | 6.098 | .014* | .016 |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Employee gender *hostile sexism | 5.405 | 1 | 5.405 | 5.585 | .019* | .015 |
| Exposure to allyship *hostile sexism | .000 | 1 | .000 | .000 | .988 | .000 |
| Benevolent sexism | 1.223 | 1 | 1.223 | 1.263 | .262 | .003 |
| Participant gender * benevolent sexism | 1.310 | 1 | 1.310 | 1.354 | .245 | .004 |
| Gender of employee *benevolent sexism | .113 | 1 | .113 | .116 | .733 | .000 |
| Exposure to allyship *benevolent sexism | .007 | 1 | .007 | .007 | .934 | .000 |
| Error | 359.058 | 371 | .968 | | | |

* $p < 0.05$
** $p < 0.01$

**Table 1b**

*Means for Analysis of Covariance: Effectiveness of Involving Boss, with Hostile and Benevolent Sexism*

| Gender of participant | Male participant (N=110) | | Female participant (N=277) | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Gender of employee | Male employee | Female employee | Male employee | Female employee |
| Non-Ally (N=193) | 3.57 (.971) | 3.42 (1.091) | 3.63 (.868) | 3.49 (.998) |
| Ally (N=194) | 3.46 (1.170) | 3.89 (.937) | 3.42(1.065) | 3.57 (.957) |

*Standard deviations are in brackets

**Table 1c**

*Hostile Sexism Scores and Effectiveness of Involving Boss Scores Correlation*

| Variables | 1 | 2 |
|---|---|---|
| 1) Hostile sexism | 1 | -.115* |
| 2) Effectiveness of involving boss | -.115* | 1 |

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

**Table 1d**

*Male Participants' Hostile Sexism Scores and Effectiveness of Involving Boss Scores Correlation*

| Variables | 1 | 2 |
|---|---|---|
| 1) Hostile sexism | 1 | -.308** |
| 2) Effectiveness involving boss | -.308** | 1 |

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

**Table 1e**

*Female Participants' Hostile Sexism Scores and Effectiveness of Involving Boss Scores Correlation*

| Variables | 1 | 2 |
|---|---|---|
| 1) Hostile sexism | 1 | -.041 |
| 2) Effectiveness of involving boss | -.041 | 1 |

**Table 1f**

*Male Employee Hostile Sexism Scores and Effectiveness of Involving Boss Scores Correlation*

| Variables | 1 | 2 |
|---|---|---|
| 1) Hostile sexism | 1 | -.235** |
| 2) Effectiveness of involving boss | -.235** | 1 |

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

**Table 1g**

*Female Employee Hostile Sexism Scores and Effectiveness of Involving Boss Scores Correlation*

| Variables | 1 | 2 |
|---|---|---|
| 1) hostile sexism | 1 | .011 |
| 2) Effectiveness of involving boss | .011 | 1 |

***HEXACO Factors as Covariates***

A Three-Way Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) was performed to evaluate whether prior exposure to allyship, participants' gender, and gender of an employee affected participants' opinion on whether or not they thought it was effective to involve their boss over the instance of sexism. The independent variables were employee gender, participant gender, and prior exposure to allyship. Analysis was conducted using SPSS version 28. Covariates were the HEXACO factors.

Table 2a presents the findings of the ANCOVA. Participant gender was nonsignificant with $F$ (1,355) =.124, $p$=.725. Employee gender was nonsignificant with $F$ (1, 355) = 2.477, $p$=.116. Prior exposure to allyship was also nonsignificant with $F$ (1, 355) =1.964, $p$= .162, all indicating nonsignificant differences at baseline. The interaction between employee gender and agreeableness was significant with $F$ (1, 355) = 4.684, $p$= <0.05. A Pearson correlation coefficient was computed on participants exposed to a male employee to assess the relationship between their agreeableness scores and whether they thought it was effective to involve their boss. For participants exposed to a male employee, there was a significant positive correlation between agreeableness and effectiveness of involving boss with $r$ (199) = [.141], $p$ = [.046] suggesting that participants with high agreeableness scores who were exposed to a male employee were significantly more likely to think it was effective to involve their boss compared to participants with low agreeableness scores exposed to a male employee. A Pearson correlation

coefficient was also computed on participants exposed to a female employee to assess the direction of the relationship between their agreeableness scores and the effectiveness of involving boss scores. There was a nonsignificant negative correlation between the two variables with $r$ (195) = [-.075], $p$ = [.292]. All other covariates and interactions were nonsignificant. Please refer to Table 2a. The means for the different conditions are presented in Table 2b. Correlations can be found in Tables 2c and 2d.

**Table 2a**

*Analysis of Covariance: Effectiveness of Involving Boss, with HEXACO Covariates*

| Predictor | SS | *df* | MS | F | *p* | Partial Eta |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Participant gender | .123 | 1 | .123 | .124 | .725 | .000 |
| Employee gender | 2.460 | 1 | 2.460 | 2.477 | .116 | .007 |
| Exposure to allyship | 1.950 | 1 | 1.950 | 1.964 | .162 | .006 |
| Participant gender *employee gender | .157 | 1 | .157 | .158 | .691 | .000 |
| Participant gender *Exposure to allyship | .100 | 1 | .100 | .100 | .751 | .000 |
| employee gender *Exposure to allyship | 2.904 | 1 | 2.904 | 2.924 | .088 | .008 |
| Participant gender*employee gender *exposure to allyship | .288 | 1 | .288 | .290 | .590 | .001 |
| Participant gender*honesty humility | .039 | 1 | .039 | .039 | .844 | .000 |
| Employee gender*honesty humility | 1.433 | 1 | 1.433 | 1.443 | .230 | .004 |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Exposure to allyship *honesty humility | 2.916 | 1 | 2.916 | 2.936 | .088 | .008 |
| Honesty humility | 1.481 | 1 | 1.481 | 1.491 | .223 | .004 |
| Emotionality | 2.143 | 1 | 2.143 | 2.158 | .143 | .006 |
| Participant gender* emotionality | .142 | 1 | .142 | .142 | .706 | .000 |
| Gender of employee* emotionality | .324 | 1 | .324 | .326 | .568 | .001 |
| Exposure to allyship *emotionality | 1.208 | 1 | 1.208 | 1.216 | .271 | .003 |
| Extraversion | .006 | 1 | .006 | .006 | .936 | .000 |
| Participant gender *extraversion | .703 | 1 | .703 | .708 | .401 | .002 |
| Employee gender* Extraversion | .900 | 1 | .900 | .906 | .342 | .003 |
| Exposure to allyship *extraversion | .264 | 1 | .264 | .266 | .606 | .001 |
| Agreeableness | .207 | 1 | .207 | .208 | .648 | .001 |
| Participant gender* agreeableness | .093 | 1 | .093 | .094 | .760 | .000 |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Employee gender* agreeableness | 4.652 | 1 | 4.652 | 4.684 | .031* | .013 |
| Exposure to allyship *agreeableness | .034 | 1 | .034 | .034 | .853 | .000 |
| Conscientiousness | .157 | 1 | .157 | .158 | .691 | .000 |
| Participants gender *conscientiousness | .449 | 1 | .449 | .452 | .502 | .001 |
| Employee gender* conscientiousness | .044 | 1 | .044 | .045 | .833 | .000 |
| Exposure to allyship *conscientiousness | .013 | 1 | .013 | .013 | .908 | .000 |
| Openness | 2.934 | 1 | 2.934 | 2.954 | .087 | .008 |
| Participants gender *openness | .737 | 1 | .737 | .742 | .390 | .002 |
| Employee gender *openness | .365 | 1 | .365 | .368 | .545 | .001 |
| Exposure to allyship *openness | .019 | 1 | .019 | .019 | .891 | .000 |
| Error | 352.582 | 355 | .993 | | | |

* $p < 0.05$
** $p < 0.01$

**Table 2b**

*Means for Analysis of Covariance: Effectiveness of Involving Boss, with HEXACO Covariates*

| Gender of participant | Male participant (N=110) | | Female participant (N=277) | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Gender of employee | Male employee | Female employee | Male employee | Female employee |
| Non-Ally (N=193) | 3.57 (.971) | 3.42 (1.091) | 3.63 (.868) | 3.49 (.998) |
| Ally (N=194) | 3.46 (1.170) | 3.89 (.937) | 3.42 (1.065) | 3.57 (.957) |

*Standard deviations are in brackets

**Table 2c**

*Male Employee Agreeableness Scores and Effectiveness of Involving Boss Scores Correlation*

| Variables | 1 | 2 |
|---|---|---|
| 1) Effectiveness of involving boss | 1 | .141* |
| 2) Agreeableness | .141* | 1 |

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

**Table 2d**

*Female Employee Agreeableness Scores and Effectiveness of Involving Boss Scores Correlation*

| Variables | 1 | 2 |
|---|---|---|
| 1) Effectiveness of involving boss | 1 | -.075 |
| 2) Agreeableness | -.075 | 1 |

## Effectiveness of Confronting Brandon

### *Hostile and Benevolent Sexism Covariates*

A Three-Way Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) was performed to evaluate whether a prior exposure to allyship, participant gender, and employee gender affected participants' opinion on whether they thought it was effective to confront Brandon over the instance of sexism. The independent variables were employee gender, participant gender, and prior exposure to allyship. The covariates were hostile and benevolent sexism. Analysis was conducted using SPSS version 28.

Table 3a presents the findings of the ANCOVA. Exposure to allyship was significant with $F$ (1, 370) = 8.968, $p$=<0.01. Means suggest that participants exposed to an instance of allyship scored higher on the effectiveness of confronting Brandon scale suggesting they were significantly more likely to think it is effective to confront Brandon compared to participants in the non-allyship condition (refer to Graph 3a). Participant gender was nonsignificant with F (1, 370) =.061, p=.805. Employee gender was also nonsignificant with $F$ (1,370) =.913, $p$=.340. All other covariates and interactions were nonsignificant indicating nonsignificant differences at baseline. Refer to Table 3a. The means for the different conditions are presented in Table 3b.

**Table 3a**

*Analysis of Covariance: Effectiveness of Confronting Brandon, with Hostile and Benevolent Sexism Covariates*

| Predictor | SS | *df* | MS | F | *p* | Partial Eta |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Participants gender | .074 | 1 | .074 | .061 | .805 | .000 |
| Employee gender | 1.109 | 1 | 1.109 | .913 | .340 | .002 |
| Exposure to allyship | 10.902 | 1 | 10.902 | 8.968 | .003** | .024 |
| Participants gender* employee gender | .333 | 1 | .333 | .274 | .601 | .001 |
| Participant gender *exposure to allyship | 2.263 | 1 | 2.263 | 1.861 | .173 | .005 |
| Employee gender*exposure to allyship | .242 | 1 | .242 | .199 | .656 | .001 |
| Participant gender * employee gender *exposure to allyship | .814 | 1 | .814 | .670 | .414 | .002 |
| Hostile sexism | .876 | 1 | .876 | .720 | .397 | .002 |
| Participant gender*hostile sexism | .799 | 1 | .799 | .658 | .418 | .002 |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Employee gender*hostile sexism | .140 | 1 | .140 | .115 | .734 | .000 |
| Exposure to allyship *hostile sexism | .929 | 1 | .929 | .764 | .383 | .002 |
| Benevolent sexism | 3.996 | 1 | 3.996 | 3.287 | .071 | .009 |
| Participant gender* benevolent sexism | 1.880 | 1 | 1.880 | 1.547 | .214 | .004 |
| Employee gender *benevolent sexism | 1.779 | 1 | 1.779 | 1.464 | .227 | .004 |
| Exposure to allyship *benevolent sexism | 2.320 | 1 | 2.320 | 1.909 | .168 | .005 |
| Error | 449.789 | 370 | 1.216 | | | |

* $p < 0.05$
** $p < 0.01$

**Table 3b**

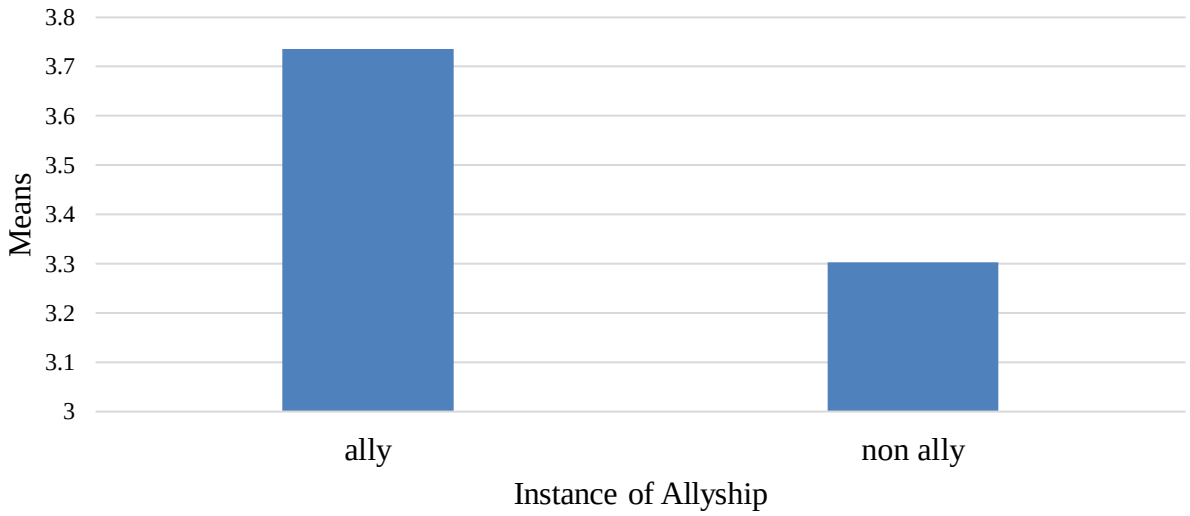
*Means for Analysis of Covariance: Effectiveness of Confronting Brandon, with Hostile and Benevolent Sexism Covariates*

| Gender of participant | Male participant (N=109) | | Female participant (N=277) | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Gender of employee | Male employee | Female employee | Male employee | Female employee |
| Non-Ally (N=192) | 3.41 (1.018) | 3.30 (1.212) | 3.28 (1.056) | 3.27 (1.234) |
| Ally (N=194) | 3.75 (1.076) | 4.05 (.970) | 3.62 (1.100) | 3.50 (1.065) |

*Standard deviations are in brackets

**Graph 3a**

*Means for Exposure to Allyship and Effectiveness of Confronting Brandon*




***HEXACO Factors as Covariates***

A Three-Way Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) was performed to evaluate whether a prior exposure to allyship, participant gender, and gender of an employee affected participants' opinion on whether or not they thought it was effective to confront Brandon over the instance of sexism. The independent variables were employee gender, participant gender, and prior exposure to allyship. Analysis was conducted using SPSS version 28. Covariates were the HEXACO factors.

Table 4a presents the findings of the ANCOVA. Participant gender was nonsignificant with $F$ (1,354) =.323, $p$=.570. Employee gender was nonsignificant with $F$ (1,354) =0.94, $p$=.759. Exposure to allyship was also nonsignificant with $F$ (1, 354) = .848, $p$=.358, all indicating nonsignificant differences at baseline. The interaction between participant gender and prior exposure to allyship was close to significance with $F$ (1,354) =3.776, $p$=.053. There was a significant interaction between participant gender and honesty and humility with $F$ (1,354) =4.221, $p$=<0.05. A Pearson correlation coefficient was calculated on male participants to assess the relationship between their honesty and humility scores and their effectiveness of confronting Brandon scores. There was a negative correlation that was nonsignificant with $r$ (107) = [-.077], $p$ = [.426]. Although it is nonsignificant, the negative correlation here suggests a trend where men with higher honesty and humility think it is less effective to confront Brandon. This is interesting. Does it suggest that men are being honest with themselves about how they feel? Or is it because they are aware of power hierarchies and assume a confrontation would not help? A Pearson correlation coefficient was then calculated on female participants to assess the relationship between their honesty and humility scores and their effectiveness of confronting Brandon scores. There was a positive correlation that was nonsignificant with $r$ (275) = [.027], $p$ = [.651]. Although nonsignificant, the positive correlation suggests that for female participants a trend is evident. Those who have high honesty and humility scores were more likely to think it was effective to confront Brandon compared to those who have low scores of honesty and humility. Conscientiousness as a covariate was also significant with $F$ (1,354) = 5.276, $p$ <.05. This suggests that participants' conscientiousness scores were predictive of whether they thought it was effective to confront Brandon. A Pearson correlation coefficient was calculated to assess the direction of the relationship between participants' conscientiousness scores and their

effectiveness of confronting Brandon scores. There was a nonsignificant positive correlation between the two variables, $r$ (395) = [.070], $p$ = [.163]. Although the correlation was nonsignificant, the positive nature suggests a trend that participants with higher conscientiousness scores were more likely to think it was effective to confront Brandon compared to those with low conscientiousness scores.

There was also a significant interaction between participant gender and conscientiousness scores with $F$ (1, 354) =5.311, $p$=<0.05. A Pearson correlation coefficient was computed on male participants to assess the direction of the relationship between their conscientiousness scores and their opinion on whether they thought it was effective to confront Brandon. There was a positive nonsignificant correlation between the two variables with $r$ (107) = [.159], $p$ = [.098.]. A Pearson correlation coefficient was computed on female participants to assess the direction of the relationship between their conscientiousness scores and their opinion on whether they thought it was effective to confront Brandon. There was a positive nonsignificant correlation between the two variables with $r$ (275) = [.051], $p$ = [.395.]. Although nonsignificant, the positive correlation suggests a trend where both male and female participants with higher conscientiousness scores were more likely to think it was effective to confront Brandon compared to male and female participants with low conscientiousness scores. This trend seems to be stronger for male participants. All other covariates and interactions were nonsignificant. Please refer to Table 4a. The means for the different conditions are presented in Table 4b. Correlations can be found in Table 4c,4d,4e,4f, and 4g.

**Table 4a**

*Analysis of Covariance: Effectiveness of confronting Brandon, with HEXACO Covariates*

| Predictors | SS | *df* | MS | F | *p* | Partial Eta |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Participants gender | .390 | 1 | .390 | .323 | .570 | .001 |
| Employee gender | .114 | 1 | .114 | .094 | .759 | .000 |
| Exposure to allyship | 1.025 | 1 | 1.025 | .848 | .358 | .002 |
| Participants gender*employee gender | .430 | 1 | .430 | .356 | .551 | .001 |
| Participants gender*exposure to allyship | 4.567 | 1 | 4.567 | 3.776 | .053 | .011 |
| Employee gender*exposure to allyship | .191 | 1 | .191 | .158 | .691 | .000 |
| Participant gender*employee gender *exposure to allyship | .073 | 1 | .073 | .060 | .807 | .000 |
| Participants gender*honesty humility | 5.106 | 1 | 5.106 | 4.221 | .041* | .012 |
| Employee gender *honesty humility | 1.026 | 1 | 1.026 | .848 | .358 | .002 |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Exposure to allyship *honesty humility | .108 | 1 | .108 | .089 | .766 | .000 |
| Honesty humility | 4.194 | 1 | 4.194 | 3.467 | .063 | .010 |
| Emotionality | .529 | 1 | .529 | .438 | .509 | .001 |
| Participants gender * emotionality | .348 | 1 | .348 | .287 | .592 | .001 |
| Employee gender *emotionality | 1.455 | 1 | 1.455 | 1.203 | .274 | .003 |
| Exposure to allyship *emotionality | .927 | 1 | .927 | .767 | .382 | .002 |
| Extraversion | 2.023 | 1 | 2.023 | 1.673 | .197 | .005 |
| Participant gender * extraversion | .279 | 1 | .279 | .231 | .631 | .001 |
| Employee gender* extraversion | .421 | 1 | .421 | .348 | .556 | .001 |
| Exposure to allyship *extraversion | .677 | 1 | .677 | .560 | .455 | .002 |
| Agreeableness | .036 | 1 | .036 | .030 | .863 | .000 |
| Participant gender* agreeableness | .490 | 1 | .490 | .405 | .525 | .001 |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Employee gender *agreeableness | .213 | 1 | .213 | .176 | .675 | .000 |
| Exposure to allyship *agreeableness | 1.563 | 1 | 1.563 | 1.292 | .256 | .004 |
| Conscientiousness | 6.381 | 1 | 6.381 | 5.276 | .022* | .015 |
| Participant gender* conscientiousness | 6.423 | 1 | 6.423 | 5.311 | .022* | .015 |
| Employee gender* conscientiousness | .633 | 1 | .633 | .523 | .470 | .001 |
| Exposure to allyship *conscientiousness | 1.264 | 1 | 1.264 | 1.045 | .307 | .003 |
| Openness | 1.250 | 1 | 1.250 | 1.034 | .310 | .003 |
| Participant gender * openness | .359 | 1 | .359 | .297 | .586 | .001 |
| Employee gender *openness | .002 | 1 | .002 | .002 | .969 | .000 |
| Exposure to allyship *openness | 3.811 | 1 | 3.811 | 3.151 | .077 | .009 |
| Error | 428.168 | 354 | 1.210 | | | |

* $p < 0.05$
** $p < 0.01$

**Table 4b**

*Means for Analysis of Covariance: Effectiveness of Confronting Brandon, with HEXACO Covariates*

| Gender of participant | Male participant (N=109) | | Female participant (N=277) | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Gender of employee | Male employee | Female employee | Male employee | Female employee |
| Non-Ally (N=192) | 3.41 (1.018) | 3.30 (1.212) | 3.28 (1.056) | 3.27 (1.234) |
| Ally (N=194) | 3.75 (1.076 | 4.05 (.970) | 3.62 (1.100) | 3.50 (1.065) |

*Standard deviations are in brackets

**Table 4c**

*Male Participants' Honesty Humility Scores and Effectiveness of Confronting Brandon Scores Correlation*

| Variables | 1 | 2 |
|---|---|---|
| 1) Effectiveness of confronting Brandon. | 1 | -.077 |
| 2) Honesty humility | -.077 | 1 |

**Table 4d**

*Female Participants' Honesty Humility Scores and Effectiveness of Confronting Brandon Scores Correlation*

| Variables | 1 | 2 |
|---|---|---|
| 1) Effectiveness of confronting Brandon. | 1 | .027 |
| 2) Honesty humility | .027 | 1 |

**Table 4e**

*Conscientiousness Scores and Effectiveness of Confronting Brandon Scores Correlation*

| Variables | 1 | 2 |
|---|---|---|
| 1) Effectiveness of confronting Brandon | 1 | .070 |
| 2) Conscientiousness | .070 | 1 |

**Table 4f**

*Male Participants' Conscientiousness Scores and Effectiveness of Confronting Brandon Scores Correlation*

| Variables | 1 | 2 |
|---|---|---|
| 1) Effectiveness of confronting Brandon | 1 | .159 |
| 2) Conscientiousness | .159 | 1 |

**Table 4g**
*Female Participants' Conscientiousness Scores and Effectiveness of Confronting Brandon Scores Correlation*

| Variables | 1 | 2 |
|---|---|---|
| 1) Effectiveness of confronting Brandon. | 1 | .051 |
| 2) Conscientiousness | .051 | 1 |

**Supporting Madison Composite**

***Hostile and Benevolent Sexism as Covariates***

A Three-Way Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) was performed to evaluate whether a prior exposure to allyship, participant gender, and gender of an employee affected participants' opinion on whether they were comfortable supporting Madison. The independent variables were employee gender, participant gender, and prior exposure to allyship. The covariates were hostile and benevolent sexism. Analysis was conducted using SPSS version 28.

Table 5a presents the findings of the ANCOVA. Employee gender was significant with $F$ (1,372) = 4.717, $p$=<0.05 indicating a significant predictor. Means suggest that participants exposed to a female employee were more comfortable supporting Madison than participants exposed to a male employee (refer to graph 5a). Participant gender was nonsignificant with $F$ (1,372) =.003, $p$=.957. Exposure to allyship was also nonsignificant, with $F$ (1, 372) =3.209, $p$=.074, both indicating nonsignificant differences at baseline. Hostile sexism as a covariate was significant with $F$ (1,372) = 18.202, $p$=<0.001 suggesting that participants' hostile sexism scores were predictive of whether they were comfortable supporting Madison. A Pearson correlation coefficient was computed to assess the direction of the relationship between participants' hostile sexism scores and supporting Madison scores. There was a significant negative correlation between the two variables, $r$ (396) = [-.183], $p$ = [<.001], suggesting that participants with high

hostile sexism scores were significantly less comfortable supporting Madison compared to those with low hostile sexism scores. Benevolent sexism was also significant with $F$ (1,372) = 6.352, $p$=<0.05 suggesting that participants' benevolent sexism scores were also predictive of their supporting Madison scores. A Pearson correlation coefficient was computed to assess the direction of the relationship between participants' benevolent sexism scores and supporting Madison. There was nonsignificant negative correlation between the two variables, $r$ (396) = [-.005], $p$ = [.924]. Although nonsignificant, the negative correlation suggests a trend that participants with high benevolent sexism scores were significantly less comfortable supporting Madison than those with low benevolent sexism scores. The interaction between prior exposure to allyship and benevolent sexism was close to significant with $F$ (1,372) = 3.673, $p$=.056. All other interactions were nonsignificant. Please refer to Table 5a. The means for the different conditions are presented in Table 5b. Correlations can be found in Tables 5c and 5d.

**Table 5a**

*Analysis of Covariance: Supporting Madison, with Hostile and Benevolent Sexism Covariates*

| Predictors | SS | *df* | MS | F | *p* | Partial Eta |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Participant gender | .003 | 1 | .003 | .003 | .957 | .000 |
| Employee gender | 5.616 | 1 | 5.616 | 4.717 | .030* | .013 |
| Exposure to allyship | 3.821 | 1 | 3.821 | 3.209 | .074 | .009 |
| Participant gender*gender of employee | .340 | 1 | .340 | .285 | .594 | .001 |
| Participant gender*exposure to allyship | .127 | 1 | .127 | .106 | .744 | .000 |
| Employee gender *exposure to allyship | .079 | 1 | .079 | .067 | .796 | .000 |
| Participant gender*employee gender*exposure to allyship | .930 | 1 | .930 | .781 | .377 | .002 |
| Hostile sexism | 21.671 | 1 | 21.671 | 18.202 | <.001** | .047 |
| Participant gender*hostile sexism | 3.654 | 1 | 3.654 | 3.069 | .081 | .008 |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Employee gender *hostile sexism | 2.451 | 1 | 2.451 | 2.059 | .152 | .006 |
| Exposure to allyship *hostile sexism | .067 | 1 | .067 | .056 | .813 | .000 |
| Benevolent sexism | 7.562 | 1 | 7.562 | 6.352 | .012* | .017 |
| Participant gender * benevolent sexism | 2.012 | 1 | 2.012 | 1.690 | .194 | .005 |
| Gender of employee * benevolent sexism | 1.574 | 1 | 1.574 | 1.322 | .251 | .004 |
| Exposure to allyship *benevolent sexism | 4.373 | 1 | 4.373 | 3.673 | .056 | .010 |
| Error | 442.903 | 372 | 1.191 | | | |

* $p < 0.05$
** $p < 0.01$

**Table 5b**

*Means for Analysis of Covariance: Supporting Madison, with Hostile and Benevolent Sexism Covariates*

| Gender of participant | Male participant (N=110) | | Female participant (N=278) | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Gender of employee | Male employee | Female employee | Male employee | Female employee |
| Non-Ally (N=193) | 3.3167 (.95125) | 3.3485 (1.10032) | 3.3582 (1.11738) | 3.3571 (1.06418) |
| Ally (N=195) | 3.2500 (1.24350) | 3.2632 (1.26237) | 3.3451 (1.24669) | 3.4805 (1.04012) |

*Standard deviations are in brackets

**Table 5c**

*Hostile Sexism Scores and Supporting Madison Scores Correlation*

| Variables | 1 | 2 |
|---|---|---|
| 1) hostile sexism | 1 | -.183** |
| 2) supporting Madison | -.183** | 1 |

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

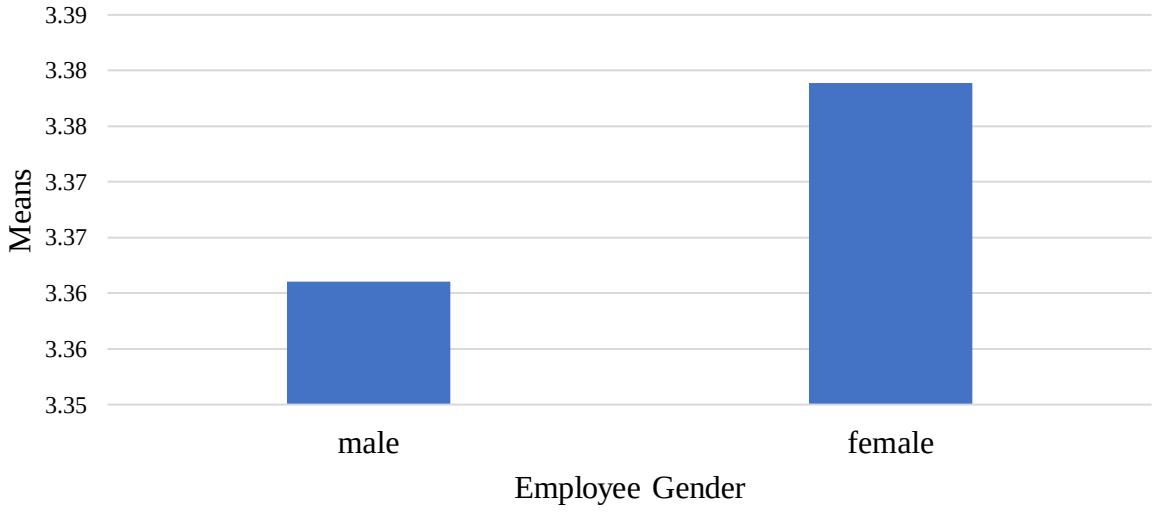
**Table 5d**

*Benevolent Sexism Scores and Supporting Madison Scores Correlation*

| Variables | 1 | 2 |
|---|---|---|
| 1) benevolent sexism | 1 | -.005 |
| 2) supporting Madison | -.005 | 1 |

**Graph 5a**

*Employee Gender and Supporting Madison*



***HEXACO Factors as Covariates***

A Three-Way Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) was performed to evaluate whether a prior exposure to allyship, participant gender, and gender of an employee affected participants' opinion on whether they were comfortable supporting Madison. The independent variables were employee gender, participant gender, and prior exposure to allyship. The covariates were the HEXACO factors. Analysis was conducted using SPSS version 28.

Table 6a presents the findings of the ANCOVA. Participant gender was nonsignificant with $F$ (1,356) =1.961, $p$=.162. Employee gender was nonsignificant with $F$ (1,356) =.935, $p$=.334. Prior exposure to allyship was also nonsignificant with $F$ (1,356) = .166, $p$=.684, all indicating nonsignificant differences at baseline. Emotionality was significant with $F$ (1,356) = 10.603, $p$=<0.01 suggesting that participants' emotionality scores were predictive of their supporting Madison scores. A Pearson correlation coefficient was calculated to assess the direction of the linear relationship between participants' emotionality scores and their supporting Madison scores. There was a significant positive correlation between the two variables, $r$ (397) = [.153], $p$ = [.002] suggesting that participants with high emotionality scores were significantly more comfortable supporting Madison compared to participants with low emotionality scores. The interaction between participants' gender and openness was also significant with $F$ (1,356) =4.355, $p$=<0.05. A Pearson correlation coefficient was calculated on male participants to assess the direction of the linear relationship between their emotionality scores and supporting Madison scores. There was a significant positive correlation between the two variables, $r$ (108) = [.198], $p$ = [.038] suggesting that male participants with high openness scores were significantly more comfortable supporting Madison than male participants with low openness scores. A Pearson correlation coefficient was calculated on female participants to assess the direction of the linear relationship between their emotionality scores and supporting Madison scores. There was a

nonsignificant negative correlation between the two variables, $r$ (276) = [-.052], $p$ = [.385]. Although nonsignificant, the negative correlation suggests a trend that female participants with high openness scores were less comfortable supporting Madison compared to female participants with low openness scores. All other covariates and interactions were nonsignificant. Refer to Table 6a. The means for the different conditions are presented in Table 6b. Correlations can be found in tables 6c,6d, and 6e.

**Table 6a**

*Analysis of Covariance: Supporting Madison, with HEXACO Covariates*

| Predictors | SS | *df* | MS | F | *p* | Partial Eta |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Participant gender | 2.423 | 1 | 2.423 | 1.961 | .162 | .005 |
| Employee gender | 1.156 | 1 | 1.156 | .935 | .334 | .003 |
| Exposure to allyship | .205 | 1 | .205 | .166 | .684 | .000 |
| Participant gender *employee gender | .668 | 1 | .668 | .541 | .463 | .002 |
| Participant gender *exposure to allyship | .124 | 1 | .124 | .100 | .752 | .000 |
| Employee gender *exposure to allyship | .345 | 1 | .345 | .279 | .598 | .001 |
| Participant gender *employee gender *exposure to allyship | 2.022 | 1 | 2.022 | 1.637 | .202 | .005 |
| Participant gender* honesty humility | .027 | 1 | .027 | .022 | .882 | .000 |
| Employee gender *honesty humility | .129 | 1 | .129 | .104 | .747 | .000 |
| Exposure to allyship *honesty humility | .348 | 1 | .348 | .282 | .596 | .001 |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Honesty humility | .616 | 1 | .616 | .499 | .481 | .001 |
| Emotionality | 13.101 | 1 | 13.101 | 10.603 | .001** | .029 |
| Participants gender *emotionality | .164 | 1 | .164 | .133 | .716 | .000 |
| Employee gender *emotionality | .082 | 1 | .082 | .066 | .797 | .000 |
| Exposure to allyship *emotionality | .025 | 1 | .025 | .020 | .886 | .000 |
| Extraversion | 4.224 | 1 | 4.224 | 3.419 | .065 | .010 |
| Participant gender *extraversion | 8.145E-7 | 1 | 8.145E-7 | .000 | .999 | .000 |
| Employee gender* extraversion | 1.140 | 1 | 1.140 | .923 | .337 | .003 |
| Exposure to allyship *extraversion | .065 | 1 | .065 | .052 | .819 | .000 |
| Agreeableness | 1.208 | 1 | 1.208 | .978 | .323 | .003 |
| Participant gender *agreeableness | .037 | 1 | .037 | .030 | .863 | .000 |
| Employee gender* agreeableness | .002 | 1 | .002 | .002 | .965 | .000 |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Exposure to allyship *agreeableness | .006 | 1 | .006 | .005 | .946 | .000 |
| Conscientiousness | 1.394 | 1 | 1.394 | 1.128 | .289 | .003 |
| Participant gender *conscientiousness | .673 | 1 | .673 | .545 | .461 | .002 |
| Employee gender *conscientiousness | 1.219 | 1 | 1.219 | .986 | .321 | .003 |
| Exposure to allyship *conscientiousness | .335 | 1 | .335 | .271 | .603 | .001 |
| Openness | .802 | 1 | .802 | .649 | .421 | .002 |
| Participants gender *openness | 5.381 | 1 | 5.381 | 4.355 | .038* | .012 |
| Employee gender* openness | .025 | 1 | .025 | .020 | .888 | .000 |
| Exposure to allyship *openness | .753 | 1 | .753 | .610 | .435 | .002 |
| Error | 439.875 | 356 | 1.236 | | | |

* $p < 0.05$
** $p < 0.01$

**Table 6b**

*Means for Analysis of Covariance: Supporting Madison, with HEXACO Covariates*

| Gender of participant | Male participant (N=110) | | Female participant (N=278) | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Gender of employee | Male employee | Female employee | Male employee | Female employee |
| Non-Ally (N=193) | 3.3167 (.95125) | 3.3485 (1.10032) | 3.3582 (1.11738) | 3.3571 (1.06418) |
| Ally (N=195) | 3.2500 (1.24350) | 3.2632 (1.26237) | 3.3451 (1.24669) | 3.4805 (1.04012) |

*Standard deviations are in brackets

**Table 6c**

*Emotionally Scores and Supporting Madison Scores Correlation*

| Variables | 1 | 2 |
|---|---|---|
| 1) Supporting Madison | 1 | .153** |
| 2) Emotionality | .153** | 1 |

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

**Table 6d**

*Male Participants' Openness Scores and Supporting Madison Scores Correlation*

| | 1 | 2 |
|---|---|---|
| 1) Supporting Madison | 1 | .198* |
| 2) Openness | .198* | 1 |

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

**Table 6e**

*Female Participants' Openness Scores and Supporting Madison Scores Correlation*

| | 1 | 2 |
|---|---|---|
| 1) Supporting Madison | 1 | -.052 |
| 2) Openness | -.052 | 1 |

## Supporting Brandon Composite

### *Hostile and Benevolent Sexism as Covariates*

A Three-Way Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) was performed to evaluate whether prior exposure to allyship, participants gender, and gender of an employee affected participants' opinion on whether they were comfortable supporting Brandon. The independent variables were

employee gender, participant gender, and prior exposure to allyship. The covariates were hostile sexism and benevolent sexism. Analysis was conducted using SPSS version 28.

Table 7a presents the findings of the ANCOVA. Participant gender was nonsignificant with $F$ (1,372) = .137, $p$=.711. Employee gender was nonsignificant with $F$ (1,372) = .054, $p$=.817. Prior exposure to allyship was also nonsignificant with $F$ (1,371) =1.515, $p$=.219, all indicating nonsignificant differences at baseline. The interaction between participant gender and prior exposure to allyship was significant with $F$ (1,372) =4.213, $p$=<0.05. Means suggested that male participants in the non-allyship condition were more comfortable supporting Brandon than all other conditions. Although this may be discouraging, it suggests how men may behave in the absence of inclusive measures and behaviour (refer to graph 7a). The covariate hostile sexism was also significant with $F$ (1,372) = 45.011, $p$=<0.001 suggesting that participants' hostile sexism scores were predictive of whether they were comfortable supporting Brandon. A Pearson correlation coefficient was computed to assess the direction of the linear relationship between participants' hostile sexism scores and their supporting Brandon scores. There was a significant positive correlation between the two variables, $r$ (396) = [.373], $p$ = [<.001] suggesting that participants with high hostile sexism scores were significantly more comfortable supporting Brandon compared to participants with low hostile sexism scores. The interaction between participant gender and hostile sexism was also significant with $F$ (1, 372) =4.976, $p$=<0.026. A Pearson correlation coefficient was calculated on male participants to assess the direction of the linear relationship between their hostile sexism scores and their supporting Brandon scores. There was a significant positive correlation between the two variables, $r$ (108) = [.464], $p$ = [<.001] suggesting that male participants with high scores of hostile sexism were significantly more comfortable supporting Brandon than those male participants with low scores of hostile

sexism. A Pearson correlation coefficient was then calculated on female participants to assess the direction of the linear relationship between their hostile sexism scores and their supporting Brandon scores. There was a significant positive correlation between the two variables, $r$ (276) = [.290], $p$ = [<.001] suggesting that female participants with high scores of hostile sexism were also significantly more comfortable supporting Brandon compared to female participants with low scores of hostile sexism. All other covariates and interactions were nonsignificant. Refer to Table 7a. The means for the different conditions are presented in Table 7b. Correlations can be found in Tables 7d, 7e, and 7f.

**Table 7a**

*Analysis of Covariance: Supporting Brandon, with Hostile and Benevolent Sexism Covariates*

| Predictor | SS | *df* | MS | F | *p* | Partial Eta |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Participant gender | .075 | 1 | .075 | .137 | .711 | .000 |
| Employee gender | .029 | 1 | .029 | .054 | .817 | .000 |
| Exposure to allyship | .830 | 1 | .830 | 1.515 | .219 | .004 |
| Participant gender* employee gender | .728 | 1 | .728 | 1.330 | .250 | .004 |
| Participant gender*exposure to allyship | 2.308 | 1 | 2.308 | 4.213 | .041* | .011 |
| Employee gender *exposure to allyship | 1.043 | 1 | 1.043 | 1.904 | .168 | .005 |
| Participant gender *employee gender*exposure to allyship | 1.271 | 1 | 1.271 | 2.320 | .129 | .006 |
| Hostile sexism | 25.011 | 1 | 25.011 | 45.666 | <.001** | .109 |
| Participant gender*hostile sexism | 2.725 | 1 | 2.725 | 4.976 | .026* | .013 |
| Employee gender *hostile sexism | .538 | 1 | .538 | .983 | .322 | .003 |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Exposure to allyship *hostile sexism | .040 | 1 | .040 | .073 | .787 | .000 |
| Benevolent sexism | .181 | 1 | .181 | .330 | .566 | .001 |
| Participant gender* benevolent sexism | .413 | 1 | .413 | .755 | .386 | .002 |
| Employee gender* benevolent sexism | .537 | 1 | .537 | .980 | .323 | .003 |
| Exposure to allyship *benevolent sexism | .477 | 1 | .477 | .872 | .351 | .002 |
| Error | 203.738 | 372 | .548 | | | |

* $p < 0.05$
** $p < 0.01$

**Table 7b**

*Means for Analysis of Covariance: Supporting Brandon, with Hostile and Benevolent Sexism Covariates*

| Gender of participant | Male participant (N=110) | | Female participant (N=278) | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Gender of employee | Male employee | Female employee | Male employee | Female employee |
| Non-Ally (N=193) | 1.9500 (.82629) | 2.2348 (1.06423) | 1.6119 (.72729) | 1.6984 (.63207) |
| Ally (N=195) | 2.0000 (1.00692) | 1.4737 (.61742) | 1.6338 (.71941) | 1.7597 (.80545) |

*Standard deviations are in brackets

**Graph 7a**

*Participant Gender and Exposure to Allyship Supporting Brandon Composite*

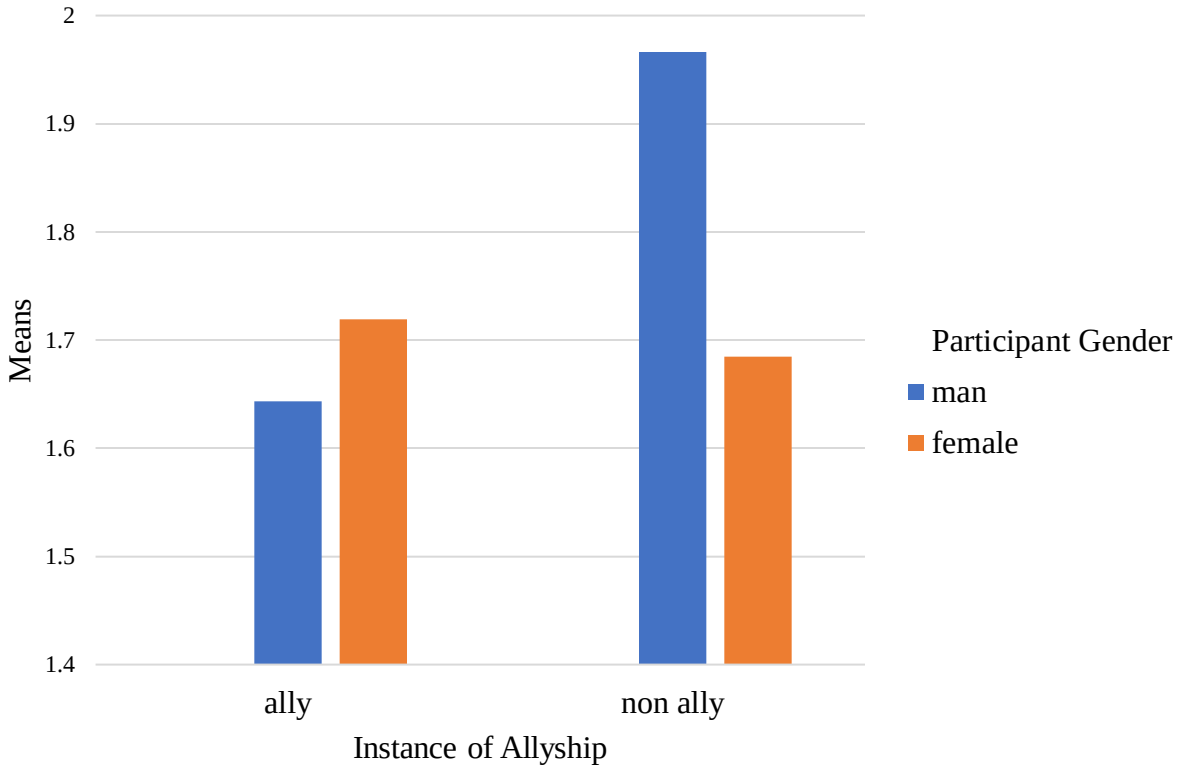



**Table 7d**

*Hostile Sexism and Supporting Brandon Correlation*

| Variables | 1 | 2 |
|---|---|---|
| 1) hostile sexism | 1 | .373** |
| 2) supporting Brandon composite | .373** | 1 |

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

**Table 7e**

*Male Participants' Hostile Sexism Scores and Supporting Brandon Correlation*

| | 1 | 2 |
|---|---|---|
| 1) Hostile sexism | 1 | .464** |
| 2) Supporting Brandon | .464** | 1 |

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

**Table 7f**

*Female Participants' Hostile Sexism Scores and Supporting Brandon Scores Correlation*

| | 1 | 2 |
|---|---|---|
| 1) Hostile sexism | 1 | .290** |
| 2) Supporting Brandon | .290** | 1 |

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

***HEXACO Factors as Covariates***

A Three-Way Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) was performed to evaluate whether prior exposure to allyship, participants' gender, and the gender of an employee affected participants' opinion on whether they were comfortable supporting Brandon. The independent variables were employee gender, participant gender, and prior exposure to allyship. The covariates were the HEXACO factors. Analysis was conducted using SPSS version 28.

Table 8a presents the findings of the ANCOVA. The participant gender was nonsignificant with $F$ (1,356) =3.397, $p$=.066. Employee gender was nonsignificant with $F$ (1,356) =1.127, $p$=.289. Prior exposure to allyship was also nonsignificant with $F$ (1,356) =.253, $p$=.615, all indicating nonsignificant differences at baseline. The interaction between employee gender and honesty and humility covariate was significant with $F$ (1,356) =9.290, $p$=<0.01.

A Pearson correlation coefficient was calculated on participants exposed to a male employee to assess the linear relationship between their honesty and humility scores and their supporting Brandon scores. A significant negative correlation between the two variables was found, $r$ (199) = [-.287], $p$ = [<.001] suggesting that participant who had high scores of honesty

and humility and were exposed to a male employee were significantly less comfortable supporting Brandon compared to participants with low honesty humility scores who were exposed to a male employee.

A Pearson correlation coefficient was then computed on participants exposed to a female employee to assess the direction of the linear relation between their honesty and humility scores and supporting Brandon scores. There was a significant negative correlation between the two variables, $r$ (196) = [-.412], $p$ = [<.001], suggesting a similar but stronger finding that participants who had high scores of honesty and humility and were exposed to a female employee were significantly less comfortable supporting Brandon compared to those with low honesty and humility scores who were exposed to a female employee. The honesty and humility covariate was also significant with $F$ (1, 356) = 19.469, $p$=<0.001 which suggests that participants' honesty and humility scores were predictive of their supporting Brandon scores.

A Pearson correlation coefficient was computed to assess the linear relationship between participants' honesty and humility scores and their supporting Brandon scores. There was a significant negative correlation between the two variables with $r$ (397) = [-.345], $p$ = [<.001] suggesting that participants with high honesty and humility scores were significantly less comfortable supporting Brandon compared to participants with low honesty humility scores.

The emotionality covariate was also significant with $F$ (1,356) = 19.878, $p$=<0.001, suggesting that participants' emotionality scores were predictive of their supporting Brandon scores. A Pearson correlation coefficient was computed to assess the direction of the linear relationship between emotionality scores and supporting Brandon scores. There was a significant negative correlation between the two variables with $r$ (397) = [-.198], $p$ = [<.001] suggesting that

participants with high emotionality scores were significantly less comfortable supporting Brandon than participants with lower emotionality scores.

The interaction between participants' gender and agreeableness was also significant with $F$ (1,356) = 4.169, $p$ = <0.05. A Pearson correlation coefficient was computed on male participants to assess the direction of the linear relationship between their agreeableness scores and supporting Brandon scores. There was a nonsignificant negative correlation between the two variables, $r$ (108) = [-.145], $p$ = [.131]. Although nonsignificant, the negative nature of this correlation is interesting. Could men who support Brandon be low on agreeableness because they may be aware they are supporting someone confrontational, causing problems amongst coworkers, and possibly aware of the controversial nature of the comment?

A Pearson correlation coefficient was then computed on female participants to assess the direction of the linear relationship between their agreeableness scores and supporting Brandon scores. There was a significant negative correlation between the two variables with $r$ (276) = [-.137], $p$ = [.022], suggesting that female participants with high agreeableness scores were significantly less comfortable supporting Brandon compared to female participants with low agreeableness scores. This is interesting and may be because women may be more inclined to pick up instances of gender bias. They may be more aware of the nature of the comment and feel that to support a sexist perpetrator in a way is a show of a lack of solidarity and not agreeable.

Conscientiousness was also significant with $F$ (1,356) = 22.286, $p$ = <0.001 suggesting that participants' conscientiousness scores were predictive of their supporting Brandon scores. A Pearson correlation coefficient was computed to assess the direction of the linear relationship between conscientiousness and supporting Brandon scores. There was a significant negative correlation between the two variables, $r$ (397) = [-.338], $p$ = [<.001], suggesting that participants

with high conscientiousness scores were significantly less comfortable supporting Brandon compared to participants with low conscientiousness scores. The interaction between participant gender and conscientiousness was also significant with $F$ (1,356) =6.681, $p$=.010. A Pearson correlation coefficient was computed on male participants to assess the direction of the linear relationship between their conscientiousness scores and their supporting Brandon scores. There was a significant negative correlation between the two variables, $r$ (208) = [-.461], $p$ = [<.001] suggesting that male participants with high conscientiousness scores were significantly less likely to support Brandon than male participants with low conscientiousness scores.

A Pearson correlation coefficient was then computed on female participants to assess the direction of the linear relationship between their conscientiousness scores and their supporting Brandon scores. There was also a significant negative correlation between the two variables, $r$ (276) = [-.278], $p$ = [<.001]. These correlations suggest that for both male and female participants, those with higher conscientiousness scores were significantly less likely to support Brandon than those with low conscientiousness scores.

Lastly, openness as a covariate was significant with $F$ (1,356) = 16.025, $p$= <0.001 suggesting that participants' openness scores were predictive of their supporting Brandon scores. A Pearson correlation coefficient was computed to assess the direction of the linear relationship between participants openness scores and their supporting Brandon scores. There was a significant negative correlation between the two variables with, $r$ (397) = [-.216], $p$ = [<.001], suggesting that participants with high openness scores were significantly more comfortable supporting Brandon compared to participants with low openness scores. All other covariates and interactions were nonsignificant. Refer to Table 8a. The means for the different conditions are presented in Table 8b. Correlations can be found in tables 8c- 8l.

**Table 8a**

*Analysis of Covariance: Supporting Brandon, with HEXACO covariates*

| Predictors | SS | *df* | MS | F | *p* | Partial Eta |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Participant gender | 1.635 | 1 | 1.635 | 3.397 | .066 | .009 |
| Employee gender | .542 | 1 | .542 | 1.127 | .289 | .003 |
| Exposure to allyship | .122 | 1 | .122 | .253 | .615 | .001 |
| Participant gender* employee gender | .094 | 1 | .094 | .195 | .659 | .001 |
| Participant gender*exposure to allyship | .850 | 1 | .850 | 1.766 | .185 | .005 |
| Employee gender *exposure to allyship | .636 | 1 | .636 | 1.321 | .251 | .004 |
| Participant gender* employee gender* exposure to allyship | .206 | 1 | .206 | .427 | .514 | .001 |
| Participant gender*honesty humility | .315 | 1 | .315 | .654 | .419 | .002 |
| Employee gender *honesty humility | 4.473 | 1 | 4.473 | 9.290 | .002** | .025 |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Exposure to allyship *honesty humility | .306 | 1 | .306 | .635 | .426 | .002 |
| Honesty humility | 9.374 | 1 | 9.374 | 19.469 | <.001** | .052 |
| Emotionality | 9.571 | 1 | 9.571 | 19.878 | <.001** | .053 |
| Participant gender *emotionality | .617 | 1 | .617 | 1.281 | .258 | .004 |
| Employee gender *emotionality | .523 | 1 | .523 | 1.085 | .298 | .003 |
| Exposure to allyship *emotionality | .042 | 1 | .042 | .088 | .767 | .000 |
| Extraversion | .784 | 1 | .784 | 1.628 | .203 | .005 |
| Participants gender* extraversion | .403 | 1 | .403 | .837 | .361 | .002 |
| Employee gender *extraversion | .032 | 1 | .032 | .067 | .796 | .000 |
| Exposure to allyship *extraversion | .091 | 1 | .091 | .188 | .664 | .001 |
| Agreeableness | .785 | 1 | .785 | 1.630 | .203 | .005 |
| Participant gender* agreeableness | 2.007 | 1 | 2.007 | 4.169 | .042* | .012 |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Employee gender *agreeableness | .080 | 1 | .080 | .167 | .683 | .000 |
| Exposure to allyship *agreeableness | .550 | 1 | .550 | 1.142 | .286 | .003 |
| Conscientiousness | 10.731 | 1 | 10.731 | 22.286 | <.001** | .059 |
| Participants gender* conscientiousness | 3.217 | 1 | 3.217 | 6.681 | .010* | .018 |
| Employee gender *conscientiousness | .060 | 1 | .060 | .126 | .723 | .000 |
| Exposure to allyship *conscientiousness | .144 | 1 | .144 | .299 | .585 | .001 |
| Openness | 7.716 | 1 | 7.716 | 16.025 | <.001** | .043 |
| Participant gender*openness | .015 | 1 | .015 | .032 | .858 | .000 |
| Employee gender *openness | .339 | 1 | .339 | .704 | .402 | .002 |
| Exposure to allyship* openness | .035 | 1 | .035 | .072 | .789 | .000 |
| Error | 171.412 | 356 | .481 | | | |

* $p < 0.05$
** $p < 0.01$

**Table 8b**

*Means for Analysis of Covariance: Supporting Brandon, HEXACO Covariates*

| Gender of participant | Male participant (N=110) | | Female participant (N=278) | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Gender of employee | Male employee | Female employee | Male employee | Female employee |
| Non-Ally (N=193) | 1.9500 (.82629) | 2.2348 (1.06423) | 1.6119 (.72729) | 1.6984 (.63207) |
| Ally (N=195) | 2.0000 (1.00692) | 1.4737 (.61742) | 1.6338 (.71941) | 1.7597 (.80545) |

*Standard deviations are in brackets

**Table 8c**

*Male Employee Honesty Humility and Supporting Brandon Correlation*

| | 1 | 2 |
|---|---|---|
| 1) supporting Brandon | 1 | -.287** |
| 2) Honesty Humility | -.287** | 1 |

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

**Table 8d**

*Female Employee Honesty Humility and Supporting Brandon Correlation*

| | 1 | 2 |
|---|---|---|
| 1) supporting Brandon | 1 | -.412** |
| 2) Honesty Humility | -.412** | 1 |

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

**Table 8e**

*Honesty Humility and Supporting Brandon Correlation*

| | 1 | 2 |
|---|---|---|
| 1) Supporting Brandon | 1 | -.345** |
| 2) Honesty Humility | -.345** | 1 |

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

**Table 8f**

*Emotionality and Supporting Brandon Correlation*

| | 1 | 2 |
|---|---|---|
| 1) Supporting Brandon | 1 | -.198** |
| 2) Emotionality | -.198** | 1 |

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

**Table 8g**

*Male Participants' Agreeableness Scores and Supporting Brandon Correlation*

| Variables | 1 | 2 |
|---|---|---|
| 1) Supporting Brandon | 1 | -.145 |
| 2) Agreeableness | -.145 | 1 |

**Table 8h**

*Female Participants' Agreeableness Scores and Supporting Brandon Correlation*

| Variables | 1 | 2 |
|---|---|---|
| 1) Supporting Brandon | 1 | -.137* |
| 2) Agreeableness | -.137* | 1 |

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

**Table 8i**

*Conscientiousness Scores and Supporting Brandon Correlation*

| Variables | 1 | 2 |
|---|---|---|
| 1) Supporting Brandon | 1 | -.338** |
| 2) Conscientiousness | -.338** | 1 |

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

**Table 8j**

*Male Participants' Conscientiousness Scores and Supporting Brandon Correlation*

| | 1 | 2 |
|---|---|---|
| 1) Supporting Brandon | 1 | -.461** |
| 2) Conscientiousness | -.461** | 1 |

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

**Table 8k**

*Female Participants Conscientiousness Scores and Supporting Brandon Correlation*

| | 1 | 2 |
|---|---|---|
| 1) Supporting Brandon | 1 | -.278** |
| 2) Conscientiousness | -.278** | 1 |

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

**Table 8l**

*Openness Scores and Supporting Brandon Correlation*

| Variables | 1 | 2 |
|---|---|---|
| 1) Supporting Brandon | 1 | -.216** |
| 2) Openness | -.216** | 1 |

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

## Confronting Brandon Composite

### *Hostile and Benevolent Sexism Covariates*

A Three-Way Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) was performed to evaluate whether prior exposure to allyship, participants' gender, and employee gender affected participants'

opinion on whether they were comfortable confronting Brandon. The independent variables were employee gender, participant gender, and prior exposure to allyship. The covariates were hostile and benevolent sexism. Analysis was conducted using SPSS version 28.

Table 9a presents the findings of the ANCOVA. The participant gender was nonsignificant with $F$ (1,372) = .002, $p$=.968. Employee gender was nonsignificant with $F$ (1,372) =.648, $p$=.422. Prior exposure to allyship was also nonsignificant with $F$ (1,372) =1.826, $p$=.177, all indicating nonsignificant differences at baseline. Benevolent sexism as a covariate was significant with $F$ (1,372) = 9.135, $p$=<0.01 suggesting that participants' benevolent sexism scores were predictive of their confronting Brandon's scores. A Pearson correlation coefficient was computed to assess the linear relationship between participants' benevolent sexism scores and their confronting Brandon scores. There was a significant positive correlation between the two variables, $r$ (397) = [.149], $p$ = [.003], suggesting that participants with higher benevolent sexism scores were significantly more comfortable confronting Brandon compared to participants with low benevolent sexism scores. This is interesting and reflects the paternalistic nature of benevolent sexism. It may reveal or suggest possible motivation for the confrontation; wanting to be the man who stepped up and saved the day, a savior to women who need help. All other covariates and interactions were nonsignificant. Refer to Table 9a. The means for the different conditions are presented in Table 9b. Correlation can be found in table 9c.

**Table 9a**

*Analysis of Covariance: Confronting Brandon Composite, Hostile and Benevolent Sexism*

| Predictor | SS | *df* | MS | F | *p* | Partial Eta |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Participant gender | .001 | 1 | .001 | .002 | .968 | .000 |
| Employee gender | .575 | 1 | .575 | .648 | .422 | .002 |
| Exposure to allyship | 1.621 | 1 | 1.621 | 1.826 | .177 | .005 |
| Participant gender*employee gender | .095 | 1 | .095 | .107 | .744 | .000 |
| Participant gender*exposure to allyship | .002 | 1 | .002 | .002 | .964 | .000 |
| Employee gender*exposure to allyship | .750 | 1 | .750 | .845 | .359 | .002 |
| Participant gender* employee gender*exposure to allyship | 1.093 | 1 | 1.093 | 1.232 | .268 | .003 |
| Hostile sexism | .598 | 1 | .598 | .674 | .412 | .002 |
| Participant gender *hostile sexism | 2.337 | 1 | 2.337 | 2.633 | .105 | .007 |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Employee gender*hostile sexism | 1.014 | 1 | 1.014 | 1.143 | .286 | .003 |
| Exposure to allyship *hostile sexism | 1.375 | 1 | 1.375 | 1.549 | .214 | .004 |
| benevolent sexism | 8.108 | 1 | 8.108 | 9.135 | .003* | .024 |
| Participant gender* benevolent sexism | 2.279 | 1 | 2.279 | 2.568 | .110 | .007 |
| Employee gender*benevolent sexism | 2.312 | 1 | 2.312 | 2.605 | .107 | .007 |
| Exposure to allyship *benevolent sexism | .004 | 1 | .004 | .005 | .944 | .000 |
| Error | 330.157 | 372 | .888 | | | |

* $p < 0.05$
** $p < 0.01$

**Table 9b**

*Means for Analysis of Covariance: Confronting Brandon, with Hostile and Benevolent Sexism Covariates*

| Gender of participant | Male participant (N=110) | | Female participant (N=278) | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Gender of employee | Male employee | Female employee | Male employee | Female employee |
| Non-Ally (N=193) | 3.2444 (.78263) | 3.0202 (.95357) | 2.8806 (.88895) | 2.8836 (1.01098) |
| Ally (N=195) | 3.0714 (1.01979) | 3.4035 (.75014) | 3.0563 (.99998) | 3.0303 (.98702) |

*Standard deviations are in brackets

**Table 9c**

*Benevolent Sexism Scores and Confronting Brandon Scored Correlation*

| | 1 | 2 |
|---|---|---|
| 1) Confronting Brandon | 1 | .149** |
| 2) Benevolent sexism | .149** | 1 |

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

***HEXACO Factors as Covariates***

A Three-Way Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) was performed to evaluate whether prior exposure to allyship, participants' gender, and gender of an employee affected participants' opinion on whether they were comfortable confronting Brandon. The independent variables were employee gender, participant gender, and prior exposure to allyship. The covariates were the HEXACO factors. Analysis was conducted using SPSS version 28.

Table 10a presents the findings of the ANCOVA. The participant gender was nonsignificant with $F$ (1,356) = 2.491, $p$=.115. The employee gender was nonsignificant with $F$ (1,356) =1.788, $p$=.182. Prior exposure to allyship was also nonsignificant with $F$ (1,356) =.370, $p$=.543, all indicating nonsignificant differences at baseline. Honesty and Humility as a covariate was significant with $F$ (1,356) =4.992, $p$=<0.05 suggesting that a person's honesty and humility scores were predictive of their confronting Brandon scores. A Pearson correlation coefficient

was computed to assess the linear relationship between a participants' honesty and humility scores and their confronting Brandon scores. A nonsignificant negative correlation was found with, $r$ (397) = [-.048], $p$ = [.341]. The interaction between participant gender and honesty and humility was significant with $F$ (1,356) =4.288, $p$=<0.05. A Pearson correlation coefficient was computed on male participants to assess the linear relationship between their honesty and humility scores and their confronting Brandon scores. There was a nonsignificant negative correlation between the two variables, $r$ (108) = [-.073], $p$ = [.448]. A Pearson correlation coefficient was then computed on female participants to assess the linear relationship between their honesty and humility scores and their confronting Brandon composite. There was also nonsignificant negative correlation between the two variables, $r$ (276) = [-.015], $p$ = [.810]. Extraversion was significant with $F$ (1,356) = 10.590, $p$<0.001 which suggests that a participants' extraversion scores were predictive of their confronting Brandon scores. A Pearson correlation coefficient was computed to assess the linear relationship between a participant's extraversion scores and their confronting Brandon scores. There was a significant positive correlation between the two variables with $r$ (397) = [.172], $p$ = [<.001] suggesting that participants with higher extraversion scores were significantly more comfortable confronting Brandon compared to participants with low scores of extraversion. The interaction between participants' gender and conscientiousness was significant with $F$ (1,356) =8.015, $p$=<0.01. A Pearson correlation coefficient was computed on male participants to assess the linear relationship between their conscientiousness scores and their confronting Brandon scores. There was a significant positive correlation between the two variables, $r$ (108) = [.271], $p$ = [.004], suggesting that male participants with high conscientiousness scores were more comfortable confronting Brandon compared to male participants with low conscientiousness scores. A

Pearson correlation coefficient was then computed on female participants to assess the linear relationship between their conscientiousness scores and their confronting Brandon scores. There was a nonsignificant negative correlation between the two variables, $r$ (276) = [-.028], $p$ = [.644]. Although nonsignificant the negative nature of this correlation suggests there is a trend that women higher in conscientiousness are less comfortable confronting Brandon. This could possibly be because the female participant may be aware of the social cost or social capital needed to effectively confront someone not knowing where the confrontation will go. It is even possible she may be afraid or have anxiety for her own safety, status, and reputation during and after the instance of sexism. Prior exposure to allyship and conscientiousness were also significant with $F$ (1,356) = 4.826, $p$= <0.05. A Pearson correlation coefficient was computed on participants exposed to an instance of allyship to assess the linear relationship between their conscientiousness scores and confronting Brandon scores. There was a significant positive correlation between the two variables, $r$ (198) = [.156], $p$ = [.028], suggesting that participants exposed to an instance of allyship with high conscientiousness scores were more comfortable confronting Brandon compared to participants with low scores of conscientiousness in the allyship condition and participants in non-allyship conditions. A Pearson correlation coefficient was then computed on participants who were not exposed to an instance of allyship to assess the linear relationship between their conscientiousness scores and their confronting Brandon scores. There was a nonsignificant negative correlation between the two variables, $r$ (197) = [-.075], $p$ = [.294]. Although nonsignificant, the negative nature of this correlation is interesting. Are people high in conscientiousness in the non-allyship condition displaying a trend where they are less comfortable confronting Brandon because they are aware there is not an obviously supportive inclusive climate? Are they weighing the cost to their status or relationship with colleagues

versus the benefit of intervening? If so, this suggests the prior exposure to allyship could alter the way people may want to behave.

Lastly, the interaction between prior exposure to allyship and openness was also significant with $F$ (1,356) =4.505, $p$=<0.05. A Pearson correlation coefficient was computed on participants exposed to an instance of allyship to assess the linear relationship between their openness scores and confronting Brandon scores. There was a nonsignificant negative correlation between the two variables, $r$ (198) = [-.030], $p$ = [.668]. A Pearson correlation coefficient was then computed on participants who were not exposed to an instance of allyship to assess the linear relationship between their openness scores and their confronting Brandon scores. There was a nonsignificant positive correlation between the two variables, $r$ (197) = [.121], $p$ = [.090]. All other covariates and interactions were nonsignificant. Refer to Table 10a. The means for the different conditions are presented in Table 10b. Correlations can be found in tables 10c-10k.

**Table 10a**

*Analysis of Covariance: Confronting Brandon Composite, with HEXACO Covariates*

| Predictor | SS | *df* | MS | F | *p* | Partial Eta |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Participant gender | 2.137 | 1 | 2.137 | 2.491 | .115 | .007 |
| Employee gender | 1.535 | 1 | 1.535 | 1.788 | .182 | .005 |
| Exposure to allyship | .318 | 1 | .318 | .370 | .543 | .001 |
| Participant gender* employee gender | .106 | 1 | .106 | .124 | .725 | .000 |
| Participant gender*exposure to allyship | .742 | 1 | .742 | .864 | .353 | .002 |
| Employee gender*exposure to allyship | .076 | 1 | .076 | .089 | .766 | .000 |
| Participant gender *employee gender *exposure to allyship | .001 | 1 | .001 | .001 | .978 | .000 |
| Participants gender*honesty humility | 3.679 | 1 | 3.679 | 4.288 | .039* | .012 |
| Employee gender *honesty humility | .085 | 1 | .085 | .099 | .754 | .000 |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Exposure to allyship *honesty humility | .081 | 1 | .081 | .094 | .759 | .000 |
| Honesty humility | 4.283 | 1 | 4.283 | 4.992 | .026* | .014 |
| Emotionality | .250 | 1 | .250 | .291 | .590 | .001 |
| Participant gender* emotionality | 1.689 | 1 | 1.689 | 1.968 | .162 | .005 |
| Employee gender *emotionality | .125 | 1 | .125 | .145 | .703 | .000 |
| Exposure to allyship *emotionality | .971 | 1 | .971 | 1.131 | .288 | .003 |
| Extraversion | 9.087 | 1 | 9.087 | 10.590 | .001** | .029 |
| Participant gender* extraversion | 2.294 | 1 | 2.294 | 2.674 | .103 | .007 |
| Employee gender *extraversion | .019 | 1 | .019 | .022 | .883 | .000 |
| Exposure to allyship *extraversion | .143 | 1 | .143 | .167 | .683 | .000 |
| Agreeableness | .381 | 1 | .381 | .444 | .506 | .001 |
| Participant gender* agreeableness | .207 | 1 | .207 | .241 | .624 | .001 |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Employee gender* agreeableness | 1.355 | 1 | 1.355 | 1.579 | .210 | .004 |
| Exposure to allyship *agreeableness | .460 | 1 | .460 | .537 | .464 | .002 |
| Conscientiousness | 1.761 | 1 | 1.761 | 2.053 | .153 | .006 |
| Participant gender* conscientiousness | 6.877 | 1 | 6.877 | 8.015 | .005** | .022 |
| Employee gender* conscientiousness | .033 | 1 | .033 | .039 | .844 | .000 |
| Exposure to allyship *conscientiousness | 4.141 | 1 | 4.141 | 4.826 | .029* | .013 |
| Openness | .388 | 1 | .388 | .452 | .502 | .001 |
| Participant gender*openness | .165 | 1 | .165 | .193 | .661 | .001 |
| Employee gender *openness | .624 | 1 | .624 | .727 | .394 | .002 |
| Exposure to allyship *openness | 3.866 | 1 | 3.866 | 4.505 | .034* | .012 |
| Error | 305.462 | 356 | .858 | | | |

* $p < 0.05$
** $p < 0.01$

**Table 10b**

*Means for Analysis of Covariance: Confronting Brandon, with HEXACO Covariates*

| Gender of participant | Male participant (N=110) | | Female participant (N=278) | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Gender of employee | Male employee | Female employee | Male employee | Female employee |
| Non-Ally (N=193) | 3.2444 (.78263) | 3.0202 (.95357) | 2.8806 (.88895) | 2.8836 (1.01098) |
| Ally (N=195) | 3.0714 (1.01979) | 3.4035 (.75014) | 3.0563 (.99998) | 3.0303 (.98702) |

*Standard deviations are in brackets

**Table 10c**

*Male Participants' Honesty and Humility Scores, Confronting Brandon Correlation*

| | 1 | 2 |
|---|---|---|
| 1) Honesty Humility | 1 | -.073 |
| 2) Confronting Brandon | -.073 | 1 |

**Table 10d**

*Female Participants' Honesty and Humility Scores, Confronting Brandon Correlation*

| | 1 | 2 |
|---|---|---|
| 1) Honesty Humility | 1 | -.015 |
| 2) Confronting Brandon | -.015 | 1 |

**Table 10e**

*Honesty and Humility Scores, Confronting Brandon Correlation*

| Variables | 1 | 2 |
|---|---|---|
| 1) Honesty Humility | 1 | -.048 |
| 2) Confronting Brandon | -.048 | 1 |

**Table 10f**

*Extraversion Scores, Confronting Brandon Correlation*

| | 1 | 2 |
|---|---|---|
| 1) Confronting Brandon | 1 | .172** |
| 2) Extraversion | .172** | 1 |

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

**Table 10g**

*Male Participants' Conscientiousness Scores and Confronting Brandon Correlation*

| | 1 | 2 |
|---|---|---|
| 1) Confronting Brandon | 1 | .271** |
| 2) Conscientiousness | .271** | 1 |

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

**Table 10h**

*Female Participants' Conscientiousness Scores and Confronting Brandon Correlation*

| | 1 | 2 |
|---|---|---|
| 1) Confronting Brandon | 1 | -.028 |
| 2) Conscientiousness | -.028 | 1 |

**Table 10i**

*Allyship Conscientiousness Scores and Confronting Brandon Correlation*

| | 1 | 2 |
|---|---|---|
| 1) Confronting Brandon | 1 | .156* |
| 2) Conscientiousness | .156* | 1 |

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

**Table 10j**

*Non-Allyship Conscientiousness Scores and Confronting Brandon Correlation*

| | 1 | 2 |
|---|---|---|
| 1) Confronting Brandon | 1 | -.075 |
| 2) Conscientiousness | -.075 | 1 |

**Table 10k**

*Allyship Openness Scores and Confronting Brandon Correlation*

| | 1 | 2 |
|---|---|---|
| 1) Confronting Brandon | 1 | -.030 |
| 2) Openness | -.030 | 1 |

**Table 10l**

*Non-Allyship Openness Scores and Confronting Brandon Correlation*

| | 1 | 2 |
|---|---|---|
| 1) Confronting Brandon | 1 | .121 |
| 2) Openness | .121 | 1 |

## Reporting Brandon Composite

### *Hostile and Benevolent Sexism as Covariates*

A Three-Way Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) was performed to evaluate whether prior exposure to allyship, participants' gender, and employee gender affected participants' opinion on whether they were comfortable reporting Brandon to human resources. The independent variables were employee gender, participant gender, and prior exposure to allyship.

The covariates were hostile and benevolent sexism. Analysis was conducted using SPSS version 28.

Table 11a presents the findings of the ANCOVA. Employee gender was significant with $F$ (1,372) =5.529, $p$=<0.05. Means suggested that participants exposed to a male employee were more comfortable reporting Brandon compared to participants exposed to a female employee. Participant gender was nonsignificant with $F$ (1,372) =.012, $p$=.914. Prior exposure to allyship was also nonsignificant with $F$ (1,372) =.197, $p$=.657, both indicating nonsignificant differences at baseline. Hostile sexism was significant as a covariate with $F$ (1,372) =8.839, $p$=<0.01 suggesting that a participants' hostile sexism scores were predictive of their reporting Brandon scores. A Pearson correlation coefficient was computed to assess the linear relationship between participants' hostile sexism scores and their reporting Brandon scores. There was a significant negative correlation between the two variables, $r$ (396) = [-.141], $p$ = [.005], suggesting that participants with high scores of hostile sexism were significantly less comfortable reporting Brandon compared to participants with low hostile sexism scores. The interaction between employee gender and hostile sexism was also significant with $F$ (1,372) =4.620, $p$=<0.05. A Pearson correlation coefficient was computed on participants exposed to a male employee to assess the linear relationship between their hostile sexism scores and their reporting Brandon scores. There was a significant negative correlation between the two variables, $r$ (199) = [-.269], $p$ = [<.001], suggesting that participants who had high hostile sexism scores and were exposed to a male employee were significantly less comfortable reporting Brandon compared to participants with low hostile sexism scores and participants exposed to a female employee. A Pearson correlation coefficient was then computed on participants exposed to a female employee to assess the linear relationship between their hostile sexism scores and reporting Brandon scores.

There was a nonsignificant negative correlation between the two variables, $r$ (195) = [-.010], $p$ = [.894]. All other covariates and interactions were nonsignificant. Refer to Table 11a. The means for the different conditions are presented in Table 11b. Correlations can be found in tables 11c,11d and 11e.

**Table 11a**

*Analysis of Covariance: Reporting Brandon Composite, with Hostile and Benevolent Sexism Covariates*

| Predictor | SS | *df* | MS | F | *p* | Partial Eta |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Participant gender | .011 | 1 | .011 | .012 | .914 | .000 |
| Employee gender | 5.077 | 1 | 5.077 | 5.529 | .019* | .015 |
| Exposure to allyship | .181 | 1 | .181 | .197 | .657 | .001 |
| Participant gender* employee gender | .424 | 1 | .424 | .462 | .497 | .001 |
| Participant gender*exposure to allyship | 1.280 | 1 | 1.280 | 1.393 | .239 | .004 |
| Employee gender *exposure to allyship | .840 | 1 | .840 | .914 | .340 | .002 |
| Participant gender* employee gender *exposure to allyship | .175 | 1 | .175 | .191 | .663 | .001 |
| Hostile sexism | 8.118 | 1 | 8.118 | 8.839 | .003** | .023 |
| Participant gender *hostile sexism | 1.488 | 1 | 1.488 | 1.620 | .204 | .004 |
| Employee gender *hostile sexism | 4.243 | 1 | 4.243 | 4.620 | .032* | .012 |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Exposure to allyship *hostile sexism | .566 | 1 | .566 | .617 | .433 | .002 |
| Benevolent sexism | 1.270 | 1 | 1.270 | 1.383 | .240 | .004 |
| Participants gender* benevolent sexism | .478 | 1 | .478 | .521 | .471 | .001 |
| Employee gender *benevolent sexism | .378 | 1 | .378 | .412 | .522 | .001 |
| Exposure to allyship *benevolent sexism | .033 | 1 | .033 | .036 | .850 | .000 |
| Error | 341.643 | 372 | .918 | | | |

* $p < 0.05$
** $p < 0.01$

**Table 11b**

*Means for Analysis of Covariance: Reporting Brandon Composite, with Hostile and Benevolent Sexism Covariates*

| Gender of participant | Male participant (N=110) | | Female participant (N=278) | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Gender of employee | Male employee | Female employee | Male employee | Female employee |
| Non-Ally (N=193) | 3.1444 (.77649) | 2.8687 (1.07348) | 3.0050 (.94547) | 2.9524 (1.01751) |
| Ally (N=195) | 2.7619 (1.12164) | 2.9298 (.91340) | 3.0469 (.99729) | 3.1039 (.90525) |

*Standard deviations are in brackets

**Table 11c**

*Hostile Sexism Scores and Reporting Brandon Correlation*

| Variable | 1 | 2 |
|---|---|---|
| 1) Reporting Brandon | 1 | -.141** |
| 2) Hostile sexism | -.141** | 1 |

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

**Table 11d**

*Male Employee, Hostile Sexism Scores and Reporting Brandon Correlation*

| Variable | 1 | 2 |
|---|---|---|
| 1) Reporting Brandon | 1 | -.269* |
| 2) Hostile sexism | -.269** | 1 |

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

**Table 11e**

*Female Employee, Hostile Sexism Scores and Reporting Brandon Correlation*

| Variable | 1 | 2 |
|---|---|---|
| 1) Reporting Brandon | 1 | -.010 |
| 2) Hostile sexism | -.010 | 1 |

**Graph 11a**

*Employee Gender and Reporting Brandon*


***HEXACO Factors as Covariates***

A Three-Way Analysis of Covariance (ANCOVA) was performed to evaluate whether prior exposure to allyship, participants gender, and employee gender affected participants' opinion on whether they were comfortable reporting Brandon. The independent variables were employee gender, participant gender, and prior exposure to allyship. The covariates were the HEXACO covariates. Analysis was conducted using SPSS version 28.

Table 12a presents the findings of the ANCOVA. Participants gender was nonsignificant with $F$ (1,356) =.870, $p$ =.352. Employee gender was nonsignificant with $F$ (1,356) =1.366, $p$=<0.243. Prior exposure to allyship was also nonsignificant with $F$ (1,356) =.680, $p$=.410. All indicating non-significant differences at baseline. Agreeableness as a covariate was significant with $F$ (1,356) = 5.045, $p$=<0.05 suggesting that participants agreeableness scores predicted their reporting Brandon scores. A Pearson correlation coefficient was computed to assess the linear relationship between participants agreeableness scores and their reporting Brandon scores. There was a nonsignificant positive correlation between the two variables, $r$ (397) = [.059], $p$ = [.241]. The interaction between participants' gender and agreeableness was significant with $F$ (1,356) =

6.703, $p$=<0.05. A Pearson correlation coefficient was computed on male participants to assess the linear relationship between their agreeableness scores and their reporting Brandon scores. There was a significant positive correlation between the two variables, $r$ (108) = [.216], $p$ = [.024], suggesting that male participants with high agreeableness scores were significantly more comfortable reporting Brandon than male participants with low agreeableness scores. A Pearson correlation coefficient was then computed on female participants to assess the linear relationship between their agreeableness scores and their reporting Brandon scores. There was a nonsignificant negative correlation between the two variables, $r$ (276) = [-.006], $p$ = [917]. All other interactions and covariates were nonsignificant. Refer to Table 12a. The means for the different conditions are presented in Table 12b. Correlations can be found in tables 12c-12e.

**Table 12a**

*Analysis of Covariance: Reporting Brandon Composite, with HEXACO Covariates*

| Predictor | SS | *df* | MS | F | *p* | Partial Eta |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Participant gender | .819 | 1 | .819 | .870 | .352 | .002 |
| Employee gender | 1.286 | 1 | 1.286 | 1.366 | .243 | .004 |
| Exposure to allyship | .640 | 1 | .640 | .680 | .410 | .002 |
| Participant gender* employee gender | 1.023 | 1 | 1.023 | 1.086 | .298 | .003 |
| Participant gender*exposure to allyship | 1.806 | 1 | 1.806 | 1.917 | .167 | .005 |
| Employee gender *exposure to allyship | .076 | 1 | .076 | .080 | .777 | .000 |
| Participant gender *employee gender*exposure to allyship | .044 | 1 | .044 | .047 | .829 | .000 |
| Participants gender* honesty humility | .491 | 1 | .491 | .521 | .471 | .001 |
| Employee gender *honesty humility | .018 | 1 | .018 | .019 | .889 | .000 |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Exposure to allyship *honesty humility | .336 | 1 | .336 | .357 | .551 | .001 |
| Honesty humility | .603 | 1 | .603 | .640 | .424 | .002 |
| Emotionality | 1.585 | 1 | 1.585 | 1.683 | .195 | .005 |
| Participant gender* emotionality | 1.061 | 1 | 1.061 | 1.127 | .289 | .003 |
| Employee gender *emotionality | .708 | 1 | .708 | .751 | .387 | .002 |
| Exposure to allyship *emotionality | .804 | 1 | .804 | .853 | .356 | .002 |
| Extraversion | 2.354 | 1 | 2.354 | 2.500 | .115 | .007 |
| Participant gender *extraversion | 1.036 | 1 | 1.036 | 1.100 | .295 | .003 |
| Employee gender *extraversion | .150 | 1 | .150 | .159 | .690 | .000 |
| Exposure to allyship *extraversion | 1.410 | 1 | 1.410 | 1.497 | .222 | .004 |
| Agreeableness | 4.752 | 1 | 4.752 | 5.045 | .025* | .014 |
| Participant gender* agreeableness | 6.314 | 1 | 6.314 | 6.703 | .010* | .018 |

| | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Employee gender *agreeableness | .338 | 1 | .338 | .359 | .550 | .001 |
| Exposure to allyship *agreeableness | .017 | 1 | .017 | .018 | .893 | .000 |
| Conscientiousness | .202 | 1 | .202 | .215 | .643 | .001 |
| Participant gender* conscientiousness | .600 | 1 | .600 | .637 | .425 | .002 |
| Employee gender *conscientiousness | 2.571 | 1 | 2.571 | 2.730 | .099 | .008 |
| Exposure to allyship *conscientiousness | .637 | 1 | .637 | .676 | .411 | .002 |
| Openness | .447 | 1 | .447 | .474 | .492 | .001 |
| Participant gender * openness | 1.278 | 1 | 1.278 | 1.357 | .245 | .004 |
| Employee gender *openness | .007 | 1 | .007 | .008 | .930 | .000 |
| Exposure to allyship *openness | .810 | 1 | .810 | .860 | .354 | .002 |
| Error | 335.331 | 356 | .942 | | | |

* $p < 0.05$
** $p < 0.01$

**Table 12b**

*Means for Analysis of Covariance: Reporting Brandon Composite, with HEXACO Covariates*

| Gender of participant | Male participant (N=110) | | Female participant (N=278) | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Gender of employee | Male employee | Female employee | Male employee | Female employee |
| Non-Ally (N=193) | 3.1444 (.77649) | 2.8687 (1.07348) | 3.0050 (.94547) | 2.9524 (1.01751) |
| Ally (N=195) | 2.7619 (1.12164) | 2.9298 (.91340) | 3.0469 (.99729) | 3.1039 (.90525) |

*Standard deviations are in brackets

**Table 12c**

*Agreeableness Scores and Reporting Brandon Scores Correlation*

| | 1 | 2 |
|---|---|---|
| 1) Reporting Brandon | 1 | .059 |
| 2) Agreeableness | .059 | 1 |

**Table 12d**

*Male Participants' Agreeableness Scores and Reporting Brandon Scores Correlation*

| | 1 | 1 |
|---|---|---|
| 1) Reporting Brandon | 1 | .216* |
| 2) Agreeableness | .216* | 1 |

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

**Table 12e**

*Female Participants' Agreeableness Scores and Reporting Brandon Scores Correlation*

| | 1 | 1 |
|---|---|---|
| 1) Reporting Brandon | 1 | -.006 |
| 2) Agreeableness | -.006 | 1 |

**Effectiveness of Confronting Brandon No Covariates**

A Three-Way Analysis of Variance (ANCOVA) was performed to evaluate whether prior exposure to allyship, participants' gender, and employee gender affected participants' opinion on whether they thought it was effective to confront Brandon over an instance of gender bias. The independent variables were employee gender, participant gender, and prior exposure to allyship. Analysis was conducted using SPSS version 28.

Table 13a presents the findings of the ANOVA. Prior exposure to allyship was significant with $F$ (1,378) =10.576, $p$=<0.01. Means suggested that participants exposed to an instance of allyship were significantly more likely to think it was effective to confront Brandon compared to participants in the non-allyship conditions (refer to Graph 13a). Participant gender was nonsignificant with $F$ (1, 378) =2.775, $p$=.097. Employee gender was nonsignificant with $F$ (1,378) =.013, $p$=.909. Both indicate nonsignificant differences at baseline. All interactions were nonsignificant. Refer to Table 13a. The means for the different conditions are presented in Table 13b.

**Table 13a**

*Analysis of Variances: Effectiveness of Confronting Brandon*

| Predictor | SS | *df* | MS | F | *p* | Partial Eta |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Participant gender | 3.392 | 1 | 3.392 | 2.775 | .097 | .007 |
| Exposure to allyship | 12.925 | 1 | 12.925 | 10.576 | .001** | .027 |
| Employee gender | .016 | 1 | .016 | .013 | .909 | .000 |
| Participant gender *exposure to allyship | 1.278 | 1 | 1.278 | 1.046 | .307 | .003 |
| Participant gender*employee gender | .501 | 1 | .501 | .410 | .522 | .001 |
| Exposure to allyship *employee gender | .448 | 1 | .448 | .366 | .545 | .001 |
| Participant gender *exposure to allyship *employee gender | 1.277 | 1 | 1.277 | 1.045 | .307 | .003 |
| Error | 461.959 | 378 | 1.222 | | | |

* $p < 0.05$

** $p < 0.01$

**Table 13b**

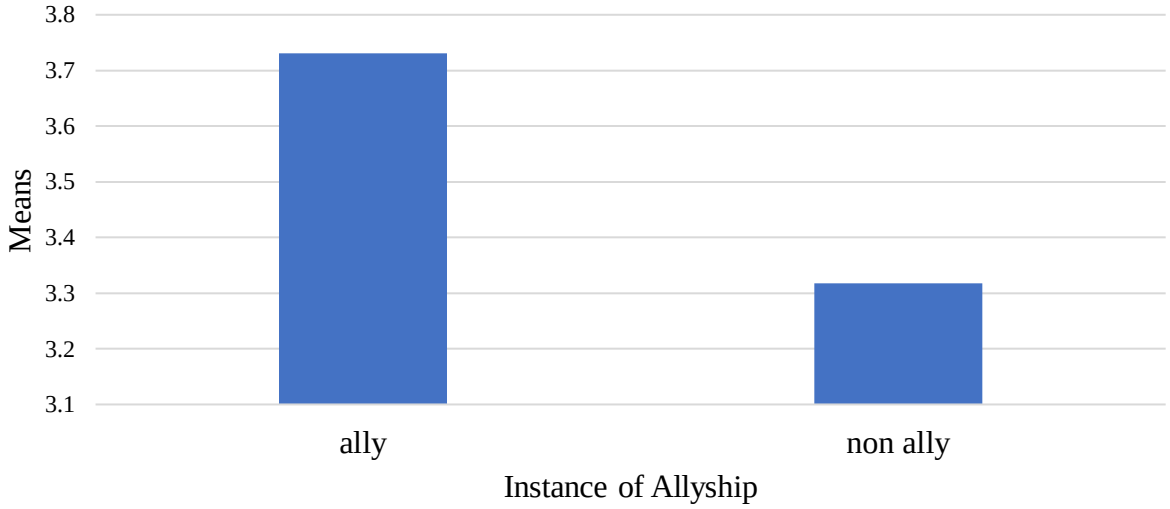
*Means for Analysis of Variance: Effectiveness of Confronting Brandon*

| Gender of participant | Male participant (N=109) | | Female participant (N=277) | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Gender of employee | Male employee | Female employee | Male employee | Female employee |
| Non-Ally (N=192) | 3.41 (1.018) | 3.30 (1.212) | 3.28 (1.056) | 3.27 (1.234) |
| Ally (N=194) | 3.75 (1.076) | 4.05 (.970) | 3.62 (1.100) | 3.50 (1.065) |

*Standard deviations are in brackets

**Graph 13a**

*Allyship and Effectiveness of Confronting Brandon*




**Supporting Brandon Composite No Covariates**

A Three-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was performed to evaluate whether participants' gender, prior exposure to allyship, and employee gender affected participants' opinion on whether they were comfortable supporting Brandon. The independent variables were the participants' gender, employee gender and prior exposure to allyship. Analysis was conducted using SPSS version 28.

Table 14a presents the findings from the ANOVA. The participant gender was significant with $F$ (1,380) =7.008, $p$<0.01, indicating a significant predictor (see table 14a). Means

suggested that male participants were significantly more comfortable supporting Brandon compared to female participants (see graph 14a). The exposure to allyship was nonsignificant with $F$ (1, 380) = 3.032, $p$ =.082. The employee gender was also nonsignificant with $F$ (1,380) = .006, $p$=.936, indicating nonsignificant differences at baseline. The interaction between employee gender and participant gender was non-significant with $F$ (1,380) =1.584, $p$=.209, all indicating nonsignificant differences at baseline. There was a significant interaction between employee gender and prior exposure to allyship with $F$ (1, 380) = 4.579, $p$<0.05. Means suggested that participants exposed to a female employee and who were not exposed to a prior instance of allyship were significantly more comfortable supporting Brandon compared to all other conditions (refer to graph 14b). There was a significant interaction between participant gender and prior exposure to allyship with $F$ (1,380) =4.852, $p$=<0.05. Means suggested that male participants in the non-ally conditions were significantly more comfortable supporting Brandon than all other conditions (refer to graph 14c). There was also a significant 3-way interaction between prior exposure to allyship, participant gender, and employee gender with $F$ (1,380) =5.564, $p$=<0.05. Pairwise comparisons suggested that male participants who were exposed to a female employee and who were not exposed to an instance of allyship had the highest supporting Brandon scores than all other conditions suggesting they were most comfortable supporting Brandon (refer to graphs 14d and 14e). Although this can be discouraging, it also goes to show how the absence of inclusive practices can influence workplace personnel to behave in exclusive ways. The means for the different conditions are presented in Table 14b.

**Table 14a**

*Analysis of Variance: Supporting Brandon Composite*

| Predictor | SS | *df* | MS | F | *p* | Partial Eta |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Participant gender | 4.343 | 1 | 4.343 | 7.008 | .008** | .018 |
| Exposure to allyship | 1.879 | 1 | 1.879 | 3.032 | .082 | .008 |
| Employee gender | .004 | 1 | .004 | .006 | .936 | .000 |
| Employee gender*exposure to allyship | 2.838 | 1 | 2.838 | 4.579 | .033* | .012 |
| Employee gender*participant gender | .982 | 1 | .982 | 1.584 | .209 | .004 |
| Participants gender*exposure to allyship | 3.007 | 1 | 3.007 | 4.852 | .028* | .013 |
| Exposure to allyship *participant gender* employee gender | 3.448 | 1 | 3.448 | 5.564 | .019* | .014 |
| Error | 235.494 | 380 | .620 | | | |

* $p < 0.05$
** $p < 0.01$

**Table 14b**

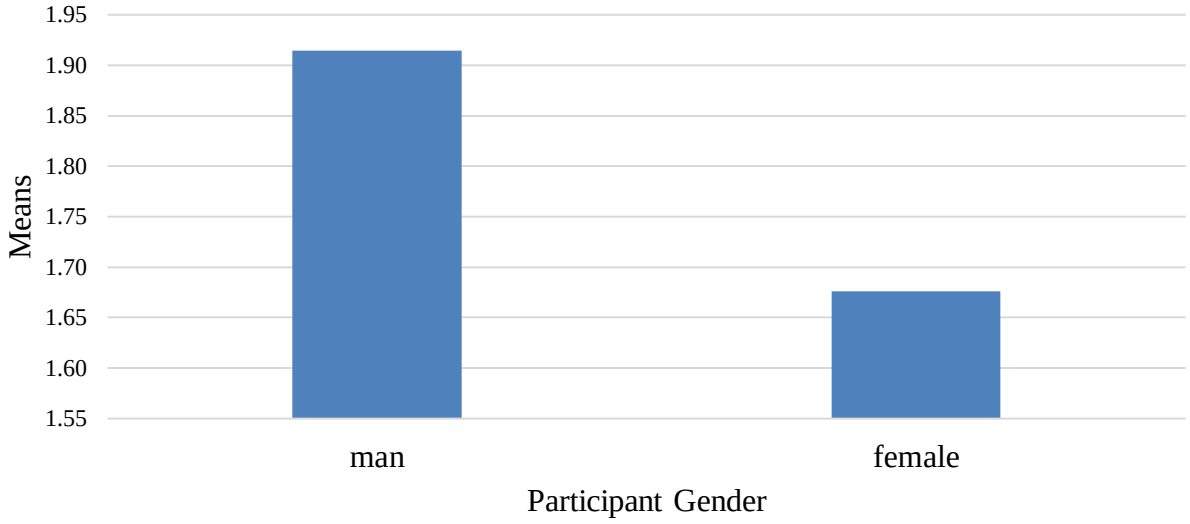
*Analysis of Variance: Supporting Brandon Composite*

| Gender of participant | Male participant (N=110) | | Female participant (N=278) | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Gender of employee | Male employee | Female employee | Male employee | Female employee |
| Non-Ally (N=193) | 1.9500 (.82629) | 2.2348 (1.06423) | 1.6119 (.72729) | 1.6984 (.63207) |
| Ally (N=195) | 2.0000 (1.00692) | 1.4737 (.61742) | 1.6338 (.71941) | 1.7597 (.80545) |

*Standard deviations are in brackets

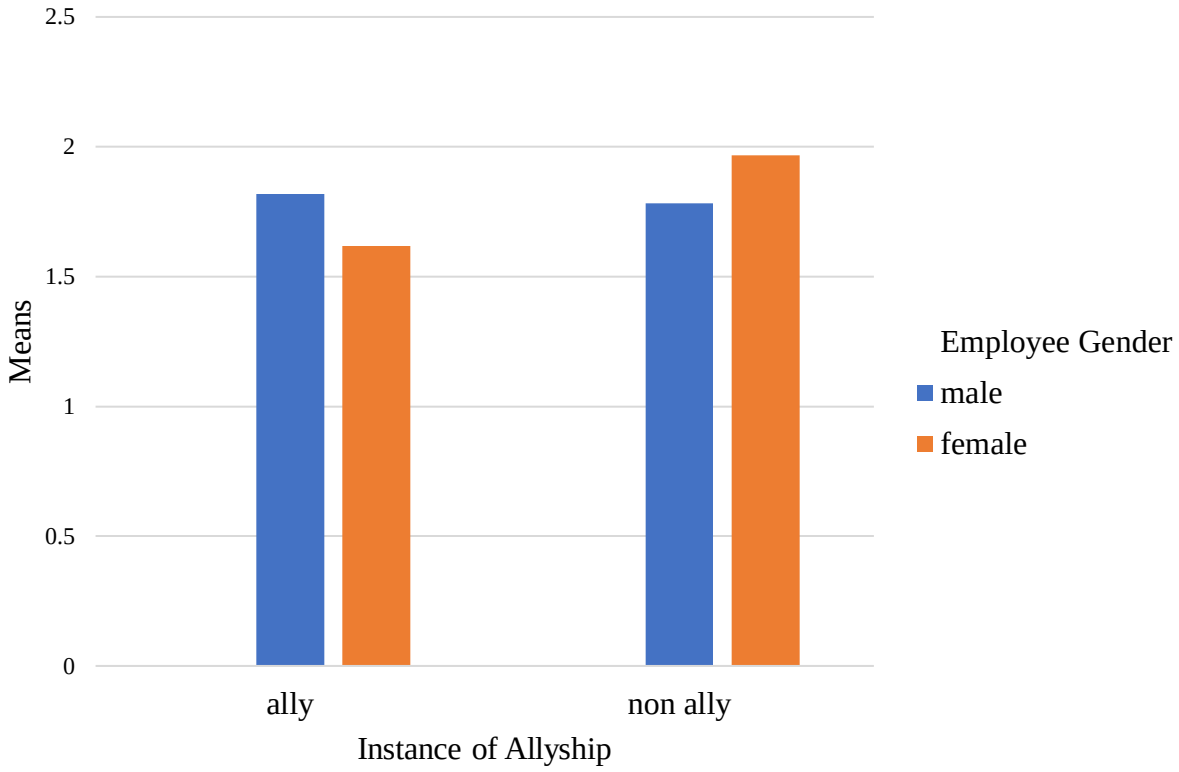
**Graph 14a**

*Gender of Participant and Supporting Brandon Composite*



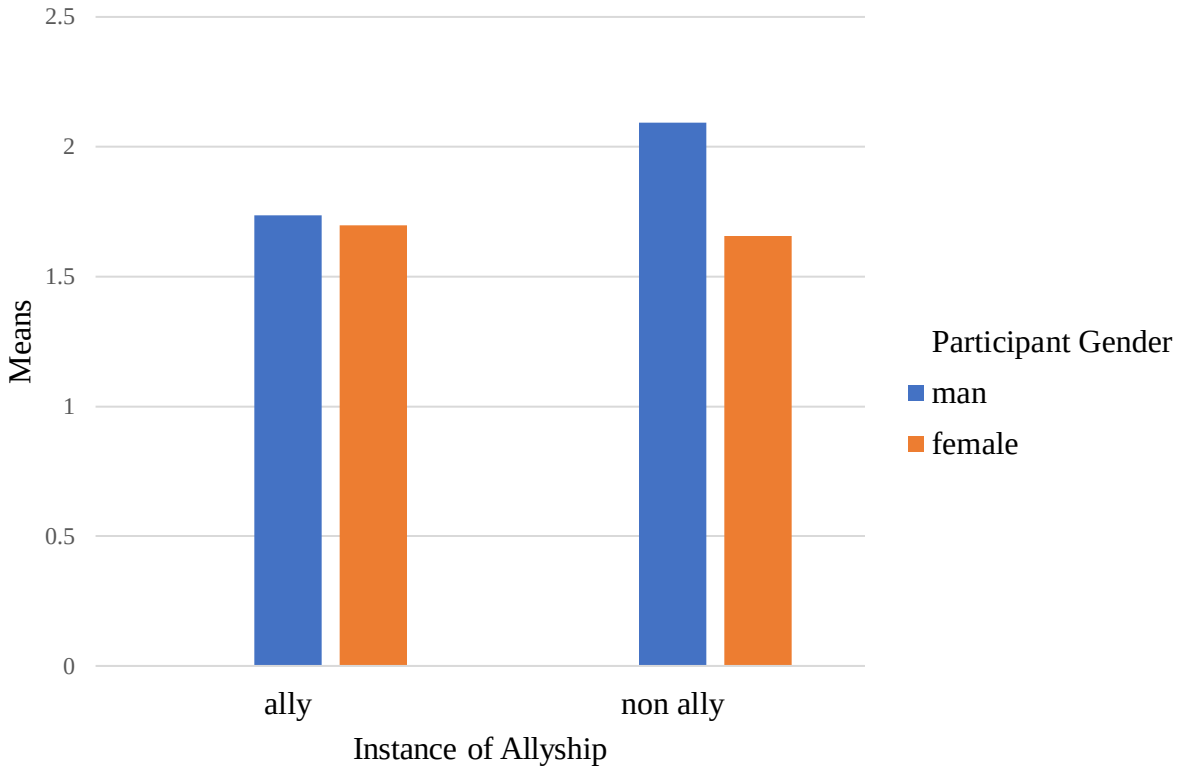
**Graph 14b**

*Exposure to Allyship, Employee Gender and Supporting Brandon Composite*



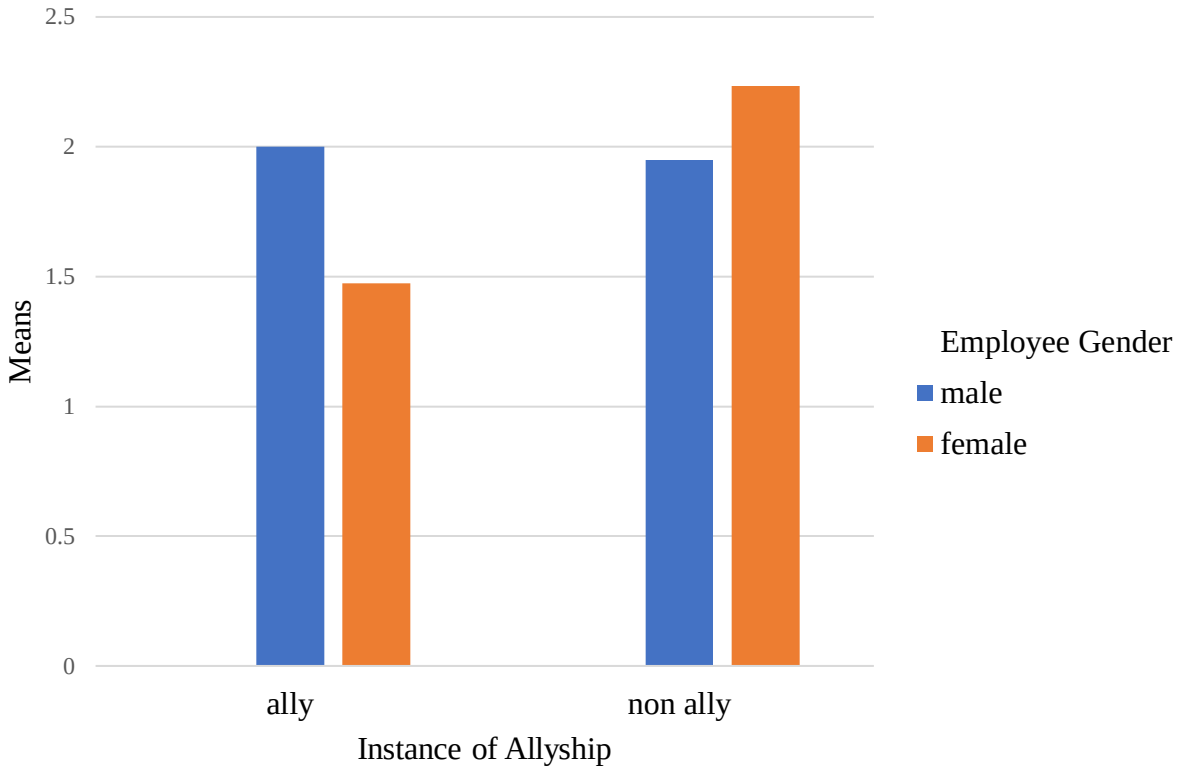
**Graph 14c**

*Exposure to Allyship, Participant Gender and Supporting Brandon Composite*



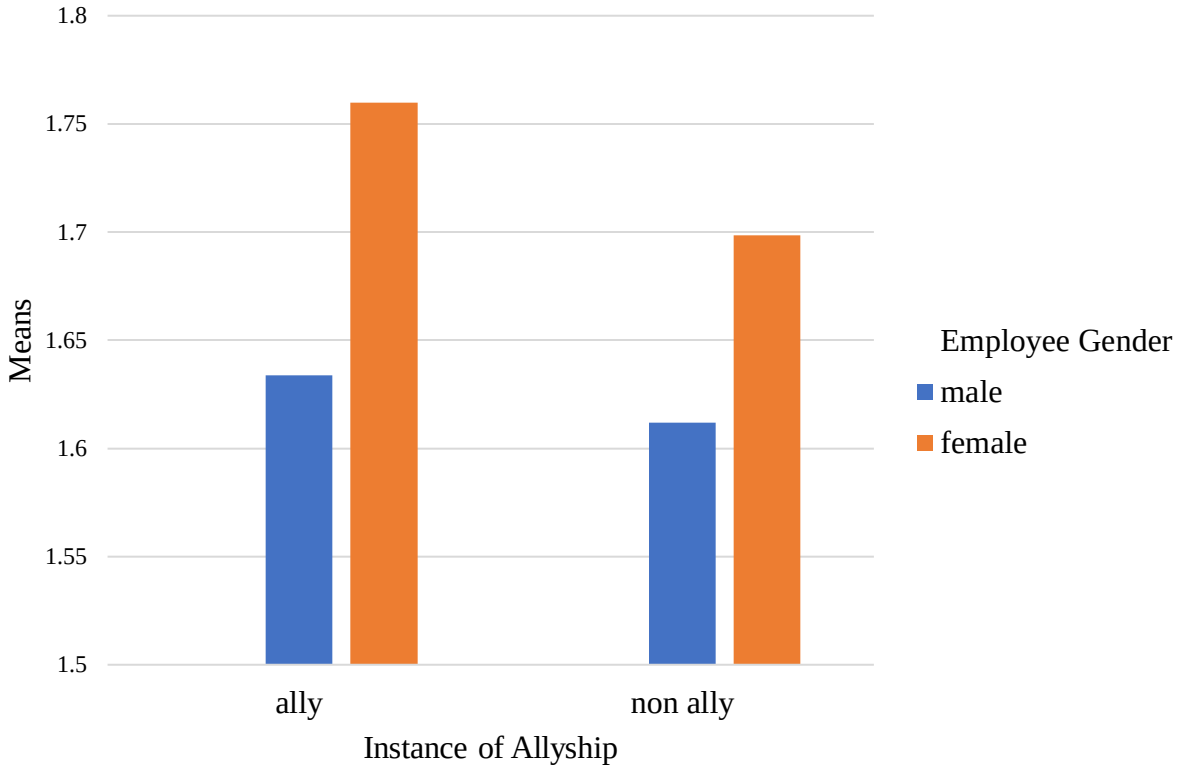
**Graph 14d**

*Male Participants, Exposure to Allyship, Employee Gender and Supporting Brandon Composite*



**Graph 14e**

*Female Participants, Prior Exposure to Allyship, Employee Gender and Supporting Brandon Composite*




**Confronting Brandon Composite No Covariates**

A Three-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA) was performed to evaluate whether participants' gender, prior exposure to allyship, and employee gender affected participants' opinion on whether they were comfortable confronting Brandon. The independent variables were the participant gender, employee gender, and prior exposure of allyship. Analysis was conducted using SPSS version 28.

Table 15a presents the findings from the ANOVA. The participant gender was significant with $F$ (1,380) =4.150, $p$<0.05, indicating a significant predictor (see table 15a). Means suggested that male participants were significantly more comfortable confronting Brandon compared to female participants (refer to graph 15a).

Prior exposure to allyship was nonsignificant with $F$ (1, 380) = 1.491, $p$ =.223. The employee gender was also nonsignificant with $F$ (1,380) = .038, $p$=.846. The interaction between employee gender and prior exposure to allyship was nonsignificant with $F$ (1, 380) = 1.461, $p$=.228.

The interaction between employee gender and participant gender was nonsignificant with $F$ (1, 380) = .090, $p$ =.764. The interaction between prior exposure to allyship and gender of participant was also nonsignificant with $F$ (1,380) =.066, $p$= .797. The 3-way interaction between prior exposure to allyship, participant gender, and employee gender was also nonsignificant with $F$ (1,380) =1.800, $p$=.180. All indicating non-significant differences at baseline. The means for the different conditions are presented in Table 15b.

**Table 15a**

*Analysis of Variance: Confronting Brandon Composite*

| Predictors | SS | *df* | MS | *F* | *p* | Partial Eta |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|---|
| Participant gender | 3.764 | 1 | 3.764 | 4.150 | .042* | .011 |
| Exposure to allyship | 1.352 | 1 | 1.352 | 1.491 | .223 | .004 |
| Employee gender | .034 | 1 | .034 | .038 | .846 | .000 |
| Employee gender*exposure to allyship | 1.325 | 1 | 1.325 | 1.461 | .228 | .004 |
| Employee gender*participant gender | .082 | 1 | .082 | .090 | .764 | .000 |
| Exposure to allyship *participant gender | .060 | 1 | .060 | .066 | .797 | .000 |
| Employee gender*exposure to allyship *participant gender | 1.633 | 1 | 1.633 | 1.800 | .180 | .005 |
| Error | 344.630 | 380 | .907 | | | |

* $p < 0.05$
** $p < 0.01$

**Table 15b**

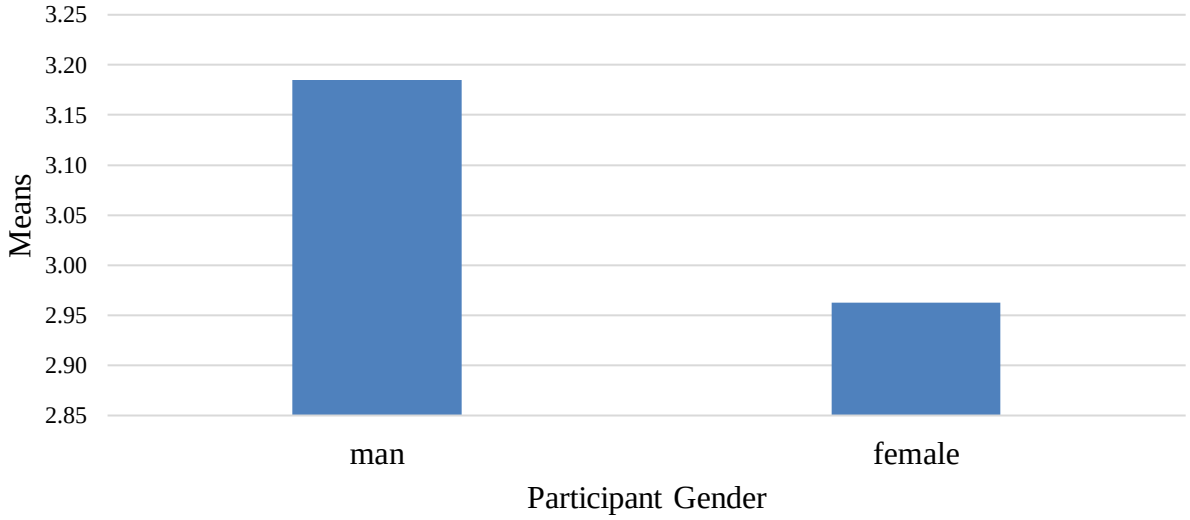
*Means for Analysis of Variance: Confronting Brandon Composite*

| Gender of participant | Male participant (N=110) | | Female participant (N=278) | |
|---|---|---|---|---|
| Gender of employee | Male employee | Female employee | Male employee | Female employee |
| Non-Ally (N=193) | 3.2444 (.78263) | 3.0202 (.95357) | 2.8806 (.88895) | 2.8836 (1.01098) |
| Ally (N=195) | 3.0714 (1.01979) | 3.4035 (.75014) | 3.0563 (.99998) | 3.0303 (.98702) |

*Standard deviations are in brackets

**Graph 15a**

*Participant Gender and Confronting Brandon*




## Summary of Results

### *Effectiveness of Involving Boss with Covariates*

This research found that participants with high scores of hostile sexism were significantly less likely to think it was effective to involve their boss over the instance of gender bias compared to participants with low scores of hostile sexism. It was also found that participants with high scores of hostile sexism who were exposed to a male employee were also significantly less likely to think it was effective to involve their boss over the instance of sexism. In particular,

male participants with high scores of hostile sexism were significantly less likely to think it was effective to involve their boss compared to male participants with low scores of hostile sexism. On a more positive note, it was found that participants who had high agreeableness scores and were exposed to a male employee were significantly more likely to think it was effective to involve their boss compared to participants with low agreeableness scores who were exposed to a male employee.

### *Effectiveness of Confronting Brandon with Covariates*

This research found that participants exposed to an instance of allyship were significantly more likely to think it is effective to confront Brandon than participants who were not exposed to an instance of allyship.

### *Supporting Madison Composite with Covariates*

This research found participants exposed to a female employee were significantly more comfortable supporting Madison compared to participants exposed to a male employee. Participants with high emotionality scores were significantly more comfortable supporting Madison compared to participants with low emotionality scores. It was also found that male participants with high openness scores were significantly more comfortable supporting Madison than male participants with low openness scores. On a more negative note, it was found that participants with high hostile sexism scores reported being significantly less comfortable supporting Madison compared to participants with low hostile sexism scores.

***Supporting Brandon Composite with Covariates***

Participants with high hostile sexism scores were significantly more comfortable supporting Brandon compared to participants with low hostile sexism scores. Male participants with high scores of hostile sexism were significantly more comfortable supporting Brandon than male participants with low scores of hostile sexism. Female participants with high scores of hostile sexism were also significantly more comfortable supporting Brandon compared to female participants with low scores of hostile sexism. This research also found that male participants in the non-allyship condition were significantly more comfortable supporting Brandon than all other conditions.

On a more positive note, this research found participants with high honesty and humility scores were significantly less comfortable supporting Brandon compared to participants with low honesty and humility scores. Regardless of gender of employee, participants who had high scores of honesty and humility were significantly less comfortable supporting Brandon than participants with low scores of honesty and humility. Participants with high emotionality scores were significantly less comfortable supporting Brandon compared to those with low emotionality scores. It was found that participants with high openness scores were significantly less comfortable supporting Brandon than those with low openness scores. Participants with high conscientiousness scores were also significantly less comfortable supporting Brandon than participants with low conscientiousness scores. For both male and female participants, those with higher conscientiousness scores were significantly less comfortable supporting Brandon than those with lower conscientiousness scores. Lastly, female participants with high agreeableness scores were significantly less comfortable supporting Brandon than female participants with low agreeableness scores.

### *Confronting Brandon Composite with Covariates*

This research found that participants with high benevolent sexism scores were significantly more comfortable confronting Brandon compared to participants with low scores of benevolent sexism. Participants with high extraversion scores were significantly more comfortable confronting Brandon compared to participants with low scores of extraversion. Male participants with high conscientiousness scores were significantly more comfortable confronting Brandon compared to male participants with low conscientiousness scores. Participants exposed to a prior instance of allyship with high conscientiousness scores were also significantly more comfortable confronting Brandon compared to participants with low scores of conscientiousness in allyship conditions and participants in non-allyship conditions.

### *Reporting Brandon Composite with Covariates*

This research found that participants exposed to a male employee were significantly more comfortable reporting Brandon compared to participants exposed to a female employee. Male participants with high agreeableness scores were significantly more comfortable reporting Brandon than male participants with low agreeableness scores. On a more negative note, participants with high scores of hostile sexism were significantly less comfortable reporting Brandon compared those with low scores of hostile sexism. Participants who had high scores of hostile sexism and were exposed to a male employee were also significantly less comfortable reporting Brandon compared to participants with low hostile sexism scores and participants exposed to a female employee.

### *Effectiveness of Confronting Brandon: No Covariates*

Participants exposed to a prior instance of allyship were significantly more likely to think it was effective to confront Brandon compared to participants who were not exposed to a prior instance of allyship.

### *Supporting Brandon: No Covariates*

Male participants were significantly more comfortable supporting Brandon compared to female participants. Participants exposed to a female employee and who were not exposed to an instance of allyship were significantly more comfortable supporting Brandon. As previously found and replicated, male participants in the non-allyship conditions were significantly more comfortable supporting Brandon compared to all other conditions. In particular, male participants who were exposed to a female employee and who were not exposed to a prior instance of allyship were significantly more comfortable supporting Brandon than all other conditions.

### *Confronting Brandon Composite: No Covariates*

Male participants were significantly more comfortable confronting Brandon compared to female participants.

# Chapter Five: Discussion of Findings

## Hypothesis Supported?

Recall, it was hypothesized that: (1) participants who were exposed to a male employee who demonstrated an act of allyship against sexism would be more likely to report that they would be comfortable responding to an instance of sexism in an active and/ or confrontational manner, compared to those who did not witness an act of male-allyship; and (2) it was hypothesized that this trend would be most evident amongst male participants.

### *Participants Exposed to a Prior Instance of Allyship*

The most important findings within this research thesis revolve around the exposure to a prior instance of allyship. There were some interesting findings which suggested that an instance of allyship as an inclusive behavioural practice was influential in helping people to recognize and motivate them to respond to instances of gender bias within their workplace. Recall this research found that participants exposed to a prior instance of allyship thought it was more effective to confront Brandon compared to participants in the non-allyship conditions. These findings were significant while holding scores of hostile sexism constant. Meaning, regardless of how high a participant's hostile sexism scores were, if they were exposed to a prior instance of allyship, they were significantly more likely to think it was effective to confront the sexist perpetrator (Brandon). This finding partially supports hypothesis one because it demonstrates that witnessing a prior instance of allyship can be effective in helping people to recognize and become motivated to respond to instances of gender bias. It was also found that participants with high scores of conscientiousness who were exposed to a prior instance of allyship were significantly more comfortable confronting Brandon. These findings also partially support hypothesis one demonstrating the influence of allyship against sexism in helping already conscientious and even

inclusive people to see the effectiveness and positive results of responding to instances of gender bias. This finding also directly adds to the literature that discusses the positive impact of allyship against sexism in the workplace (Cheng, Traylor and King 2019; Silver, King and Hebl 2022).

### *Male Participants*

There were also several interesting findings surrounding male participants that partially support the theory behind the hypotheses. In general, male participants reported being more comfortable confronting Brandon than female participants. This finding directly supports hypothesis two which argued male participants will be more likely to report responding to the instance of gender bias in a confrontational manner. This finding also speaks to research on gendered ideologies, and how men are more likely to embody overtly confrontational behaviours such as physical toughness, aggressiveness, competitiveness, and a willingness to be violent as a means of resolving issues (see discussions in Anderson 2009, Connell 2005, Kimmel 2009, Knuttila 2016, Messerschmidt 2019).

This research also found that male participants were significantly more likely to support Brandon (the sexist perpetrator), compared to female participants. These findings inadvertently speak to the research and theory which formulated hypotheses one and two. Recall, it was hypothesized in particular that male participants who were exposed to a male employee who demonstrated an act of allyship against sexism would be most likely to confront Brandon the sexist perpetrator. The theory behind this hypothesis stemmed from the extensive research that suggests men are influenced by other men, and care about what their male colleagues are doing and thinking (Cihangir, Barreto and Ellemers 2014; Drury 2013; Drury and Kaiser 2014; Eliezer and Major 2012; Thébaud and Pedulla, 2016). Although this research did find that the male employees influenced male participants, unfortunately, this was found in a negative context. In

particular, it was found that male participants who were exposed to a female employee and were not exposed to an instance of allyship were significantly most comfortable supporting the sexist perpetrator (Brandon) compared to all other conditions. This finding is important as it demonstrates the influence men have on other men and how male participants in this study supported another male employee who was blatantly sexist towards a woman. This finding is also important because it additional inadvertently supports hypothesis one. Recall, it was hypothesized that participants who were exposed to a male employee who demonstrated an act of allyship against sexism would be more likely to report that they would be comfortable responding to an instance of sexism in an active and/ or confrontational manner, compared to those who did not witness an act of male-allyship. Instead, this study revealed that male participants in the non-allyship condition were significantly more comfortable supporting Brandon (the sexist perpetrator). In particular, male participants in the non-allyship condition who were exposed to a female employee were significantly most comfortable supporting the sexist perpetrator (Brandon) compared to all other conditions. It is clear these findings are not directly supportive of the hypotheses, but they do reveal the power of allyship and inclusive practices when present. Without the presence of allyship, men in this study supported and reinforced sexist behaviour. This underlines that the presence of allyship and inclusive practices aid in deterring others from acting in overtly sexist ways, while simultaneously motivating others to recognize and respond to instances of sexism. Although acts of allyship and inclusive masculinity will not stop instances of gender bias from happening, when allyship and inclusive masculinities are present, they will at least help to discourage men from actively supporting a sexist perpetrator. This is concluded due to the fact that male participants in the allyship conditions were not nearly as motivated to support the sexist perpetrator.

In terms of personality traits as covariates, there are notable findings for openness, conscientiousness, and agreeableness. First, male participants with high openness scores were significantly more comfortable supporting Madison (the target of the sexist comment). Secondly, male participants with high conscientiousness scores were significantly more likely to confront Brandon (the sexist perpetrator). This research also revealed male participants with high agreeableness scores were significantly more likely to report Brandon. These findings reflect Anderson's (2009) definition of inclusive masculinities as he stated those who embody inclusive masculine gender performances are more open and have positive views of women and thereby may be more likely to act in inclusive ways. These findings also speak to the presence of masculinities and "new business masculinities" or "the new managerial masculinity". Although it is not sure whether these male participants were managers, men who embody new business masculinities are more self-conscious and educated on contemporary issues related to nationality, sexuality, and gender (Connell and Wood 2005:359). In being more conscious and educated on issues of gender, it is possible that some male participants embody these 'new business masculinities' and therefore have a solid foundation of the knowledge and resources needed to recognize and actively respond to gender bias (Connell and Wood 2005: 359). These findings also support the presence of ecological masculinities which is another masculine gender performance that is more inclusive and tolerant of diversity (Hultman and Pule 2018:54). Performers of ecological or dialogic masculinity also value accountability and responsibility for the well-being of others (Hultman and Pule 2018:31). There is clear evidence of this masculine gender performance as some male participants wanted to support Madison in finding ways to deal with the instance. Some male participants also wanted to confront Brandon, and or even report him.

Although a large emphasis of this research is on the need to encourage and support men's active response to instances of sexism perpetrated by other men, these findings also bring attention to the need for men to support women in actively responding to workplace discrimination affecting them. These findings suggest that in a society where workplace environments have evolved alongside patriarchy and capitalism, men have a role in encouraging women to feel confident in responding to instances of discrimination. This will ultimately support women to break the glass ceiling and overcome traditional barriers in their workplaces.

### *Female Participants*

There were also several interesting findings involving female participants. As with their male counterparts, agreeableness was a significant covariate. In particular, female participants with high agreeableness scores were significantly less comfortable supporting Brandon. Individuals with high agreeableness are forgiving of those who have done them wrong and are lenient in judging others (HEXACO-PI-R Website 2009). People high in agreeableness also look to compromise and cooperate with others (HEXACO-PI-R Website 2009). It is not surprising that this research found both men and women high in agreeableness were not motivated to behave in more inclusive ways.

### *Participants with High Scores of Hostile Sexism*

There was a repeating theme amongst participants with high scores of hostile sexism to not act in inclusive ways. It was found that: (1) participants with high scores of hostile sexism were significantly less likely to think it was effective to involve their boss over the instance of gender bias; (2) participants with high levels of hostile sexism were also significantly less comfortable

reporting Brandon, (3) participants with high scores of hostile sexism were significantly more comfortable supporting Brandon; and (4) significantly less comfortable supporting Madison.

***Male participants with high scores of hostile sexism.*** There were also several expected findings surrounding male participants with high scores of hostile sexism. (1) Male participants with high scores of hostile sexism were significantly less likely to think it was effective to involve their boss over the instance of gender bias. As previously mentioned, male participants with high scores of hostile sexism were also significantly more comfortable supporting Brandon. These findings are not surprising considering those with high levels of hostile sexism hold beliefs that seek to reinforce male power, male dominance, and the maintenance of traditional gender roles (Glick and Fliske 1997). It is not shocking to find that participants with high levels of hostile sexism do not want to behave in ways that would support and empower a female target of sexism to combat gender bias and disrupt existing gender power relations within their workplace.

***Female participants with high scores of hostile sexism.*** Hostile sexism was also a significant covariate, with women's high scores on hostile sexism also predicting level of comfort in supporting Brandon (the sexist perpetrator). This finding suggests not everyone who identifies as female or women, are inclusive. This finding reinforces the fluidity of the term 'women', demonstrating how not all women will support feminist goals.

### *Participants with High Scores of Benevolent Sexism*

Participants with high scores of benevolent sexism were significantly more comfortable confronting Brandon compared to participants with low scores of benevolent sexism. This

finding is interesting and may reveal the paternalistic nature of benevolent sexism. As previously mentioned, benevolent sexism is a gentler form of gender bias compared to hostile sexism (Glick and Fliske 1997). One aspect displayed by those who are benevolently sexist is the 'saviour mentality' towards women (Glick and Fliske 1997). The saviour mentality is embodied by a man who is protective of certain women and feels the need to 'save' them as they are weak (Glick and Fliske 1997). To find that participants with high scores of benevolent sexism were more likely to confront the sexist perpetrator compared to participants with low scores of benevolent sexism may suggest some 'saviours' within the participant pool. These participants may have decided to confront Brandon for reasons aside from actually wanting to challenge the nature of the gender bias. Instead, it is possible these participants responded to protect or to rescue the target, to look better, to be more desired in the eyes of others, to impress bystanders, to make themselves feel better, or to show their dominance.

***Participants with High Scores of Emotionality***

This research found that participants with high scores of emotionality were likely to act in inclusive ways. Participants with high scores of emotionality were (1) significantly more comfortable supporting Madison. This research also found that participants high in emotionality were (2) significantly less comfortable supporting Brandon compared to those with low emotionality scores. These findings support HEXACO literature which suggests persons high in emotionality feel empathy and form strong sentimental attachments with others (HEXACO-PI-R Website 2009). It is very possible the participants high in emotionality felt empathetic towards Madison and wanted to support her knowing the comment was sexist, and hurtful.

***Participants with High Scores of Openness***

This research found that participants with high openness scores were also likely to act in inclusive ways. Participants with high openness scores were significantly less comfortable supporting Brandon compared to those with low openness scores. This finding is in line with what Lee and Ashton (2009) attribute to people with high scores of openness (HEXACO-PI-R Website 2009). People high in openness are inquisitive about knowledge and knowing, think freely about life, and are attracted to unusual ideas and people (HEXACO-PI-R Website 2009). They can also be soft-hearted and act in ways that help prevent harm to others (HEXACO-PI-R Website 2009). It is very possible participants in this study with high scores of openness were inquisitive of the scenario and were sensitive towards Madison's situation rather than Brandon's.

***Participants with High Scores of Conscientiousness***

For both male and female participants, those with higher conscientiousness scores were significantly less comfortable supporting Brandon compared to those with lower conscientiousness scores. It is possible that participants with high levels of conscientiousness carefully weighed out the pros and cons of the situation. People with high scores of conscientiousness are highly meticulous and consider many aspects of their situation before making decisions (HEXACO-PI-R Website 2009). These participants may have considered their options and decided they did not want to support Brandon, the sexist perpetrator, knowing his actions were sexist and immoral.

***Participants with High Scores of Honesty and Humility***

This research suggested that participants with high honesty and humility scores were also likely to act in inclusive ways. This research found that participants with high scores of honesty and humility were significantly less comfortable supporting Brandon (the sexist perpetrator).

This is not surprising as people with high scores of honesty and humility are genuine in their relations with others and do not target individuals (HEXACO-PI-R Website 2009). People with high honesty and humility play fair and avoid being dishonest and manipulative towards other (HEXACO-PI-R Website 2009). Therefore, it makes sense that participants in this study with high scores of honesty and humility did not support someone who was targeting another co-worker in a sexist and discriminatory way.

### *Participants with High Scores of Extraversion*

This research also found that participants with high extraversion scores were more likely to act in confrontational ways. This research found that participants with high scores of extraversion were significantly more comfortable confronting Brandon compared to participants with low scores of extraversion. This finding supports HEXACO literature which suggests people with high scores of extraversion are socially bold and confident in themselves when addressing other people (HEXACO-PI-R Website 2009). It is not surprising people high in extraversion were comfortable confronting a sexist perpetrator.

### *Participants Exposed to a Male Employee*

There were several significant findings regarding how different participants responded to being exposed to an existing male employee. (1) It was found that participants with high hostile sexism scores who were also exposed to a male employee were significantly less likely to think it was effective to involve their boss over the instance of sexism. (2) It was also found that participants who had high scores of hostile sexism and were exposed to a male employee were significantly less comfortable reporting Brandon. These findings are not surprising as this again

demonstrates the pattern for participants with high levels of hostile sexism to act in non-inclusive ways. It is evident these findings do not change around another male employee.

On a more positive note, (3) participants with high agreeableness scores who were exposed to a male employee were significantly more likely to think it was effective to involve their boss over the sexist instance. (4) participants who had high scores of honesty and humility and were exposed to a male employee were significantly less comfortable supporting Brandon. These findings are also not surprising considering this research already found that male participants high in agreeableness and participants with high openness scores tend to behave in more inclusive ways. Lastly, it was found that (5) participants exposed to a male employee were significantly more comfortable reporting Brandon compared to participants exposed to a female employee. This partially supports hypothesis one which argues participants exposed to a male ally against sexism will respond to the instance of gender bias in more active or confrontational ways. This finding is supportive of hypothesis one because it highlights the ability of men who respond to instances of gender bias to help others to recognize and perceive the instance as more sexist (Drury 2013). This finding also demonstrates that when a positive or neutral male employee is around, inclusive male and female bystanders will be more likely to report instances of sexism to their boss.

### *Participants Exposed to a Female Employee*

There were also several significant findings involving participants exposed to a female employee. It was found that (1) participants exposed to a female employee were significantly more comfortable supporting Madison and that (2) participants who had high scores of honesty and humility, who were exposed to a female employee were significantly less comfortable supporting Brandon. In this instance, it is possible the female employee provided a climate for

inclusivity, female support, or representation. This finding demonstrates the importance of having gender representation within the workplace; when there are women around, women and others feel more comfortable supporting women and are inclined to act in more inclusive ways.

Lastly and on a more negative note, (3) participants exposed to a female employee and an instance of non-allyship were significantly more comfortable supporting Brandon. Recall, most specifically, it was male participants who were exposed to a female employee and who were not exposed to an instance of allyship that were significantly most comfortable supporting Brandon (the sexist perpetrator) compared to all other conditions. This finding again demonstrates the importance of the presence of inclusive practices and male allyship in the workplace. When inclusivity is not encouraged, men often default to what is familiar to them and align with other men. This ultimately leads to the exclusion of women.

***Hypotheses Only Partially Supported***

It is important to note that although some findings showed support for the hypotheses, hypotheses one and two are not fully supported. This is because there was no significant interaction between employee gender and prior exposure to allyship, where participants who were exposed a male employee who demonstrated allyship against sexism were significantly more comfortable confronting Brandon, involving their boss, or reporting Brandon. There was also no significant interaction between participant gender, prior exposure to allyship, and employee gender, where male participants exposed to a male employee who demonstrated allyship against sexism, would be the most comfortable confronting the sexist perpetrator.

That being said, an opposite condition did provide a significant result that does suggest plausibility to both hypotheses. In particular, it was found that male participants, who were in the non-allyship condition and were exposed to a female employee were significantly most

comfortable supporting Brandon. This finding indirectly supports the theoretical argument of both hypotheses for many reasons. First, when inclusive people who act as allies against sexism are NOT present, bias is not challenged, and bystander men will likely decide to continue to support who and what they are familiar with. The finding reveals that allyship as a behavioural practice is powerful, as in its absence, male participants were more likely to (1) not act in inclusive ways, and (2) actively support the perpetrator of a sexist comment. Even if an instance of allyship is not completely effective in encouraging an inclusive response in everyone, allyship as a behavioural practice deters people – particularly men– from acting in overtly oppressive ways towards women. This was concluded due to the fact that male participants in the allyship conditions were not as likely to support the sexist perpetrator. Not to mention, all participants who were exposed to a prior instance of allyship, regardless of gender, were significantly more likely to report it was effective to confront the sexist perpetrator.

**What Does This Say About Inclusive Masculinity Theory and Men's Allyship**

It is clear that performances of inclusive masculinity are present and can encourage positive change in the workplace environment. This research suggests that several men decided to embody and act in inclusive ways. HEXACO personality traits related to inclusive masculinities found in this research were openness, agreeableness, and conscientiousness. In particular, it was found that male participants with high openness scores were significantly more comfortable supporting Madison. It was also found that male participants with high agreeableness scores were significantly more likely to report the sexist perpetrator, and male participants with higher conscientiousness scores were significantly less comfortable supporting the sexist perpetrator. It was also found that on average, male participants were more comfortable confronting the sexist perpetrator than female participants. That being said, the

central findings of this research were not as optimistic as Anderson's (2009) theory of inclusive masculinities. Anderson (2009) argues that hegemonic masculinity is no longer useful as a theoretical concept because current gender performances exist outside a power hierarchy. Anderson (2009) argues this takes place due to increased popularity of inclusive gender performances. Although more men are becoming open to embodying inclusive gender performances, based on the findings of this research, few men are open to intervening in sexist behaviour and instead some would rather support it. This is problematic because men care about what other men are doing and thinking (Cihangir, Barreto and Ellemers 2014; Drury 2013; Drury and Kaiser 2014; Eliezer and Major 2012; Thébaud and Pedulla, 2016). This is evident in this research also, as men continue to support each other, even when they are being sexist towards women. Recall, male participants were significantly more likely to support their fellow sexist male colleague, Brandon.

**Methodological Limitations**

Although this research was carefully planned and well thought out, there are still limitations that are important to consider. In order to conduct this research, a form of experimental sociology was used. Although experiments are less commonly used in sociology compared to other social sciences such as economics or social psychology, experiments have a long history in the discipline. For example, the famous Hawthorne experiments continue to be discussed by sociologists. Moreover, experimental research methods have been important in proving the nature and extent of bias in hiring practices (Cross, Kenny, Mill and Zimmerman 1990; Jackson and Cox 2013; Jackson 2009; Noon 1993; Quillian et al 2019).

In more detail, the experimental design was based on vignettes. Vignettes are short stories created by a researcher which focus on hypothetical characters in specific situations (Pierce,

2008). Vignettes are often used in scenario-based research to analyze the effects of certain variables on attitudes when employing a between-subject design (Lavrakas 2019:393). When using an experimental design with vignettes, participants read a short scenario-based story and are then asked what they would do or feel in certain circumstances (Pierce 2008). An advantage of using a vignette study is that researchers can distance themselves from participants and the issues being studied (Pierce 2008). This allows participants to be more honest and transparent because the researcher-participant interaction is less intimate than in participant observation or interview-based research (Pierce 2008). Another advantage to using vignettes is that they provide high internal validity. The controlled independent variables within different vignettes, together with random participant selection, allows for an accurate assessment of whether the different vignettes and their related variables do affect the dependent variable (Lavrakas 2019:394; Jackson and Cox 2013). In this thesis more specifically, the vignettes were used to assess whether witnessing a prior instance of allyship and the employee's gender would encourage participants to recognize and respond to instances of gender bias.

However, the construct validity and external validity of vignette studies are controversial (Lavrakas 2019:394). When using vignettes there is an assumption that the empirical evidence of what participants report they would do correlates with what they would actually do (Pierce 2008). There is also an underlying assumption that there is enough construct validity to produce honest results (Lavrakas 2019:394). A critical question about the success of vignettes is whether reported intentions in a response represent what a participant would do in a similar situation in real life (Lavrakas 2019:394). To come to this issue, researchers must also assume that the participant correctly interprets the vignette and does not try to answer in a way which makes their response seem more favourable (Lavrakas 2019:394-95). Nonetheless, research has found

significant positive correlations between intentions and behaviours (Latham and Saari 1984). Combined with a large sample size collected through the use of an online survey, participants' answers can give rich insight into the topics being studied and provide further ideas for exploration (Jackson and Cox 2013). It is also possible to argue that realistic vignettes stimulate similar cognitive processes to those involved in the cognitive process of imagining and making decisions about acting in real life; therefore, suggesting a solid external validity between vignettes and a similar real-life situation (Lavrakas 2019:395). Although some may argue that vignettes are better for examining how people should respond versus how they would respond (Lavrakas 2019:396), there are ways that researchers can fact-check their participants' answers to ensure consistent and honest answers. For example, researchers may literally ask participants (1) how they should respond versus (2) how they would actually respond (Pierce 2008). Another way to fact-check the accuracy of participants' responses is to ask them to note any memorable experiences they have had in the past that are attuned to the answers they have provided (Pierce 2008). For my MA thesis project, I asked participants if they thought certain reactions were more effective, and then asked them to rate how comfortable they would be responding in different ways. This was done to differentiate participants' thoughts about what they should do (how effective they think a response would be) versus what they would actually do (how comfortable they would be responding this way).

As the point of interest in this study was to examine the effects of inclusive workplace practices – gender and allyship – on participants' likelihood to respond to an instance of sexism, vignettes were the most appropriate method to test participants' response to a scenario-based situation while also controlling for outside variables. This allowed for the analysis of whether acts of allyship as an inclusive behavioural practice helped to encourage participants to respond

to an instance of sexism. As this is a preliminary study examining practices of inclusivity that have not been examined, analyzed, or tested in many significant ways, certain results of this study suggest continued exploration of this topic could be beneficial.

**Theoretical Limitations**

The point of this thesis was to explore ways in which workplaces can encourage men to embody more inclusive gender performances, while examining the role male allies have in aiding others to recognize and respond to instances of gender bias. Unfortunately, when not explained carefully or understood thoroughly, the theory behind this thesis and the large focus on men's behaviour can be taken to imply a counteraction to sexism. It can also be taken to imply that workplaces need to promote inclusive men to leadership. This is simply not the case. This research is in the domain of critical masculinity studies and critical mens studies which is directly rooted from second wave feminist ideologies. It is important to note that feminist men and male allies have historically been involved in the fight for gender equality to some degree (Connell 2005). When second-wave feminists began questioning ideas of gender, men interested quickly followed by questioning expectations of manhood and masculinity (Connell 2005). The birth of critical masculinity studies is a direct descendent of second-wave feminism (Connell 2005) and is thereby deeply intertwined with feminist ontology and epistemology. Men, and masculinity must be included in the discourse and discussion surrounding how to effectively combat gender bias in the workplace. Gender equality will not be achieved without the cooperation of all genders. To cite Kimmel (2017:146):

> Feminism inspired women to get outside the home, to seek work and careers, and to try to balance work and family. Such balancing efforts were unsuccessful for one simple reason: women could not balance work and family unless men changed their behaviors around the home.

Eradicating gender inequality will take a combined effort from all men, women, and gender nonbinary folks. Feminist women will not be able to abolish gender bias within the workforce without the support of men who are open to challenging their own gender ideologies, behaviours, and beliefs about work and family. Therefore, the point of this thesis was to explore how men can align WITH women, to help the fight for gender equity, and more specifically encourage others, particularly other men, who have a harder time recognizing gender discrimination (Swim, Hyers, Cohen and Ferguson 2001) to take instances of sexism more seriously. Ultimately, the theoretical underpinnings of this thesis do not reinforce the existing patriarchal power structure but rather uses the existing patriarchal power structure to dismantle itself for a more inclusive and equal future. Men have a role in aligning with women to disrupt patriarchy.

It is important to note that another limitation of this study was the lack of discussion surrounding topics of race, ethnicity, and class. In a Eurocentric Western society, to not mention topics of race, ethnicity, and class is to behave in ways that suggest colour blindness and class blindness. Ultimately, colorblindness reinforces existing binaries as turning a blind eye allows existing inequalities to remain. Therefore, it is crucial to mention that although race, ethnicity or class were not explicitly examined in this paper, it was deeply considered throughout the majority of the research process, the creation of vignettes, and the larger survey itself. A more complete analysis of gender bias in the workplace requires analyzing the intersections of race, ethnicity, and class with gender identities. Research suggests that members of marginalized and subordinated groups are more likely to be cautious, watchful, and alert to discrimination due to the oppression they have likely experienced (Lee and Hicken 2016; Rucker, West and Roemer 2009). In being alert to the nature of the bias they have experienced, such individuals may be more prone to recognize and decide to respond to instances of gender bias in the workplace,

thereby demonstrating allyship and inclusive gender performances. With these ideas in mind, my own future research will explore the role of traditionally subordinated and marginalized men as allies against sexism as a means to mitigate gender bias and motivate others to actively respond to instances of gender discrimination in the workplace. More specifically, it would be interesting to examine the effects that racialized and homosexual men have on participants' willingness to respond to a future instance of gender bias, and whether these masculine identities may be more open to acting in inclusive ways and using their political masculine capital to encourage other men to do the same.

It is also important to note some of the inherent biases interwoven into this research due to the fact that I am a female researcher who identifies as a feminist. I argue inequity persists within the workplace not only because of the extensive literature review conducted, but also because I *believe* inequity continues to thrive within workplaces. I have witnessed and been the target of instances of gender bias in the workplace and I constantly think of my research. Therefore, I write passionately from an inherently feminist perspective to critically examine and challenge existing gendered power relations between men and women in the workplace.

**Concluding Thoughts**

In the capitalist, patriarchal society of the West, men have historically dominated almost all social institutions including the labour market (Connell 2005). Despite seemingly progressive initiatives that have been put into place to remove legal barriers to women's and other marginalized and subordinated groups' equal participation in the labour force (Dobbin, Frank and Kalev 2021), significant differences between men's and women's participation in the labour market remain and men continue to dominate in most social institutions (Bonikowska, Drolet and Fortin 2019; Knuttila 2016; Statistics Canada 2022a, b). All genders have a role to play in

combating sexism (Drury and Kaiser 2014) and inequality within the workplace. However, the members of a group that have traditionally held political, social, and cultural capital are particularly well-placed and, arguably, responsible for shifting norms and practices that encourage equitable and inclusive environments (Murphy and Walton 2013). In competitive workplaces in the West where men dominate numerically, they have the power and responsibility to align with women to combat gender bias and initiate a shift toward a more inclusive environment (Drury and Kaiser 2014; Murphy and Walton 2013).

A way in which institutions can support their employees to act in more inclusive ways is to encourage people (men in particular) to embody inclusive gender practices and performances. For example, men who embody inclusive masculinities are less sexist, less homophobic, and are more aware of issues related to gender; they are also more caring, more emotionally and socially in touch, and more comfortable with ideas of change (Anderson 2009; Connell and Wood 2005; Hultman and Pule 2018; Kaplan, Rosenmann and Shuhendler 2017; Spector Mersel and Gilbars, 2021). With more emotional and social proximity to women, combined with less tolerance towards sexist behaviours, these inclusive masculinities may be more effective in identifying cues, signs, and instances of gender bias around them. In being able to identify instances of sexism, these men may become more motivated to respond to instances of sexism in their workplace. Of course, inclusive gender performances do not guarantee the erosion of patriarchy and social equality for women and other non-hegemonic gender performances, but having allies against gender discrimination has associated benefits for everyone: men[5], gender nonbinary individuals and women all together (Anderson 2009:7).

[5] Not all men will perceive the changes as beneficial, even if they do benefit from them.

To encourage continued progress of gender equality in the workplace, changing masculinities and advocacy for inclusive/ feminist/ progressive gender performances, men in positions of power need to become directly involved in supporting and empowering other men to take accountability and embody inclusive ideologies about women at work. This begins with men in positions of power aligning with women to express their inclusive values and create non-discriminatory environments where assumptions of gender and power are respectfully challenged, and men, women, and gender nonbinary people are welcome to respectfully discuss ideas and questions surrounding gender and power. In these moments, men and women in power need to be united, and together sternly promote, validate, and reinforce gender-inclusive environments and feminist acts of allyship against sexism. Only then will inclusive forms of masculinities proliferate in the labour market and counteract sexism. Until then, discussions surrounding inclusive masculinities and how to encourage men to embody feminist ideologies will continue. Researchers will have reason to further investigate the general role of male allyship in generating positive change toward more equitable and inclusive workplaces.

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## Appendix A: MTurk Written Advertisement

**Name of study:** Attitudes about Workplace Scenarios

**Description of survey:** You are invited to participate in a study that involves research. The purpose of this study is to examine people's attitudes about certain workplace scenarios. As a participant, you would be asked to answer a series of online questionnaires after reading and imagining a description of a workplace setting.

**Time of participation: 45 minutes**

**Compensation value: $ 3.50 USD.**

## Appendix B: Orientation Scenario

You are starting your first day at a company called Expedite Data Inc. You arrive and are guided by the front receptionist into a room where you will attend a brief welcome orientation. You find a seat at the table and relax in your chair as you observe your surroundings and wait for the others.

**Take a couple of minutes to write two sentences about how you are feeling and how you might want to behave while sitting in the orientation room.**
In your writing, try and answer the following questions:

How are you feeling while you wait in the orientation room?
What are you thinking?
Would you make small talk with others?

Your new manager walks into the orientation room a couple of minutes after everyone has arrived. {He/She} introduces themselves and tells you all that {he/she} is happy to finally meet you all. Your manager then points to five others in the room sitting along the side of the table, they all wave. Your manager explains that these are existing employees who will be sitting in on some of the orientation activities to assist you in making a smooth transition into your new

workspace. The manager then assigns everyone to a group of 2-3 with an existing employee for general icebreakers. Your boss then excuses themselves briefly to attend to another task.

You are assigned to a group of three which includes yourself, an existing employee and another new employee. You are sitting with your group when the existing employee begins to speak.....

***Participants will be randomly assigned to see ONE of the following Conditions….***

**Condition One - Male Non-Ally/Neutral**

"Welcome to Expedite Data Inc., my name is Jacob, and I have been working here for about 4 years now. As you are aware, we are a large firm that creates data logs for different organizations. We pride ourselves on working with many large and well-known corporations."

"I also really enjoy working here because they have a wide variety of food in the cafeteria that accommodates different allergies and different food preferences. It is also very affordable!"

Jacob finishes with a smile and gestures to the other new employee next to you, they introduce themselves and then you follow and do the same. You switch groups to meet with other existing and new employees until it is finally time for your lunch break.

**Condition Two- Male Ally Against Sexism**

"Welcome to Expedite Data Inc., my name is Jacob, and I have been working here for about 4 years now. As you are aware, we are a large firm that creates data logs for different organizations. We pride ourselves on working with many large and well-known corporations."

"I also really enjoy working here because more often than not, everyone supports each other. One time, there was a guy who worked here, and he would always make rude comments to the women. One day a couple of us in the company were working on a big project. The stakes were high, and it was stressful. Emily (another employee here) was making a couple of suggestions on how to proceed with one of the tasks. The guy made an objection to Emily's ideas and when Emily made a rebuttal to his objection, he called her a bitch in front of everyone (except our boss of course). We were shocked, I remember looking at everyone's faces in the room. I had to say something. I stood up out of my chair and raised my voice, I said,

'What the hell Mathew! You can't just call her names like that! Take a walk!'"

"What was even more impressive was my friend Dan (points out the door to where Dan is) backed me up and insisted the guy apologize to Emily. He apologized and walked off. After that,

he was more respectful toward Emily and we have all enjoyed a comfortable teamwork environment."

Jacob finishes with a smile and gestures to the other new employee next to you, they introduce themselves and then you follow and do the same. You switch groups to meet with other existing and new employees until it is finally time for your lunch break.

**Condition Three – Female Non-Ally/Neutral**

"Welcome to Expedite Data Inc., my name is Jessica, and I have been working here for about 4 years now. As you are aware, we are a large firm that creates data logs for different organizations. We pride ourselves on working with many large and well-known corporations."

"I also really enjoy working here because they have a wide variety of food in the cafeteria that accommodates different allergies and different food preferences. It is also very affordable!"

Jessica finishes with a smile and gestures to the other new employee next to you, they introduce themselves and then you follow and do the same. You switch groups to meet with other existing and new employees until it is finally time for your lunch break.

**Condition Four – Female Ally Against Sexism**

"Welcome to Expedite Data Inc., my name is Jessica, and I have been working here for about 4 years now. As you are aware, we are a large firm that creates data logs for different organizations. We pride ourselves on working with many large and well-known corporations."

"I also really enjoy working here because more often than not, everyone supports each other. One time, there was a guy who worked here, and he would always make rude comments to the women. One day a couple of us in the company were working on a big project. The stakes were high, and it was stressful. Emily (another employee here) was making a couple of suggestions on how to proceed with one of the tasks. The guy made an objection to Emily's ideas and when Emily made a rebuttal to his objection, he called her a bitch in front of everyone (except our boss of course). We were shocked, I remember looking at everyone's faces in the room. I had to say something. I stood up out of my chair and raised my voice, I said,

'What the hell Mathew! You can't just call her names like that! Take a walk!'"

"What was even more impressive was my friend Dan (points out the door to where Dan is) backed me up and insisted the guy apologize to Emily. He apologized and walked off. After that, he was more respectful toward Emily and we have all enjoyed a comfortable teamwork environment."

Jessica finishes with a smile and gestures to the other new employee next to you, they introduce themselves and then you follow and do the same. You switch groups to meet with other existing and new employees until it is finally time for your lunch break.

## Appendix C: Scenario/Company Measures

Based on your experiences at the company and orientation so far, please imagine what it might be like to work here. Do your best to try and imagine this as vividly as possible.
Using the scale provided, please answer the following questions about your feelings and perceptions of your new workspace. **(1=Strongly Disagree; 2=Disagree; 3=Impartial; 4=Agree; 5=Strongly Agree)**

***Attraction to Workplace***

I would like to work at a place like Expedite Data Inc.

***Identity***

If I worked at Expedite Data Inc., I would feel a part of the organization.

If I worked at Expedite Data Inc., I think I could behave like my authentic self at work.

If I worked at Expedite Data Inc., I think people would accept me for who I am.

If I worked at Expedite Data Inc., I think people would value my skills and capabilities.

The environment of Expedite Data Inc. would be a good fit for my own personal identity.

If I worked at Expedite Data Inc., I would consider the workplace environment when behaving.

***Gender identity***

I think that Expedite Data Inc. is a workplace environment where the contributions of both men and women are valued.

I think that at Expedite Data Inc., men and women are treated equally.

I think that Expedite Data Inc. is a safe space in which both men and women can express their "true" selves.

***Manipulation check***

Expedite Data Inc. appears established.

Expedite Data Inc. appears like a fun work environment.

Expedite Data Inc. appears to have an environment where employees stand up to instances of gender bias.

Expedite Data Inc. appears to be a place where employees do not tolerate gender bias.

## Appendix D: Gender Bias Scenario

You have now been working at Expedite Data Inc. for several months, and you have been tasked to complete a project with three other employees. A man named Andrew, another man named Brandon and a woman named Madison. You are eager to do a respectable job.

When sitting with the group to formulate a plan of action, you notice Brandon is not listening to anything Madison is saying. Instead, he is slouched back in his chair with his arms crossed. Madison begins to speak,
"I think we should divvy up the information and data files we have already been given and enter them into a shared data file that we will each have access to. This will be useful to us when it is time to begin collecting additional data and conducting the analysis"

Madison looks at Andrew who agrees she has suggested a good plan. You look at Brandon who appears impartial and unimpressed. Madison excuses herself quickly to refill her water bottle before getting started. Brandon begins to speak to you and Andrew,

"Honestly, I am so annoyed, she is being an absolute control freak! I've worked here much longer than her and she thinks she can tell me what to do? This is ridiculous! The women in this place think they know everything! I would rather work alone!"

Madison walks back over to the table just as Brandon finishes speaking.

## Appendix E: Responding to Gender Bias

**We are interested in your perceptions and opinion of this situation. Please answer the following questions using the scale provided (1=Strongly Disagree; 2=Disagree; 3=Impartial; 4=Agree; 5=Strongly Agree).**

I think the comment was sexist.

I would feel motivated to take action in response to the man's behaviour.

**Thinking about your experience at Expedite Data Inc., what do you think are some effective ways of responding to this situation?**

**Using the scale provided (1=extremely ineffective; 2=ineffective; 3=neither effective nor ineffective; 4= effective; 5=strongly effective) please answer the effectiveness of the following responses.**

Involving your boss.

involving human resources.

Confronting the man.

Telling the female co-worker and helping her find ways to take action

Telling the female co-worker and offering her emotional support

Doing nothing

**We are interested in how comfortable you would feel responding to the situation in various ways. Please answer the following questions using the scale provided (1=extremely uncomfortable; 2=uncomfortable; 3=neither comfortable nor uncomfortable; 4= comfortable; 5=extremely comfortable)**

I would confront the co-worker for his remark and make sure he understood why it was wrong.

I would pull the co-worker to the side and in private tell him that he was wrong.

I would contact the co-worker after hours via email to tell him his comment was wrong.

I would go to Human Resources (HR) to file a complaint.

I would talk to our boss about the comment first before doing anything else.

I would leave an anonymous note on our boss's desk or in the human resources comment box regarding the instance.

I would support the female co-worker and offer her emotional support.

I would support the female co-worker and help her find ways to take actions.

I would not do anything.

I would make a light-hearted joke in response to the comment.

I would agree with the comment.

**Take a moment to think about your own life and whether you have ever responded to similar conflicts in these ways. If so, briefly describe the experience(s).**

**_____**

## Appendix F: Memory Test

The following table is designed to assess your memory of the scenarios you were exposed to at your workplace. Please use the table to indicate what you experienced at your new workplace. If you recall experiencing a scenario that is on the table, click the check box next to it.

| | |
|---|---|
| You were told about the variety of food in the large cafeteria | |
| The existing employee you met was named Jacob | |
| The existing employee you met was named Jessica | |
| You were told about a time when Jacob confronted a man for calling Emily a name | |
| You were told about a time when Jessica confronted a man for calling Emily a name | |

## Appendix G: Demographics

Finally, we would like to know some basic information about you. Please answer the following questions.

Your age: ____ yrs.
Your gender: Male *I* Female/ I identify as _____

Ethnic Background (please tick any that apply):

Aboriginal/Indigenous Peoples of Canada
Asian
Black/African American
Hispanic/Latino/South American
Middle Eastern
White/Caucasian/European Immigrant to Canada
Other (please specify): _____
Prefer not to answer

Sexual Orientation (please tick any that apply):

Asexual
Bisexual
Don't know
Heterosexual
Homosexual
Other (please specify): _____
Prefer not to answer

What is your field of work? (Please specify): _____