Running Heading: Literature, Gender, & Emotion

The Perception of Literary Quality Differing as a Function of Authorial Gender and Emotionality

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Abstract

Previous research suggests that gender acknowledgment yields significant consequences on subsequent judgments. In the current research, we examined whether gender of authorial names affected the perception of literary quality. Participants read a short story excerpt designated as male-authored or female-authored that contained either exaggerated emotional content or minimal emotional content. Following presentation of the passage, participants reported perceived quality and emotionality and then completed the 10-item short form of the Need for Affect Questionnaire (NAQ-S; cf. Maio & Esses, 2001) followed by the 18-item Need for Cognition Scale (Cacioppo, Petty, & Kao 1984). Results indicated that participants rated female authors higher in quality than male authors when reading a highly emotional passage. When reading a minimally emotional passage, there was no difference in rating based on author gender. My research thus suggests that individuals may implicitly judge source type based on gender in conjunction with perceived emotionality and allow stereotypes to influence their judgments of quality, providing interesting implications for female authors and publishers.

The Perception of Literary Quality Differing as a Function of Authorial Gender and Emotionality

The use of pseudonyms is a well-known aspect of literature. While both men and women use pen names in their writing, there is a clear trend of women more often employing them to disguise their gender. Virginia Woolf asserted, "it is fatal for anyone who writes to think of their sex" (Woolf 610). In 1929, she lamented, "it is one of the tokens of the fully developed mind that it does not think specifically or separately of sex, how much harder it is to attain that condition now than ever before" (Woolf 608). However, throughout time, authorial gender has remained a consideration for authors, critics, and audiences. There is a tradition of female authors who have chosen to publish their work under male pseudonyms. George Eliot was the publication name for Mary Anne Evans. Charlotte Bronte and her sisters published as Currer, Acton, and Ellis Bell. Anne Bronte shared a similar opinion to that of Virginia Woolf, arguing,

> As little, I should think, can it matter where the writer so designated is a man, or a woman as one or two of my critics profess to have discovered… I am satisfied that if a book is a good one, it is so whatever the sex of the author may be. All novels are or should be written for both men and women to read, and I am at a loss to conceive how a man should permit himself to write anything that would be really disgraceful to a women, or why a woman should be censured for writing anything that would be proper and becoming for a man. Bronte 40

However, even contemporary female authors often do not disclose their gender upon publication. For instance, J. K. Rowling consciously chose to forgo use of her first name, Joanne, as to not deter boys from reading the *Harry Potter* series due to the female authorship. Though legal publication restrictions are no longer the cause of such pseudonymous decisions, gender stereotypes appear to still be a concern.

Source Information Influencing Perceptions

Altering the nominal source of the information may carry benefits for authors. The source from which information is derived is known to affect the perception of that message. Chaiken (1980) investigated how the extent to which participants were persuaded was impacted by source likeability. Undergraduates were assigned to read an argument by either a likable or unlikable experimenter. First, in order to manipulate likability, participants' responses to questions were either praised or insulted by the experimenter. A manipulation check was performed and confirmed this operationalization. Then, the participants' opinions on the assigned argument were assessed immediately after reading the article and during a delayed posttest. Chaiken (1980) found that perceived likability of the source directly affected the participants' willingness to accept or reject the persuasive message. Initial opinion change was greater following a likeable communicator than unlikeable communicator. Thus, source likability affected participants' levels of receptivity to the message.

Not only can source likability affect audience perceptions, but source information can also affect reading processing. Sparks and Rapp (2011) assessed the role of source credibility on readers' comprehension of the text. Credibility was

defined as trustworthiness, the likelihood of the information presented to be accurate and reliable. Sparks and Rapp (2011) believed that credibility would fail to influence readers' evaluations unless they were specifically directed to rely on that information. Thus, across four experiments, they increased the instructions to attend to credibility information. In this 2 x 2 design, participants were randomly assigned to a trustworthy or untrustworthy narrator, who then described a character with either congruent or incongruent behavioral information. As an example, the narration indicated the character was messy ("His shoes were buried under old candy wrappers, crumpled magazine, and some dirty laundry") followed by information that was either consistent with this description (Later at the bus stop he ignores a sign asking riders not leave garbage on the bus) or inconsistent information (he picks up his garbage and throws it away). Participants' reading time on a target outcome sentence was then measured. Results indicated that when given pre-reading instructions and asked to think about the role of source credibility, participants paid more attention, as assessed by longer reading times. Not until explicitly instructed to attend to the narrator through predictive judgments in the final experiment did participants fully apply source credibility to their comprehension. While the study shows that source credibility may not influence reading processes, it does not speak to post-reading judgments. When participants were told to make evaluations and use credibility, there was a significant effect of credibility on post-reading judgments. Thus, when asked to make explicit judgments, source information serves an important role.

Homer and Kahle (1990) also examined the role of communicator differences upon audience judgments. These experimenters believed that the power of communication is in part dependent upon characteristics of the message's source. They hypothesized that source expertise, participant involvement, and when the informant was identified to the reader would interact. They predicted that under high involvement, an expert would be more influential when identified at the beginning of the passage, while under low involvement, source expertise would be more influential when presented at the end of the passage. Participants first viewed a booklet of print advertisements and then completed a second booklet of dependent measures regarding message effectiveness. Results supported the hypothesis; there was a significant interaction of source expertise, involvement, and timing of identification on message effectiveness. In the low-involvement condition, expertise affected participant attitudes when presented at the end of the passage, but when presented at the beginning, there was no influence of source expertise. Under high involvement, source expertise affected audience judgments and attitudes when identified at the beginning of the ad, but not the end. The researchers thus found that source-expertise cues presented at the beginning of the high-involvement message set the stage for subsequent processing. When reading a narrative that requires participant attention, presentation of the author prior to the text would affect perceptions of the text. Likewise, when asked to make subsequent judgments the source information should be activated.

Gender Stereotypes

Research also suggests that source gender may also affect audience perceptions. Banaji and Hardin (1996) showed that gender information is automatically used within judgments. In their first experiment, participants were tested on their ability to recognize pronoun gender after receiving each of 200 primes. The primes were in categories of male, female, neutral, and nonsense words. That is, participants first saw a prime (e.g., doctor, nurse, chair, or non-word letter string), and were then presented with commons pronouns in the English language (he, she, him, her, his, and hers). After being shown a prime, the amount of time it took to recognize the gender of the following pronoun was recorded. Responses were fastest when the pronoun gender matched the prime gender. Also of interest, participants were faster to judge male pronouns than female pronouns after the matched gender prime and male pronouns were judged faster after generic terms such as mankind and human. In a second study, the researchers used the same primes, but reduced the number to 120 for the purposes of saving time. Also, instead of indicating the correct gender of the pronoun, participants were simply asked whether the target word was a pronoun or not. Non-pronoun words used consisted of words like *of, as*, and *in*. The results were consistent with those of the first study; judgments were faster when the prime and target gender were matched. Importantly, this study shows that gender-signifying information governs thought significantly enough to effect the processing of commonplace words.

In a similar manner, Banaji et al. (1993) demonstrated how stereotypical associations lead to implicit conclusions about genders. In the first two experiments, the team investigated two parallel hypotheses. First, as dependence is

stereotypically associated with women, a female target would be judged to be more dependent after primed for dependency than a male target. Second, as a men are more stereotypically associated with aggression, male targets, but not female targets, would be rated as more aggressive after being exposed to aggression primes. The participants were asked to unscramble sentences that connote dependence (e.g., "can't make decisions"), aggression (e.g. "threatens other people), or a neutral control (e.g., "answered the phone"). They were then asked to read about a male or female target in a short paragraph and subsequently asked to make trait-based conclusions about the character. The results supported these researchers' hypotheses; female targets were judged faster following dependency primes than male targets while male targets were judged faster than female targets following aggression primes. The findings highlight that the implicit judgments people make about gender are based strongly upon stereotypes.

Similarly, Lassonde and O'Brien (2013) showed the activation of male bias in gender-neutral occupational terms. Participants were asked to read a short passage line-by-line via a computer program. At the beginning of the passage, a male-biased or gender-neutral noun was presented (e.g., chairman or chair, fireman or firefighter). A target sentence then followed defining the gender of the character, during which participants' reading time was measured. Results indicated that target sentences with the bias-specific "he" were read significantly faster than target sentences containing "she", across both male-biased and gender-neutral passages. There was no difference as a function of participant gender. This study showed that gender-neutral language may still activate implicit biases, particularly within

occupations. Thus, neutral titles may activate gender-biased judgments through associations with stereotypical roles.

There is evidence that gender stereotypes associated with occupations are established in childhood. Libden, Biglet, and Krogh (2002) assessed the presence of gender stereotypes in occupations amongst children. Participants between the ages of six and eleven were presented with pictures and titles of occupations and asked to name whether a man or woman would be doing that job. The researchers found that children do not understand that unspecified occupations titles meant to be silent about gender implications (i.e. doctor) can be held by both men and women. Thus, stereotypes about the roles of men and women may be deep rooted and inflexible.

The primes in these studies represent implicit stereotype activation and prejudiced judgments. Through three studies, Devine (1989) examined the controlled and automatic aspects of stereotypes. She found that both high-prejudiced and low-prejudiced participants contain knowledge of the racial stereotype and their personal beliefs. For both high-prejudiced and low-prejudiced participants, automatic stereotype activation leads subsequently to congruent responses. However, controlled processes can inhibit these automatic responses. Devine (1989) argued that stereotypes exist and can influence participant responses; these stereotypes can be consciously rejected and may not result in prejudiced ways. However, implicit measures are useful for examining present stereotypes without the mitigating effects of social desirably.

Stereotypes play a role in explicit and implicit author judgments. Banaji and Greenwald (1995) examined the role of gender in false considerations of fame between men and women. Over a succession of studies, the researchers showed that knowledge of social categories as basic as gender can relate to significant judgments. The first experiment consisted of high school students participating to two sessions 48 hours apart. In the first session, the students were shown a list of 72 names which they were asked to rate for ease of pronunciation. In the second session, the students were shown a list of 144 names, 72 that were from the first session, and asked to identify whether the name was famous or not. 72 famous names were compiled such that twelve female names and twelve male names from six categories, such as actors, politicians, and athletes, were present. These names were pretested to be recognizable, but not obvious. From these names, 72 non-famous names were derived by use of the last names. The researchers found that familiar names (those seen in the first session) were significantly more likely to be incorrectly judged as famous if it was a male name than if it was a female name. The subsequent studies produced the same evidence of gender bias in fame judgment and stereotyping. Overall, men were found to be more aware than women to actual fame of male names, and vice versa. All participants falsely attributed familiar male names to fame more often than female names. This finding shows that names contain various social associations, and that male names are more likely to be attributed to fame and prestige.

To examine gender information and judgments, Henderson, Briere, and Hartsough (1980) assessed letters of recommendation to graduate school for

evidence of sexism of sex roles. They believed that men and women would be differently described in terms of desirable characteristics and that the gender of the letters' author would affect the content. Letters were randomly sampled from those received by the university. All relevant gender information was omitted during evaluation and description lists were accumulated. Three male and female graduate students then categorized the content of all letters. Among applicants and writers, there were significantly more men than women represented. Results indicated significant differences in letter content by author gender. Female writers were significantly more likely to refer to emotional or personality traits, describe goal orientation, and write longer letters than male writers. Henderson et al. (1980) argued that the great number of male applicants and writers point to the social constraints which discourage graduate education of females. Thus, applicants are measured equally across dimensions, but women must first overcome social restrictions. This speaks to gender biases within occupations and achievement. Furthermore, female authors more frequently wrote about emotionality and personality, indicating differences in content between genders.

Importantly, authorial gender has been shown to affect audiences' perceptions of quality in non-narrative evaluations. Noel and Allen (1976) asked participants to read an editorial and subsequently make quality and argument evaluations. Editorials were either radically framed or neutral, male or female, and Caucasian or Mexican-American. Results indicated significant main effects for article type, ethnicity of author, and sex of author. Neutral articles were rated more highly than radical articles and Caucasian authors were rated higher than Mexican-

American authors. Particularly of interest, articles written by females were deemed significantly lower in quality. There was no difference between male and female participants, indicating that they shared the same prejudices. The authors concluded that sexism in both males and females leads to a devaluation of female work.

Individual Differences: Need for Cognition and Need for Affect

Individual differences can be seen to affect consideration of source information in judgments. Need for Cognition (NC) is an individual's dispositional preference to engage in and enjoy effortful thinking (Cacioppo, Petty, & Morris 1983). Cacioppo, Petty, and Morris (1983) examined Need for Cognition in narrative evaluation, memory, and attitude change. Participants pretested on NC and attitude towards an argument. Participants who were dramatically different in NC, but held approximately the same attitude, were then selected for participation in Study 1. Participants then evaluated an editorial they believed was from the Journalism school. Students were randomly assigned to either a strong-argument or weak-argument editorial. Afterwards, they completed a booklet in which they evaluated the message, answered questions about the amount of cognitive effort used, recalled arguments used, and other questions about the communicator. Results showed the effect of argument quality on message evaluation and source impressions was significantly greater for participants high in NC than those low in NC. Participants high in NC recalled significantly more about the text and made more inferences about the communicator. Cacioppo et al. (1983) argued that these results demonstrate that participants high in NC are more affected by that quality of the message, which they subsequently use in forming an impression of the source.

Reinhard and Messer (2009) examined the effect of source likeability and Need for Cognition on audiences' attitudes. Participants were randomly assigned to a dislikeable, likeable, or control source information and either an implicit or explicit persuasion route. Participants first heard an interview with the endorser designed to manipulate likeability; in the dislikeable condition, the interviewee bragged about acquiring an expensive new car, while in the likeable condition, the interviewee discussed a new bicycle. Participants in the control condition did not see an interview. Following the interview, participants viewed the appropriate print ad. The explicit-persuasion advertisement stated, "I want to persuade you to buy this camera. This camera is unique," while the implicit-persuasion advertisement stated "This camera is unique." Finally, all participants completed the Need for Cognition scale and a number of attitude measures. The results indicated that for participants higher in NC, the peripheral cue of source likeability was less to influence audience attitudes. Individuals high in NC may be more likely to make judgments based on critical evaluation of the message itself, rather than other cues.

Bradley and Meeds (2004) found comprehension differences between high and low NC participants. They found a trend of less comprehension among low NC individuals. The data suggest that those participants were not making judgments based on careful comprehension; they instead made peripheral judgments. Higher levels of Need for Cognition are associated with greater attitude change in persuasive narratives, possibly due to the likelihood of close attention to the narrative. Zwarun and Hall (2012) demonstrated in a study of fanastical film narratives the role of NC on persuasion. Participants were randomly assigned to

view one of two films, one about a privacy issue and the second about environmental issues. Once they watched the film, they completed a questionnaire consisting of questions related to the film topics, transportation, demographics, and the Need for Cognition scale. Results indicated that NC was correlated with story consistent beliefs about privacy among the privacy film participants. In general, being higher in NC was found to be predictive of stronger beliefs and intentions. Beliefs are maintained longer and more resistant to change among high NC participants. Thus, individual differences in NC relate to varying levels of textual awareness and perceptions.

When reading a narrative, emotional engagement can result in attitude change congruent with the narrative message. Mazzocco, Green, Sasota, and Jones (2010) examined the role of transportability and emotion on attitude change after reading a narrative. In the first study, participants were assigned to read a version of a story designed to produce tolerance of homosexuality with either male or female character, or were placed in a no-story control condition. Participants then completed a number of measures, including empathy questions and the Narrative Transportation Scale. The results supported the hypothesis; highly transportable participants had significantly more positive attitudes toward homosexuality. Furthermore, empathy mediated the positive attitudes. The second study assessed the role of communication format, by including a narrative versus a non-narrative condition. Participants were asked to read either a short story or a rhetorical essay about race-based affirmative action. The participants then answered questions regarding their attitudes about affirmative action, the Transportability and

Narrative Transportation Scale, and the Need for Cognition Scale. Results presented an interaction, such that highly transportable participants experienced more positive attitudes in the narratives condition than the rhetoric condition. There was no difference between low transportable participants. The interaction between empathy and transportability showed the same pattern of results. The results also found that Need for Cognition was significantly related to transportability, such that those higher in NC were more likely to be transported into the text. Results also demonstrated that increased emotional responding, but not rational and cognitive appraisals mediated attitude change. These findings demonstrate the role of emotional engagement, along with NC, in influencing audiences' perceptions of narratives.

Need for Affect (NFA) can predict an individual's emotional experience with a story due to an intrinsic motivation to become emotionally involved in situations as they occur. Bartsch (2010) examined Need for Affect in a field study of moviegoers. She predicted that individuals high in Need for Affect would experience higher levels of emotions and evaluate their emotions more positively. Individuals were stopped on their way in to see a movie. If these individuals were seeing one of the two pre-selected movies, they were asked to participate in the study and given free tickets to the show for their cooperation. Before the show, participants filled out a five-factor personality inventory and the NFA scale. After the movie, they then reported their emotional experience among other questions. As predicted, higher Need for Affect scores significantly predicted more intense emotions. Across all analyses, Need for Affect predicted emotional variables. Thus, Need for Affect is

associated with higher emotional responsiveness and positive evaluation of experiencing emotions.

Haddock, Maio, Arnold, and Huskinson (2008) assessed individual differences in perceptibility to persuasive messages. Participants in the first study were pre-tested for Need for Affect and Need for Cognition. Participants were later randomly assigned to an affect-based or cognitive-based advertisement and asked to rate their attitudes toward the product. Results indicated a significant interaction, such that the affect-based message was rating more positively among individuals who prefer affect than those who prefer cognition, while the cognition-based message produced more positive attitudes in participants who prefer cognition to affect. These results were replicated in a follow up study. Similarly, Thompson and Haddock (2012) again demonstrated that narrative appeals were more influential in both high NFA and high NC participants than their low counterparts. Results also found a positive correlation between NC and NFA with transportation and transportability. Thus, individual differences in NC and NFA must be taken into consideration when examining audience's reactions to narratives.

The Current Research

The use of pseudonyms, particularly when a female author disguises her gender, offers anecdotal evidence for audience's changing perceptions of the narrative based on authorial gender. Research on gender stereotypes shows that gender-signifying information can affect our thoughts and judgments on a basic level (Banaji & Hardin 1996). Names are a basic gender signifier within our culture. Research has shown that nominal gender can influence social class assumptions,

particularly in conjectures of fame (Banaji & Greenwald 1995). As fame is generally consistent with prestige and success, this finding may have detrimental effects with judgments of quality are based solely on name. As knowledge of the source affects perception of the message (Chaiken 1980; Sparks & Rapp 2011; Homer & Kahle 1990), knowing the gender of the source may illicit implicit gender stereotypes and judgments. Furthermore, authorial gender has been found to effect perceptions of quality in non-narrative work (Noel & Allen 1976). Individual differences in sexism, Need for Cognition, and Need for Affect mediate audience's perceptions of the narrative.

The current set of studies examines if the gender of the author, as designated by name, results in differing perceptions of the quality of the narrative. We hypothesize that when participants are aware of author gender, they will make automatic judgments of the overall quality of the literary piece. Specifically, we predict that male authorship will be deemed higher in quality than female authorship, and that non-gender specific names will be rated closer to male authorship. Furthermore, we predict a significant effect of sexism on quality judgments, such that participants high in sexism will rate female-authored passages significantly lower than those low in sexism.

In a second study, we predict that the emotionality of the narrative will significantly effect quality perceptions. We hypothesize that participants who read a highly emotional passage will rate the quality significantly higher when it is authored by a female than a male, while there will be no difference in quality rating

between author gender for a low emotionality piece. Furthermore, we hypothesize that this effect will be stronger for participants high in Need for Affect.

Initial Pilot

An initial pilot was conducted in order to pre-test the short stories for use in the study. Six short story passages were selected from the *Massachusetts Review* and pre-tested for norming purposes. The specific literary magazine was chosen due to its reputation for quality, but not being as notable as other literary magazines, thus reducing the chance participants would be familiar with the passages. Thirty participants participated through Amazon.com's Mechanical Turk. Amazon's Mechanical Turk (www.MTurk.com) will provide the platform for all studies performed. According to Buhrmester, Kwang, and Gosling (2011), MTurk provides an efficient, cost effective, and diverse sample for testing. Participants read the excerpts, from which names and titles had been removed, and made were asked to quality and gender judgments on a 7-point Likert scale following each passage. Participants' mean ratings of gender predictions and quality were assessed. Two passages, one male authored and one female authored, which did not significantly differ in perception of gender and quality, were chosen for use in the studies.

Pilot

Method

Participants.

Two-hundred participants partook in the study through Amazon.com's M-Turk surveying platform. Participants chose to participate in the study for a small compensation of less than a dollar. The mean age of participants was 32.04, with

ages ranging from 18 to 75. Seventy-seven participants were females and 123 participants were males.

Procedure.

Participants first provided informed consent and read a cover story about the study. The cover story indicated the researcher was interested in reading comprehension and provided information regarding the duration of the study. All participants were randomly assigned to read one of the previously described pretested short story excerpts. Each passage was labeled with a male (Dan Griffin), female (Ann Griffin), or unspecified author's name (M. N. Griffin). The title and name of the author was emboldened and was followed by a generic statement about the author containing the applicable gender-specific pronouns intended to clearly designate the gender of the author (see Appendix A). All passages were approximately 230 words with a fifth-grade reading level, as assessed by Microsoft Word. After reading the story excerpt, participants answered a short series of questions about the text. These questions contained attention checks, quality assessments, and contextual questions consistent with the cover story. The participants then completed the Self-Monitoring Scale (Snyder 1974), Ambivalent Sexism Inventory (Glick & Fiske 1996), and a few demographic questions regarding gender, age, and ethnicity. Upon completion, participants were informed of the true nature of the study, thanked for their involvement, and compensated.

Results

The necessary questions were first reverse coded within the dependent variables and questionnaires. A Cronbach's Alpha (α = 0.89) analysis of the quality

related questions enabled the creation of a composite quality variable. This variable ranged from 5 to 25 and was used in all assessments. Among participants who correctly recalled the assigned gender of the author, there was a marginal effect of participant gender and author gender on the quality assessment. Results indicated a trend towards a participant gender by authorial gender interaction, F (2, 70) = 2.52, p = .08, and no significant main effects. The data were further explored, assessing only at those who correctly remembered the author's gender and excluding the initials condition. An ANOVA revealed no significant main effect of author gender or an interaction, but a trend for participant gender, F (1, 36)= 3.09, p = .08.

Further analyses indicated a significant gender by story interaction on quality assessments, F (1, 201) = 4.60, p = .03. Post-hoc tests revealed a significant difference in quality judgments between men and women in the second story, t (124) = 2.42, p = .01. There was no significant difference in quality ratings among men and women reading the first story.

Discussion

The results were not consistent with the hypothesis. No main effect of authorial gender on audience quality assessment was present within the sample. However, while only a trend, the ANOVAs revealed the presence of a possible effect of participant gender and author gender on quality perceptions. As the manipulation check indicated that only 62.5% of participants correctly recalled the gender of the author, it was concluded that a stronger manipulation was necessary to fully test the hypothesis. Also, although the stories were pre-tested, the perceived difference in

gender between the two stories differed within the pilot. Due to this bias within the second story excerpt, it was removed from further studies.

Study 1

Method

Participants.

Two-hundred and five participants were recruited to the study through Amazon.com's M-Turk surveying platform. Participants elected to partake in the study in order to receive a small compensation, less than a dollar. Ninety-seven men and 108 women participated. The mean age of the participants was 35.26, with ages ranging from 19 to 69.

Procedure.

The study followed a similar trajectory to the pilot with only a few alterations. As only one story was used, participants all read the same passage, which varied in assigned author name. Before reading the excerpt, participants were presented with the appropriate brief paragraph about the author. The statements were purposefully vague and contained many gender specific pronouns in order to strengthen the manipulation. After reading the passage, participants then answered the manipulation check, quality, and emotion questions followed by the Need for Cognition Scale (Cacioppo, Petty, & Kao 1984), the ASI (Glick & Fiske 1996), and demographic questions. Upon completion, participants were debriefed, thanked, and compensated.

Results

The composite quality variable was again calculated, (α = 0.86). Overall, 147 of the 205 participants (71.7%) correctly identified the gender to which they were assigned. In the male condition, 68 of 75 correctly remembered the gender of the author. In the female condition, 55 of 66 correctly remembered the gender. In the initials condition, only 24 of 64 remembered the ambiguity.

A 2 (Author Gender) x 2 (Participant gender) ANOVA was performed on the composite quality variable, including only a subset of the participants who correctly remembered the gender and excluding those in the initials condition. There was a trend for a main effect of author gender on quality judgment, F (1,119) = 3.62, p = .059, such that female authors were rated higher (M = 13.25) than male authors (M = 11.59). There was also a trend for a main effect of participant gender, F (1, 119) = 3.44, p = .08, such that male participants rated passages higher overall (M = 13.41) than female participants (M = 11.10). Similar to the pilot, as shown in Figure 1, a trend for an interaction of participant gender and author gender was present, F (1, 119) = 3.44, p = .066.

A smaller subset of the participants was analyzed. A 2 (Author Gender) x 2 (Participant Gender) ANOVA on composite quality was run with participants in the male and female authorship conditions who correctly identified both the manipulation and the emotion present in the passage. Again there were no main effects. However, the interactions became significant, F (1, 115) = 9.02, p = .003. Male participants who correctly identified the emotion rated female authors significantly higher in quality (M = 17.76) than male authors (M = 10.86). Female

participants did not show this effect, they rated male authors (M = 12.33) approximately the same as female authors (M = 11.61) in quality.

Discussion

The manipulation check indicated a higher rate of recall for author gender after reading the short excerpt about the author, particularly for the male and female authorial conditions. The low rate of correct recall of the ambiguous-gender condition, despite the increased manipulation and high recall rates within the male and female conditions, led us to remove it from further analyses.

The trend of author gender on quality judgment is consistent with the hypothesis. A trend for an interaction of participant gender and authorial gender on quality rating was found. Similarly, a trend of participant gender on quality rating was found. There was no evidence that sexism played a role on quality perception.

Recognition of the emotionality present in the piece had a significant effect such that male participants rated female authors more highly in quality than male authors when they correctly recalled the emotion in the passage. This result may account for the failure to find a significant main effect of author gender on quality rating, for the perceived emotionality of the piece could be mediating the perceived quality differently between male and female participants. In order to further tease apart this finding, a follow up study was performed.

Study 2

Method

Participants.

One hundred and nineteen participants completed the study through Amazon.com's M-Turk surveying platform. Participants in the study received $0. for their involvement. Seventy-seven of the participants were male, 42 were female. Participant ages ranged from 18 to 67, the mean age was 32.38 years old.

Procedure.

The original short story excerpt was adjusted in order to contain exaggerated levels of emotion or minimal levels of emotion. The integrity of the story was maintained, as was the length and reading level. The stories were pretested and remained equal in perceptions of quality and gender, but differed significantly in ratings of emotionality. Participants were randomly assigned to read one version of the story, which was labeled as male or female authored. For the reason previously discussed, the ambiguously gendered condition was removed. The remainder of the procedure was consistent with that previously described in Study 1, however the ASI was replaced with the 10-item short form of the Need for Affect Questionnaire (NAQ-S; cf. Maio & Esses, 2001).

Results

First, the composite quality variable was computed, (α = 0.89). A manipulation check was performed; 92.4% of participants (110 of 119) correctly recalled the gender of the author they read. The 9 participants who failed the manipulation check for author gender were removed from further analyses, though it should be noted that analyses including these participants yielded the same effects.

A 2 X 2 ANOVA was then performed assessing the effect of emotion level and authorial gender upon quality ratings. No significant main effects were present. There was no main effect of author gender on quality judgments, F (1, 106) = .10, p = .94. There was also no main effect of passage emotion on quality judgments, F (1, 106) = 1.77, p = .27. As seen in Figure 2, there was a significant interaction of emotion level and authorial gender upon quality ratings, F (1, 106) = 5.99, p = .01, such that participants who read the female-authored piece preferred the exaggerated emotion (M = 15.48) to minimal (M = 12.09), t (59) = 2.94, p = .005. There was no difference in quality ratings based on emotionality in the male-authored passage, such that the exaggerated emotional piece was rated similarly (13.00) to the minimal (14.00), t (47) = .72, p = .48.

An ANOVA was performed examining the role of participant gender within this relationship. Again, there were no main effects of either author gender or passage emotion level. There was a main effect of participant gender, F (1, 102) = 6.91, p = .01, such that female participants rated the excerpts more highly (M = 15.13) across conditions than male participants (M = 12.79). There was no 3-way interaction of participant gender with emotion level and authorial gender, F (1, 102) < .01 p = .98.

Discussion

Results were consistent with the hypothesis; the highly emotional passage was rated higher in quality when associated with a female author. Interestingly, this rating was consistent between participant sex, and not only within male participants. The interaction between emotion level and author gender indicates

that within highly emotional passages, quality is greater attributed to female writers than males. The main effect of participant gender on quality rating was consistent with that of the trend previously found in Study 1.

General Discussion

Pen names have a long history of use within literature. For women, gender stereotypes appear to be motivation for adopting male pseudonyms. Studies have shown that gender stereotypes are still prevalent and affect judgments (Banaji et al., 1993; Banaji & Greenwald, 1995) Based on preconceived notions of gender stereotypes, implicit acknowledgment taints observations of individuals (Banaji et al. 1993). In our culture, names are often gendered and are an easy way of identifying an individual's gender. Research has shown that the gender of a name influences social class assumptions. Most notably, this occurs in judgments of fame, which is indicative of prestige and success. As knowledge of the source affects perception of the message (Chaiken 1980), knowing the gender of the source may elicit implicit gender stereotypes and judgments. When judgments of quality are based solely on name, as in literature, this effect may have consequences. Based on this evidence, concerns of narrative quality judgments finding basis in gender are justifiable. Particularly, evidence that non-narrative quality ratings were significantly lower for female authors (Noel & Allen 1976) indicates the validity of these hypotheses.

In the current research, we hypothesized that when participants are aware of author gender, they would make automatic judgments of the overall quality of the literary piece. The research demonstrates that authorial gender does have

significant effects on audience perceptions as demonstrated though quality ratings. Particularly, emotionality appears to interact with authorial gender on quality judgments. In emotional narratives, female authors were rated significantly higher in overall quality than male authors. In minimally emotional narratives, on the other hand, there was no significant difference between male and female authors in quality ratings.

These findings suggest that when a written work is being evaluated, the name attributed to the work may affect value assessments. Female authors may need to consider the bias against them in seeking publication. This could influence multiple processes; the publishers' initial evaluation of the piece, critics' evaluations, and consumers' opinions. Publishing houses in particular should be aware of this phenomenon, so as to not enable it to affect their appraisals and best advertise the work. Publishers themselves should be conscious of the bias in rating female authors higher based on story emotionality, so as to fairly critique both male and female work. Likewise, consideration of story emotionality and author gender should be taken when releasing the narrative to the public. In a particularly emotional work, a female author's gender may lead to higher quality ratings, while downplaying a male author's gender might result in higher quality assessments.

Limitations

Perhaps the most obvious limitation in the study was that the story used in Study 1 and Study 2 had a male author. It is plausible, despite attempts to choose an author without obvious gender undertones, that consistency between the gender of the author and the writing style caused the trend of higher quality associated with

male authorship in Study 1. As the Pilot demonstrated, male and female participants differed in their judgments of quality for the actually female-authored story, such that female participants rated the story higher. Regardless, the findings in Study 2, that passage emotionality interacted with author gender such that female authors were judged with higher quality, indicates that actual authorship may not be a concern. Across participant gender, female-authored passages were rated more highly when the content was highly emotional. However, in that second study, a female researcher manipulated passages. Thus, actual authorship might be associated with the results. Conceptual replications should be undertaken that incorporate actual authorship and various writing styles to account for this possibility.

Likewise, another limitation of the current study is that only author gender was taken into account, while the character within the story was consistently male. Identification with the character could affect audience perceptions and subsequent judgments. Regardless, narrative point of view might also play a role in perception of emotionality, author gender, and thus perceptions of quality. In the second study, a third person narrator spoke of a male character. However, a first person narrative would make the emotions more immediate and might result in greater susceptibility to the emotionality, transportation, and quality judgments.

Directions for Future Research

Further investigations into the role of author gender on audience perceptions should be undertaken. One avenue for further research would be to examine the role of transportation and transportability in audience perceptions in conjunction

with authorial gender. As transportation is associated with greater attitude change based on story consistent beliefs and emotional involvement, decreased counter arguing, and disregard for fictional or factual genres (Mazzocco, et al. 2010), it can be conjectured that authorial gender would have less effect on quality rating for individuals who are transported into the narrative. Transportability provides an avenue for further investigating emotionality, authorial gender, and quality judgments.

The way in which authorial information is presented offers another avenue for research. In this study, authorial information was stated prior to the passage. However, in different scenarios, authorial information is presented differently. In order for the gender manipulation to be successful, the information had to be more impressed upon the audience. Biographical information is often present in literary works. However, in essays and other genres, the information may not be as present. Thus the time of presentation, type, and amount of source information may influence the perceptions and therefore judgment of the audience.

Another avenue for future studies would be to test if these gender-based judgments generalize to other scholarly endeavors. For instance, these findings could also apply to academic settings. Investigating evidence of this effect would be interesting in graded assignments such as essays. I hypothesize that within settings in which the professor has fewer preconceived notions of student ability, such as lecture style introductory classes, classes at large universities, or during the first graded assignment, there could be more reliance on gender information. Knowing how implicit stereotypes and judgments may affect assessment would be highly

useful for implementing policies to protect students from gender-based grading biases.

Conclusion

Women have historically concealed their gender in publications and recent examples continue to arise. As knowledge of gender stereotypes and their subtle, yet powerful, effects continues to compile, a reason for these actions may be more clear. The current research added to the knowledge of implicit gender stereotypes and the effect on value judgments. These findings suggest that gender may have significant results on judgments of literary quality and contains important implications for female authorship, academia, and publishers.

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Appendices

A. "About the Author"

Male Manipulation: "Mr. Dan Griffin composed this, his most recent work, after he reflected on his past experiences. He feels that he has expanded upon his previous texts. He is a man who has always enjoyed his literary endeavors and explored them throughout his life. Though he does not claim to be an expert, he takes a rather thoughtful approach to examining his circumstances. The result he chronicled with careful consideration and he has presented to his peers."

Female Manipulation: "Ms. Anne Griffin composed this, her most recent work, after she reflected on her past experiences. She feels that she has expanded upon her previous texts. She is a woman who has always enjoyed her literary endeavors and explored them throughout her life. Though she does not claim to be an expert, she takes a rather thoughtful approach to examining her circumstances. The result she chronicled with careful consideration and she has presented to her peers."

Ambiguous Manipulation: "M. N. Griffin composed this, most recent work, after reflecting on past experiences. The author feels that this has expanded upon previous texts. The author has always enjoyed literary endeavors and explored them throughout life. Though the author does not claim to be an expert, a rather thoughtful approach is taken to examine the circumstances. The result is chronicled with careful consideration and presented to peers."

Figure 1

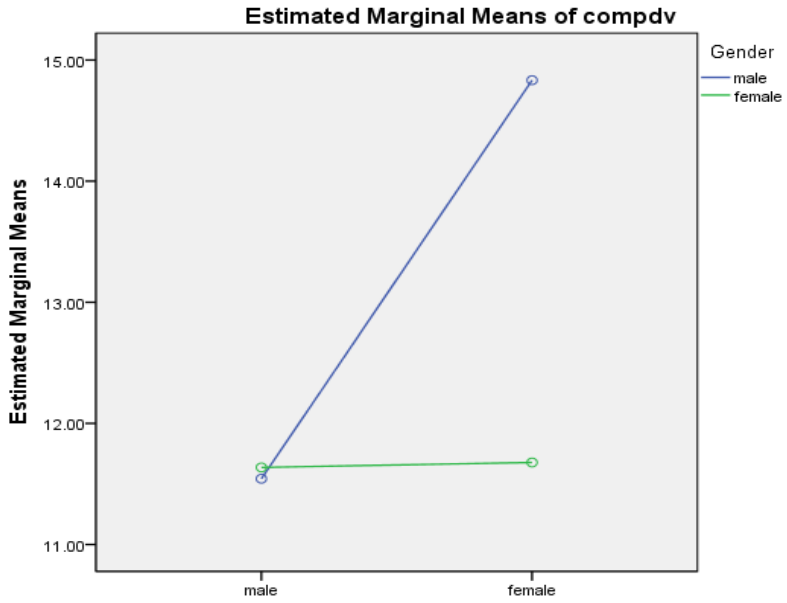
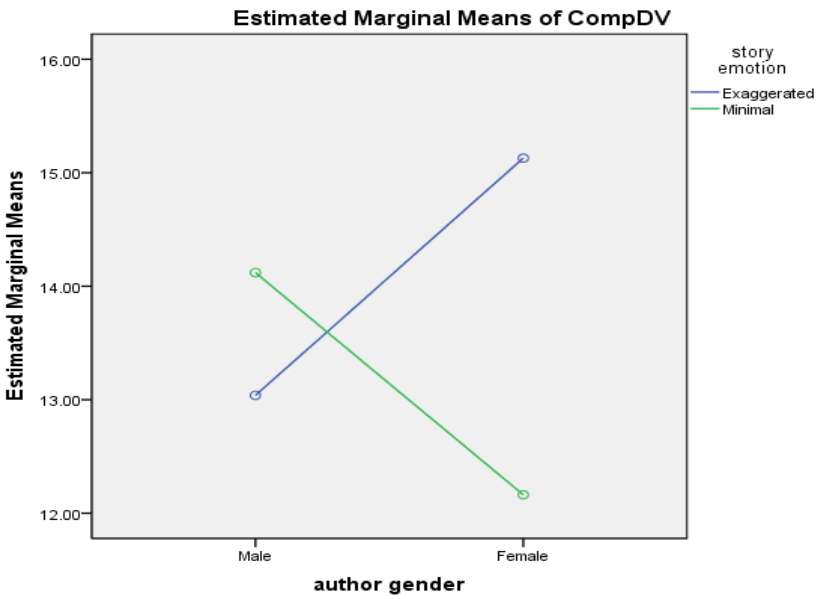


Figure 2


Estimated Marginal Means of CompDV
Estimated Marginal Means
16.00
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Male
Female
author gender
story emotion
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