IUL School of Social Sciences

Department of Social and Organizational Psychology

Development of Ambivalent Sexism and Gender Stereotypes among Children and Adolescents: Effects on Behavioral Intention to Stereotypic Task Division

Margarida Gonçalves Cavadas

Dissertation submitted as partial requirement for the conferral of

Master in Social and Organizational Psychology

Supervisor:
Ricardo Borges Rodrigues, PhD, Invited Assistant Professor
ISCTE – University Institute of Lisbon

Co-supervisor:
Leonor Pereira da Costa, MSc, Researcher Investigator
CIS – University Institute of Lisbon

September 2018

IUL School of Social Sciences

Department of Social and Organizational Psychology

Development of Ambivalent Sexism and Gender Stereotypes among Children and Adolescents: Effects on Behavioral Intention to Stereotypic Task Division

Margarida Gonçalves Cavadas

Dissertation submitted as partial requirement for the conferral of

Master in Social and Organizational Psychology

Supervisor:
Ricardo Borges Rodrigues, PhD, Invited Assistant Professor
ISCTE – University Institute of Lisbon

Co-supervisor:
Leonor Pereira da Costa, MSc, Researcher Investigator
CIS – University Institute of Lisbon

September 2018

Acknowledgements

I would like to begin to thank my supervisor, Ricardo Rodrigues, and my co-supervisor, Leonor Pereira da Costa. Thank you for walking with me during this time, for teaching me, for your patience, for your persistence, for believing in me. For your kindness and your trust. I honestly believe that I would have not made it without the two of you.

A special thank you for my psychologist, who listened me, who thought me to change my perspective, to see things in a brighter light, to see me in a different, more confident, perspective. It has been a big journey and I can't thank you enough.

Thank you to my friends with whom I shared my days of writing. Every single one of you have brought me or teach me something that I will always cherish: Tânia, Joana, Rita, Filipe, Joel and João Patrício. A special thank you to Raquel. For the light and joy of everyday, for your hope, for your love. Ana Sofia thank you for the companionship, for the laughs, for the strength, for your friendship. Ana Rita, you thought me about love, faith, strength and friendship. Thank you for your presence, for your care, for hearing my struggles and sharing your own with me. And you Ana Pinto. Thank you for being there in good and bad days, for sharing my joys and for helping me overcome my defeats and my fears. Thank you for all the patience, the care, the love, for your friendship. Thank you.

I must mention Ana Margarida and Ana Vaz. You have always been there. Always. And this time it could be no different. Thank you for your friendship, for growing up with you, for sharing your happiest moments and your stressful times. Thank you for listening and for being there for my own ups and downs. Thank you so much.

And finally, a special thank you to my family. My cousins, Carolina and Joana, with whom I grew, and shared my best moments. Henrique and Mariana, for making me laugh and for pissing me off. For your presence, love and support. My parents, my rocks. Thank you for being there, for all the love and endless support and care. Thank you for the pressure and the concerns. Thank you for being there with everything you had, for everything I needed. Thank you.

Abstract

This investigation examines the development of Ambivalent Sexism (i.e., Hostile and Benevolent Sexism) and Warmth and Competence Gender Stereotypes in late childhood and adolescence, and its' influence on intention to stereotypic housework division.

The perpetuation of gender inequalities in the distribution of structural power is very much related with the development of sexist stereotypes and attitudes from a young age, through observation with parents and other adults' behaviors and beliefs. This investigation explores the development of Ambivalent Sexism (i.e., Hostile and Benevolent Sexism) and Warmth and Competence Gender Stereotypes from childhood to adolescence, as well as its' influence on intention to stereotypic housework division. Furthermore, the relation between youngsters' sexist attitudes and their parents' attitudes was explored.

This study involved the participation of 167 youngsters, with ages between 9 and 15 years and their parents (N = 102).

The results showed an association between parents and youngsters' Hostile Sexism. It was found that Stereotypes and the endorsement of Benevolent Sexism remained stable with age, while the endorsement of Hostile Sexism decreased with age. Results also showed that Behavioral Intention to Stereotypic Task was stronger for the participants who endorsed more strongly hostile sexist attitudes. Behavioral Intention to Stereotypic Task Division remained stable through age, but it was found a mediation effect of Functional Asymmetry on this effect, but only for female participants. The implications of these findings for the literature are discussed.

Keywords: Children, Adolescents, Parents, Ambivalent Sexism, Gender Stereotypes, Housework Division.

Resumo

A investigação explora o desenvolvimento de Sexismo Ambivalente (i.e., Sexismo Hostil e Benevolente) e dos Estereótipos de Género de Competência e Sociabilidade, da infância à adolescência, e a sua influência na intenção para a divisão estereotípica de tarefas domésticas.

A perpetuação da desigualdade de género na distribuição de poder estrutural está fortemente relacionada com o desenvolvimento de estereótipos e atitudes sexistas, desde a infância, pela observação do comportamento e crenças dos pais e outros adultos. A investigação explora o desenvolvimento do Sexismo Ambivalente (i.e., Sexismo Hostil e Benevolente) e os Estereótipos de Género de Sociabilidade e Competência desde a infância e até à adolescência, bem como a sua influência na intenção para uma divisão estereotípica de tarefas domésticas. Para além disso, a relação entre as atitudes sexistas dos pais e dos seus filhos é explorada.

O estudo envolveu 167 participantes, com idades entre os 9 e os 15 anos e os seus pais (N = 102).

Os resultados mostraram uma associação entre as atitudes hostis dos jovens e dos pais. Foi concluído que os estereótipos e o apoio de crenças sexistas benevolentes se mantiveram estáveis com a idade, e uma diminuição no apoio a atitudes hostis ao longo da idade. Os resultados mostraram que participantes que apoiam mais fortemente atitudes hostis também demostraram intenção comportamental para divisão de tarefas mais estereotípica. A intenção comportamental para divisão estereotípica de tarefas domésticas permaneceu estável com a idade, mas esta relação é mediada pela Assimetria Funcional apenas para as participantes do sexo feminino. As implicações das conclusões na literatura são discutidas.

Palavras-chave: Crianças, Adolescentes, Pais, Sexismo Ambivalente, Estereótipos de Género, Divisão Trabalho Doméstico.

Index

Index of Figures and Tables

Introduction

Although the interest in gender relations and sexist attitudes have been growing in the past decades, some prejudiced attitudes are not yet recognized as such nor are the consequences their endorsement can have. The endorsement of sexist attitudes, both hostile and benevolent, allow to maintain gender inequalities, and restrains people's self-concept and occupational and educational decisions (Barreto & Ellemers, 2005).

The attribution of stereotypes to each gender begins from a young age, mainly to simplify the social reality (Hannover, 2000), but it translates into discriminative attitudes as a way of developing a gender identity based on differentiation from the outgroup, adopting more frequently attitudes that reflect ingroup bias, that is, attitudes that benefit their own gender (Zosuls et al., 2011).

One of the main influencers in this gender socialization process are parents. From birth they teach social knowledge, beliefs and values according with their children's sex (Bussey & Bandura, 1999; Garaigordobil & Aliri, 2012; Halpern & Perry-Jenkins, 2016). Parents were, therefore, surveyed regarding sexist attitudes, and their results related with their children's.

Studying the origin of parents' attitudes is a major step in understanding children's development and adopted behaviors. And so, the main goal was to characterize the development of gender stereotypes, the attitudes endorsed and the way it might affect their behaviors regarding stereotypical tasks. To do so, the present dissertation translated and adapted the Inventory of Ambivalent Sexism (Lemus, Castillo, Moya, Padilla & Ryan, 2008), for both youngsters and parents, a measure of Gender Stereotypes based on the Stereotype Content Model (Fiske, Cuddy, Glick & Xu**,** 2002), and a scale to evaluate the Behavioral Intention to Stereotypic Task Division.

This work is divided in four chapters. The first chapter presents a theoretical framework of the concepts related with gender stereotypes, ambivalent sexism and division of gender roles. The second chapter comprises the used methodology, the characterization of the sample, the description of the measures, and the procedure used in collection and data analysis. The third chapter focuses on the description of results, and the fourth chapter comprises the conclusions, implications and limitations of the investigation.

Chapter I – Theoretical Framework

Gender is one of the most important and salient social categories and it has a major role in the development of one's identity, in interpersonal relations (Glick & Fiske, 1996), and in shaping adjustment over time (Rogers, Scott & Way, 2014). It is one of the major categories in the definition of self-concept and in the evaluation of others, being one of the earliest social identities learned (Glick & Fiske, 1999; Halim & Ruble, 2010). The gender categorization depends of one's anatomy, the social norms defined to each gender and the context, and influences the development of gender identity, in a continuous and interactive process, that depends of others influence (Egan & Perry, 2001; Fagot, Rodgers & Leinbach, 2000).

Nowadays, gender and gender relations are a discussed topic in social media, schools and in political context, as well as gender inequalities, raising a concern for an education based on gender equality.

The evolution in the characterization of female characters, such as in princess movies, where they began to adopt, more recently, masculine traits, such as courage and independence (England, Descartes & Collier-Meek, 2011) is a concrete example of this prevailing concern. In these movies, however, strongly gendered messages are still usually conveyed, influencing the development of traditional ideas and reinforcing the desirability of traditional gender conformity (England et al., 2011). The development of gender identity has a major role on children's choices through life course, influencing the adherence, or not, to traditional gender roles and conducts, affecting their occupational choices, their academic success, and their life expectations (Montañés et al., 2012).

Understanding the development of gender stereotypes and the adoption of sexist attitudes from a young age is important to understand the basis of occupational choices as well as the roots for sexist attitudes in relationships between boys and girls. It is important to study not only the adoption of hostile and negative attitudes, that are traditionally attributed to children (Glick & Hilt, 2000), but also the implicit benevolent attitudes, that mature with the development of ambivalent relations between genders, and the development of gender stereotypes, in order to analyze the impact these can have on children's future choices, and in the adoption of social roles.

Some successes have been achieved, such as the higher rates of women's conclusion of higher education (59.5%), comparing with men's conclusion rate (Comissão para a Cidadania e a Igualdade de Género [CIG], 2017). However, gender inequalities can also be observed in the higher unemployment rate for women with higher educational levels, when comparing with men's unemployment rate, and in the horizontal division if the labor market: women represent only a third (35.9%) of the legislative and executive power but are the majority (59.2%) of specialists in intellectual and scientific activities. Men also earn 16.7% more than women, and this difference increases as the level of education increases (CIG, 2017).

Gender Stereotypes

While we live in a more equal society, it can still be observed differences in the adopted roles: the traditional beliefs prescribing women's role in society (i.e., prescriptive stereotypes; Delacollette, Dumont, Sarlet & Dardenne, 2012) can influence women's educational and career choices, since they set the expectations on women's behaviors and attitudes. It can be observed that in Portugal women are more oriented to scientific-humanistic courses, representing the majority (54.7%), with very few choosing professional courses. This can also be observed in the academic context, were more women choose social sciences, law, health and social protection, and education, that has the higher rate of feminization (81%), areas related with care delivery (CIG, 2017), which is in accordance with the stereotypes prescribed to women: caregivers, nurturant, warm, friendly (Glick & Fiske, 2001).

Stereotypes need social categorization (i.e., that structures the perception of reality, organizing people in groups based on perceived shared characteristics) and influence one's social identity (Tajfel, 1974; Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Intergroup attitudes, including ingroup favoritism and outgroup hate, derive from the identification with one's own group, and are also informed by stereotypes, that ought to create a distinction between genders (Brewer, 1999).

Each person usually belongs to several social groups (e.g., gender, ethnic, religious) that are mutually constructed over time. It is the set of them, and the comparison with the outgroups, what allows the development of the individual's identity (Jackson & Sherriff, 2013), the definition of his/her place in society and the development of his/her self-image (Tajfel, 1974; Tajfel & Turner, 1979). In the relation established between men and women, as social groups, social comparisons and competition regarding wealth, power and status can be

observed. This happens alongside with an interdependence, where positive and negative genuine feelings toward the outgroup arise, since this specific relation is central to the species reproduction and in establishing deeply intimate relations (Glick & Fiske, 1996).

Stereotypes can describe group members according to the characteristics associated with that group (i.e., descriptive stereotypes), but can also include a set of beliefs, expectations and behavioral standards attributed to individuals so they can behave appropriately and to infer about a given situation or individual (i.e., prescriptive stereotypes), ignoring inter-individual variability (e.g., it is expected that all elderly women should be kind; Delacollette, et al., 2012). These are shared by the society (Tajfel, 1974), and are often used to justify the status quo (Glick & Fiske, 2001).

The Stereotype Content Model

According to the Stereotype Content Model (SCM; Fiske et al., 2002), group members are evaluated considering two dimensions: *competence* and *warmth*. Individuals' competence is evaluated depending on one's resources and social status, and individuals' warmth is evaluated depending on if they pose or not a threat for the ingroup's status and resources. The relations between groups, and the attitudes adopted depend on the combination, often mixed, between the two dimensions.

According to this model, the groups characterized as highly warm and competent are evaluated as having positive, non-threatening intentions, and are considered resourceful and competent. These evaluations are usually attributed to ingroups, but can also target *reference groups* (i.e., culturally default and dominant groups, such as middle-class Americans). These groups usually elicit feelings of admiration (Fiske, Cuddy & Glick, 2006; Fiske et al., 2002).

There are other groups characterized as incompetent, useless, untrustworthy, stupid, hostile and unmotivated, eliciting disgust and contempt (Fiske et al., 2006). These are viewed as parasites that do not contribute to society and are rejected for posing a threat in the distribution of resources and for not having the ability to improve their social status. This is the case of poor people, homeless people, drug addicts and undocumented migrants (Fiske et al., 2006; Fiske et al., 2002).

Paternalistic stereotypes are usually attributed to groups that elicit paternalistic feelings, such as older people, physically or mentally disabled people, since they are seen as

incompetent but friendly. These groups are not respected since they do not contribute to society and have no apparent value, but elicit pity and sympathy, feelings attributed to subordinate groups, that are usually associated with paternalistic and protective behaviors (Fiske et al., 2006).

There are groups that elicit envy and jealousy, and are evaluated as competitive, since they are highly competent but untrustworthy, having prized competences and resources. Globally, Asian people, Jewish people, female professionals and minority professionals usually elicit envy and can elicit harming and hostile behaviors (Fiske et al., 2006; Fiske et al., 2002).

Women usually elicit paternalistic and protective feelings from men, since they are evaluated as warm and friendly, but also delicate and fragile, while men are usually perceived as strong and competent, eliciting feelings of admiration (Glick & Fiske, 1996). Interestingly, and describing the power asymmetry between these groups, the traits that are associated with each gender are not seen as absolute positive or negative ones: the traits that are positively associated with women, sociability traits, are negatively evaluated when attributed to men, which elicits feelings of disdain (Glick & Fiske, 2001). When masculine traits, related with higher status and higher power roles, are attributed to women, they are evaluated more negatively (e.g., in a work context, being considered a leader versus being considered bossy) (Glick & Fiske, 2001).

When women adopt stereotypically feminine roles, such as full-time mother, they are evaluated as less competent but as kind and friendly. This evaluation elicits positive sexist attitudes from other women and men, that can be of active facilitation (i.e., paternalistic attitudes) or of passive harm (i.e., neglect attitudes), that reinforces their behavior and maintains their social status, such as caring and protective behaviors (Fiske et al., 2002). Women who break gender roles, adopting masculine, higher status roles, such as businesswomen, are usually perceived as competent but are evaluated as cold, ambitious, and even competitive. These traits are positively evaluated in men but not in women, and they become more likely to be the target of hostile discrimination. The attitudes adopted can go from passive association to active harm, like call into question a woman's ability to control emotions and make decisions when she is perceived as more competent than a man (Fiske et al., 2006; Fiske et al., 2002; Glick & Fiske, 2001).

In other words, subjectively positive (i.e., paternalistic) attitudes are usually only directed toward women that adopt roles that won't affect men's higher status, or that show their dependence on men, that are positively evaluated and reinforced on dimensions associated with higher power, wealth, and structural power (Glick & Fiske, 1996).

This power lends men control over economic, legal, and political institutions, that is perceived as fair (Glick & Fiske, 1996), while sexual reproduction, the satisfaction of sexual needs and the necessity for psychological intimacy are attributed to women, which lends them dyadic power, that drifts from dependencies of one another in a two-person relationship (Guttentag & Secord, 1983). Furthermore, each gender values what the other brings for the relationship, the way they complement each other (Glick & Fiske, 1996).

Intergroup relations can then be marked by ambivalent feelings, such as pity, envy, contempt and admiration (Fiske et al., 2006; Fiske et al., 2002). Accordingly, the definition of prejudice has evolved so as to comprise also ambivalent attitudes – i.e., the positive benevolent attitudes toward the outgroup, alongside with the hostile explicit attitudes, depending on the role adopted by the outgroup' member, and his status and power associated (Glick & Fiske, 1996).

Ambivalent Sexism

The interdependence between the two sexes creates an ambivalent relationship, characterized by the presence of both positive and negative attitudes in interpersonal relations, and reflecting ambivalent sexist attitudes as well, i.e., ingroup favoritism and/or outgroup hate (Glick & Fiske, 1996). So, ambivalent sexism comprises positive (i.e., benevolent) and negative (i.e., hostile) attitudes toward the outgroup that reflect the existing stereotypes. These attitudes are evaluated as fair, desirable and inevitable, and, regardless of being negative or positive, they maintain social inequalities, and the ideological system (Glick & Fiske, 1996; 2001). For example, based on the stereotypical belief that women have an affective personality they ought to care for children and elder, since they have a superior capacity for that task, so they have better chances of being hired for a job related to their abilities. They justify, reinforce and legitimate the social order and *status quo*, the differentiation between groups, and the attitudes adopted toward the outgroup (Glick & Fiske, 2001).

Hostile sexism is defined as a negative attitude towards women, communicating a clear antipathy toward women, especially those who try to break the gender stereotypes and expectations (e.g., career women or feminists), and those who are perceived as seeking to control men (Glick & Fiske, 1996; 2001). These contribute to maintaining men's higher status through dominant, competitive, controlling, and hostile attitudes (Barreto & Ellemers, 2005; Glick & Fiske, 1996; 2001). Hostile sexism is associated with sexual violence toward women, evaluation of women as less competent or capable for leadership roles, and discrimination in payed employment (Glick & Fiske, 1996).

Benevolent Sexism, on the other hand, encompasses a patronizing positive tone towards women (e.g., flattering or jokes related to one group capacities), and is characterized by positive attitudes, that provide a reinforcement to women who accept and act according with conventional gender roles, stereotypes, and expectations (e.g., being a housekeeper). It preserves the beliefs that women constitute an essential but weaker group, that men need to protect and cherish (Barreto & Ellemers, 2005; Glick & Fiske, 1996; 2001). Benevolent attitudes arise from genuine positive feelings towards women, that are only characterized positively and superior on dimensions that do not affect men's social status, as stated above (Glick & Fiske, 1996). The same authors concluded that Benevolent Sexism allows men to maintain a positive self-image, since adopting these positive behaviors allows men to display his power over women, and reflects their willingness to sacrifice themselves to protect and provide for women, which legitimates men's attitudes (Glick & Fiske, 2001). This type of sexism tends to elicit behaviors presented as prosocial and are, so, seen as desirable, such as offering help when non-requested, among other attitudes of chivalry, and is associated with negative reactions to rape victims and with attitudes that legitimate domestic violence, as it endorses traditional gender stereotypes and sexist beliefs (Glick & Fiske, 1996; Barreto & Ellemers, 2005).

Benevolent Sexism comprehends three sub-factors, representing a set of benevolent beliefs about the other group: *Protective Paternalism*, *Complementary Gender Differentiation*, and *Heterosexual Intimacy* (Glick & Fiske, 1996). *Protective Paternalism* is the norm in relationships and includes the beliefs that women need the protection of men, because of their diminished competence they need men to adopt the role of protectot and provider (Glick &

Fiske, 1996). *Complementary Gender Differentiation* describes the beliefs that women's characteristics and abilities, such as nurturing, are qualities that few men possess, and so they complement the abilities that characterize men (e.g., men are ruder, so they need women's tenderness to complement them; Glick & Fiske, 1996). The beliefs that characterize *Heterosexual Intimacy*, state that for men to be complete, they need to be in a romantic heterosexual relation, being that the only way for them to engage in a significant and fulfilling relation, and to establish a psychological close relation (Glick & Fiske, 1996).

The adoption of the roles of mothers, wives and romantic objects is what fosters men's necessity for women, giving them dyadic power, and establishing an interdependent relation between the two sexes (Glick & Fiske, 1996).

Both Hostile and Benevolent Sexism rely on gender stereotypes (e.g., women can't provide for themselves, are more delicate or can't make rational decisions), and can be adopted simultaneously, and they have the same goal – to maintain men's higher status and structural power (Glick & Fiske, 1996), and to reinforce women's lower status (Glick & Fiske, 2001). This can happen through the adoption of negative attitudes (i.e., Hostile Sexism), and/or conveying a positive tone to stereotyped beliefs (i.e., Benevolent Sexism). Individuals that adopt benevolent sexist attitudes are more likely to support a belief system in which women are treated with respect and consideration but can only adopt restricted roles in restricted contexts (Amâncio & Oliveira, 2006; Viki, Abrams & Hutchison, 2003).

According to Glick and Fiske (1996), and Lemus and colleagues (2008), Benevolent and Hostile Sexism are positively correlated, which means that men can hold both positive and negative attitudes toward women, without creating a conflict. These authors argue that men create subtypes of women, in which those who embrace traditional roles (e.g., housewives or mothers) are favored, and those who challenge or threaten men's power, and don't satisfy their needs and desires (e.g., feminists or businesswomen) are evaluated negatively and are the main target for hostile sexist attitudes. But not every woman is evaluated positively versus negatively, existing those who arouse conflicting feelings in ambivalent sexists.

The effects of gender discrimination, through the adoption of positive or negative attitudes, can be observed when comparing men's and women's unpaid work: compared to men, more women work in part-time, and they also work, on average, 1 hour and 45 minutes every

day of unpaid work more than men (CIG, 2017). This may be because traditional social representations and beliefs about the division of domestic responsibilities and tasks between men and women are maintained and reinforced through sexist attitudes (CIG, 2017; Glick & Fiske, 2001).

There is a tendency to favor the ingroup when it comes to impressions and behaviors (i.e., ingroup bias or favoritism) that is markedly present in every intergroup relation, since cooperative interdependence is mandatory for long-term survival (Brewer, 1999). These attitudes include preference for ingroup interactions and institutions but can also include a range of attitudes toward outgroups like mild positivity, indifference, disdain or even hatred (Brewer, 1999; Santos & Amâncio, 2014; Tajfel & Turner, 1979). Attitudes are adopted to distinguish between ingroup members, the only people with whom the resources and benefits will be shared, and outgroup members (Brewer, 1999).

The intergroup discrimination can be motivated by a preferential treatment of ingroup members (i.e., ingroup bias), and not necessarily a real hostility toward outgroups (Brewer, 1999). That is, preference for ingroup members does not translate necessarily in hostile or competitive behaviors, if the distinctiveness between groups is maintained (Brewer, 1999). To put it in Brewer's words "there is a fine line between the absence of trust and the presence of active distrust, or between noncooperation and overt competition" (1999, p.435).

The development of gender categorization, attitudes, and stereotypes from childhood to adolescence

From the moment children can categorize themselves and others as girls or boys, children's play with stereotyped toys will increase, and the time spent playing with same-sex children will increase as well (Fiske et al., 2006). They start to display a strong preference for their ingroup (i.e., ingroup bias), with outgroups being characterized in comparison with the ingroup (Nesdale & Flesser, 2001). Children's attitudes, by this age, are mainly motivated to maintain a positive self-image (Brewer, 1999). According to Rudman & Glick (2010), it's not until adolescence, when different types of relations are established, mixed groups formed, and romantic relations start to be explored, that this relation becomes ambivalent (Glick & Hilt, 2000; Rudman & Glick, 2010).

Gender identity is developed through the identification of their sex, the contentment with this belonging, the perceived pressure and expectations by one's peers or parents (Brinkman, Rabenstein, Rosén & Zimmerman, 2014), and even the intergroup prejudice (Egan & Perry, 2001).

Between 2 and 4 years, children develop gender stereotypes about what kind of objects and activities are associated with each gender (Martin, Ruble & Szkrybalo, 2002). They begin, as well, to understand the differences in the objects, in the physical appearance, in the roles adopted, and in the toys and plays that are associated with each gender, and they start to make abstract associations too (e.g., men are rude, while women are gentle; Leinbach, Hort & Fagot, 1997). Hannover (2000) has concluded that around 4 years old, children have acquired a relative knowledge about the traits that characterize each gender, and around 5 years old they already know the interests, preferences or activities associated with each group, in their society (e.g., what are the stereotypic feminine and masculine professions). That information is incorporated in their self-concept, adopted and adapted, and used in the appropriate contexts (Hannover, 2000). A study conducted in Italy revealed that children aged 3 to 5 years displayed gender segregation and gender bias, where both girls and boys interacted more with same-gender peers and rated their ingroup members more positively (Gasparini, Sette, Baumgartner, Martin & Fabes, 2015). The conclusions go in line with the results of a previous study, conducted in the USA, that concluded that intergroup gender attitudes were best described by ingroup bias, that is, that children characterize their group more positively with little negativity towards the outgroup (Zosuls, et al., 2011).

By age 6 or 7 almost every child has developed the notion of gender constancy, i.e., the notion that one's gender does not change through time or physical changes, which means that they gain conscience that there isn't the possibility for social mobility (Egan & Perry, 2001). The acquisition of gender constancy is likely to lead children to use strategies that emphasize ingroup dimensions (e.g., girls are more organized that boys), or change the value attached to ingroup characteristics (e.g., being feminine is being powerful), with the goal of maintaining or enhancing their self-esteem (Fiske et al., 2002).

Children reach the peak of rigidity in their gender stereotypes when they are between 5 and 7 years-old (Martin & Ruble, 2004; 2010; Trautner et al., 2005), which declines when

they're about 8 years old, when the range of stereotypes increases, becomes more flexible and complex, and they start to make more extrapolations (Halim & Ruble, 2010; Martin & Ruble, 2010; Trautner et al., 2005). It is during the school period that children acquire an important part of social knowledge that may last until adulthood (Nesdale, 1999), and this might also hold for gender-related knowledge.

When children arrive at adolescence they start to form new types of relations, beginning to create mixed groups and to engage in romantic relations (Perry & Pauletti, 2011), and the guidelines in which they ground their behavior develops simultaneously (Nesdale & Flesser, 2001). This is the moment when people start to explore who they are and who they want to be, defining their identity, and establishing gender attitudes that will influence educational choices, professional paths, and even their future personal life (Farkas & Leaper, 2015; Montañés et al., 2012).

Gender Socialization

Gender socialization begins at birth, with the continuous and interactive influence of several socialization agents, such as parents, sibling and peers, and social norms defined in each context and culture (Fagot et al., 2000; Martin & Ruble, 2010), impacting the adherence to traditional gender roles and conducts, including occupational choices (Bussey & Bandura, 1999). Gender socialization and the development of gender identity also has an impact on their adjustment, self-esteem, and acceptance by peers, as well as self-sadness and anxiety, with gender contentment and typicality associated with higher adjustment, and the felt pressure associated with higher levels of anxiety and lower self-esteem (Egan & Perry, 2001). Bem (1981) concluded that the pressure felt to adopt gender roles promotes adoption of unfulfilling and undesired options and undermines the exploration of individual's possibilities and desires.

Gender socialization influences the adherence to social norms, gender roles and conducts during childhood, but also regarding educational and occupational choices (Bussey & Bandura, 1999). Family, especially parents, play a major role in children's acquisition of social knowledge, beliefs and values (Bussey & Bandura, 1999; Garaigordobil & Aliri, 2012; Halpern & Perry-Jenkins, 2016). Childhood educators have also been found to have an important role in learning gender roles, having the opportunity to break gender barriers (Chick, Heilman-Houser & Hunter, 2002). However, it was found that while they usually reinforce girls' clothes,

hairstyles, and nurturing behaviors, boys were more usually reinforced for their physical abilities (Chick et al., 2002).

Parents have an important impact in the formation of their children's self-concept and gender attitudes (Tenenbaum & Leaper, 2002). Modeling, as one of the most important social influence mechanisms, is present from birth, but children also receive information about behaviors, attitudes and stereotypes attached to their sex through direct instruction, and, as children gain mobility, they begin to act on the environment and to adopt behaviors that are socially linked to their sex (Bussey & Bandura, 1999). Endendijk and colleagues (2013), for example, concluded that mothers' gender stereotypes predict the development of their daughters' gender stereotypes.

Children also experience social reactions and regulate their own behavior accordingly (Bussey & Bandura, 1999). They begin to spend more time with peers of their own gender (Fagot et al., 2000), and they develop in-group favoritism, motivation to resemble their group, and start to exaggerate the differences between groups (Martin et al., 2002; Tajfel & Turner, 1979). The adoption of competitive behaviors, the segregation of the groups and the development of hostile sexist attitudes, according to Glick and Fiske (1996), and Rudman and Glick (2010), also characterize this period, being specially directed to the peers who violate gender norms. Interestingly, girls appear to be more prone to family influences (Brinkman et al., 2014). Galambos, Borenbaum and McHale (2009) concluded that girls whose parents divide home labor according to gender, have poorer results in school than girls that have more egalitarian examples. Mothers and fathers also speak differently to their children, with mothers using a more supportive speech and fathers using a more directive and informative speech (Leaper, Anderson & Sanders, 1998), and they expect a division of household chores and playing according to what is gender-typical behavior (Eagly & Wood, 2013). The relation established between parents has a weigh in children's development, since they will model the roles they observe, including the roles adopted related to child-care, housework and employment (McHale, Crouter & Whiteman, 2003). A study concluded that housework division affects the development of stereotypes, since it was found that toddlers as young as 2 years start to develop knowledge regarding gender-stereotyped activities, associating masculine-stereotyped activities with male dolls and activities considered feminine with female

dolls (Poulin-Dubois, Serbin, Eichstedt & Sen, 2002). It was also found that when mothers are employed children's gender stereotypes and attitudes decrease, (McHale et al., 2003), since the division of paid and house work reflects the division of power within the family (Berk, 1985).

Peers are also a very important socialization agent. Being accepted by peers and feeling like a member of a group is an important part of adolescence and can help prevent solitude and even depression during this stage, so youths find adequate to conform to others' expectations and to gender roles to be granted this acceptance (Baskin, Wampold, Quintana, & Enright, 2010). The need for acceptance and to establish positive romantic relationships can also lead to the adoption of traditional and accepted attitudes and gender roles, based on paternalistic attitudes, and chivalry (Farkas & Leaper, 2015; Glick & Hilt, 2000). The traditional attitudes, those who put men in the role of protector and women as needing protection, called paternalistic attitudes, adopted in this period are often on the base of adoption of traditional romantic scripts, for the occupational and personal goals, and future expectations (Farkas & Leaper, 2015), and will root sexist stereotypes from this age forward (Glick & Hilt, 2000). By this period, most adolescents are aware of status differences between genders and realize that being a male grant them more power and opportunities, and higher status positions (Bigler & Liben, 2007).

Hostile sexist attitudes in intergroup relations are usually adopted in response to a rejection of traditional choices and goals (e.g., pressuring girls not to follow a study area related with mathematics or engineering, considered a masculine area; see Leaper & Brown, 2017), while the adoption of benevolent sexist attitudes consists on a positive response to the embracing of traditional feminine roles, which instigate positive-tone benevolent responses by young men (Montañes et al., 2012; see Leaper & Brown, 2017). Several authors concluded that the adoption and acceptance of benevolent sexist attitudes by youths affects their occupational choices, academic success and life expectations (Montañes et al., 2012), and may contribute to the maintenance of power' asymmetry amongst genders, for the perpetuation of men's structural dominance in the future generations (Glick & Fiske, 2001; Montañes et al., 2012).

Authors that explore sexist attitudes adopted during childhood argue that children move from a simple form of hostility toward the opposite and competing gender to an ambivalent relation and ambivalent attitudes (Glick & Hilt, 2000). However, some questions have yet to be explored, such as the adoption of adult roles during childhood and, as mentioned

above, if the relation established between groups are characterized uniquely by outgroup hostility, ingroup preference, or both (Martin & Ruble, 2010).

In a world in constant evolution, where sexism is a discussed topic in social media and in school, while hostile sexist attitudes are usually evaluated as sexist and are less accepted by society, benevolent attitudes are evaluated as positive being often endorsed by both men and women (Barreto & Ellemers, 2005). These attitudes are often seen as reflection of real differences between sexes, instead of differences in the opportunities presented for each gender (Barreto & Ellemers, 2005). Despite the changes and social evolutions, the biggest risk is the constant positive and benevolent reinforcement of women's traditional and stereotypical work, decreasing their motivation for the workplace and its power (Williams & Chen, 2014), creating the necessity to understand from what age and how it is learned, and its consequences.

The present study: goals and hypothesis

The present study aimed to explore Portuguese children and adolescents' ambivalent sexist beliefs (Hostile and Benevolent), and the endorsed stereotypes about boys' and girls' (Competence and Warmth), using SCM (Fiske et al., 2002) as a reference model.

The concept of ambivalent sexism has been rarely studied in children and adolescents since, in childhood, relations between gender have been characterized as explicitly hostile, without exploring if children could or not adopt benevolent sexist beliefs. Therefore, it was important to study both children and adolescents with the goal of understanding the development of these beliefs. Alongside, we found important to explore parents' sexist beliefs, using Glick and Fiske's (1996) concept of Ambivalent Sexism, so as to compare and assess the relationship between these and children and adolescents' sexist beliefs.

It was expected that parents and youngsters' results, regarding Ambivalent Sexism beliefs, were correlated (H1), reflecting the influence of parents as social agents, predictors of their children's beliefs (Halpern & Perry-Jenkins, 2016).

The investigation intended to study youngsters' beliefs about the division of housework, aiming to understand if the behavioral intention to stereotypic division of housework tasks between genders would vary with students' age, and if this relation would occur due to the development of students' sexist beliefs and stereotypes through their age (Figure 1.1). So, it was predicted that, with age, the task division would be less stereotypical

(H2). This relation should be mediated by Ambivalent Sexism and Stereotypes as follows: with age, youngsters would display a weaker endorsement of Hostile Sexism and a stronger endorsement of Benevolent Sexism (H3a), since negative attitudes are not usually accepted by society, while benevolent attitudes are evaluated as positive (Barreto & Ellemers, 2005). Furthermore, it was hypothesized that stronger endorsement of ambivalent sexist attitudes would reflect a more stereotypical housework division (H3b), with Hostile Sexism as a stronger predictor of a stereotypical housework division (H3c).

Regarding the development of Stereotypes, is was predicted that boys will be considered more competent and less warm than girls (H4), reflecting the stereotypes that portrait men as more intelligent and competent, and women as more sociable and good natured (Amâncio & Oliveira, 2006; Fiske et al., 2006), and that these stereotypes will be stronger with age (H4a). It was also foretold that Competence and Warmth Stereotypes could predict the Behavioral Intention to Stereotypic Task Division as follows: the characterization of men as more competent than women would reflect a more stereotypical division of housework (H4b), and the characterization of men as warmer than women would reflect a non-stereotypical division of housework (H4c).

The investigation also intended to explore the moderation roles of youngsters' sex in the mediation presented above.

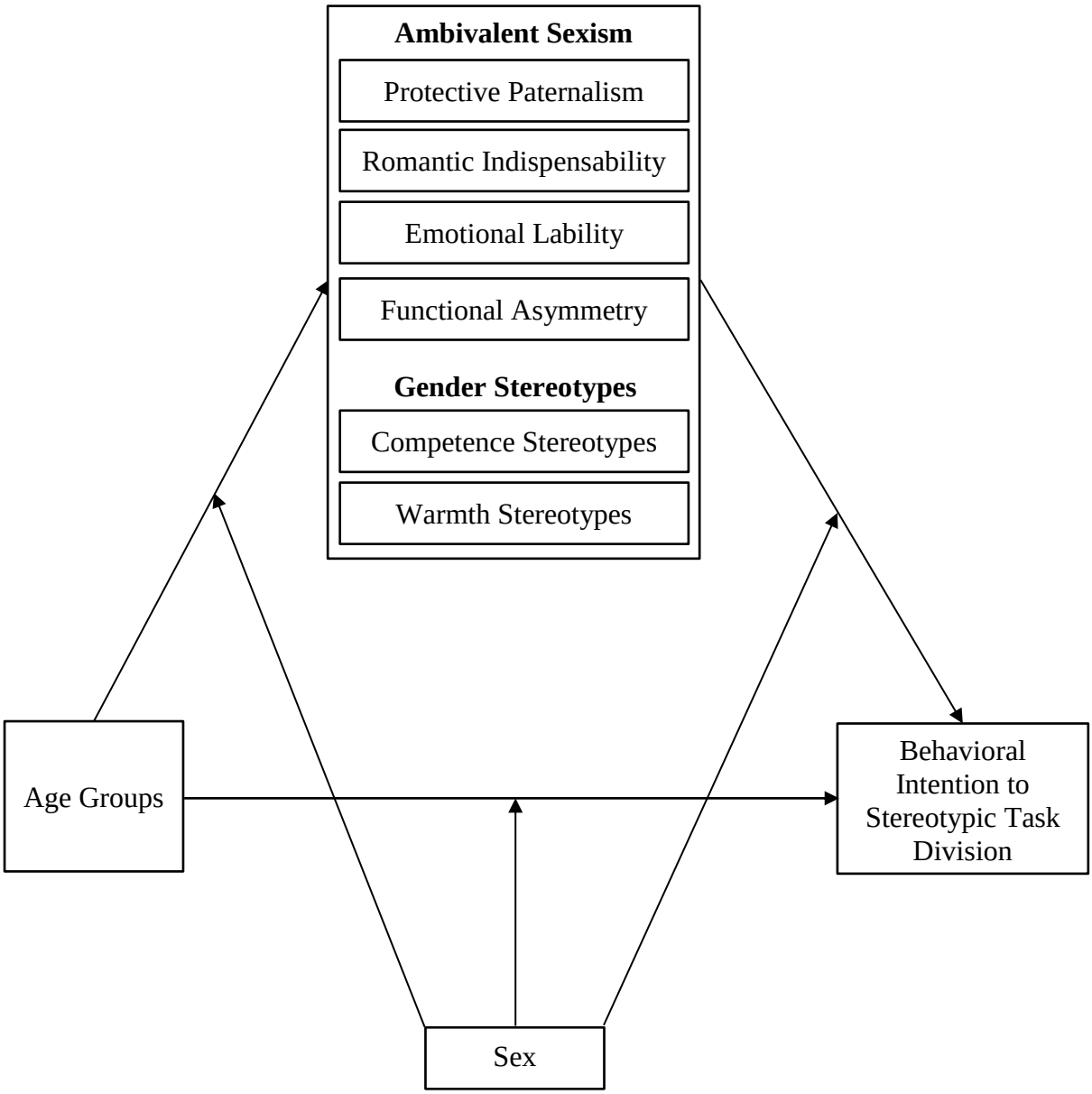


Figure 1.1. Mediation model tested. Prediction of Behavioral Intention to Stereotypic Task Division (outcome variable) by the students' age, mediated by their Ambivalent Sexist beliefs – Benevolent Sexism (Protective Paternalism and Romantic Indispensability), and Hostile Sexism (Emotional Lability and Functional Asymmetry) and the Gender Stereotypes (Competence and Warmth Stereotypes), moderated by sex.

Chapter II – Methods

Participants

A total of 178 students, with ages comprehended between 9 and 17 years old, enrolled in the 4th, 7th and 8th grades, participated voluntarily, with their parent's consent, in the data collection. Students attending 4th grade, over 11 years of age, and students attending 7th or 8th grades with more than 15 years old, were excluded from the analysis, leaving us with 167 participants (M_{age} = 12.05, *SD* = 1,91, 50.3% females). A total of 59 of the participants (35.3%) were 4th grade students, with ages between 9 and 11years old (M_{age} = 9.69, *SD* = .08, 55.9% females), and the remaining 108 students, with ages comprehended between 12 and 15 years, attended to 7th and 8th grade (M_{age} = 13.34, *SD* = .08, 47.2% females).

Most of the students (73.7%) identified themselves as Portuguese, while 16.8% identified themselves as Portuguese and another group (e.g., Portuguese and Cape Verdean), and 9% of the students identified themselves as non-Portuguese.

Most students live with both parents (66.5%), but some students referred that they live only with their mother (26.9%), only with their father (4.8%), or with other relative (1.8%). Their household is made up on average by 4 people (*M* = 4.17, *SD* = 1.33).

We also asked the person in charge for the student's education to answer a questionnaire (*N* = 102, M_{age} = 41.97, *SD* = 6.92, 85.1% females). Most of the participants reported being married (58%), and the remaining in union of fact (16%), single (16%), divorced (7%) or widowers (3%). Regarding their educational level, 38% of parents reported to have completed high schools, 19.4% reported to have completed their college studies, and the same percentage reported to have completed the 2nd cycle of basic education. The remaining participants reported to have completed the 3rd cycle (14.3%) or the 1st cycle of basic education (8.2%).

The data was collected in a set of schools inserted in a context characterized as socially disadvantaged and marginalized.

Measures

Participants answered a questionnaire composed of several measures, adapted to participant's age, so they could understand clearly what was asked. All students filled the *Ambivalent Sexism Inventory*, adapted from Lemus and colleagues (2008), the *Domestic Task*

Division Scale, adapted from the International Social Survey Programme [ISSP] (2012), a measure of *Gender Stereotypes* (competence and warmth), adapted from Fiske and colleagues (2002), and socio-demographic questions. The measures were pilot-tested with 6 children as to the clarity of the questions and the procedure.

Parents were also asked to fill a shorter questionnaire composed by the *Ambivalent Sexism Inventory*, adapted from Lemus and colleagues (2008), and socio-demographic questions.

Ambivalent Sexism Inventory

This scale aimed at evaluating participants' beliefs about sexist attitudes toward women, and it is composed of a total of 20 items, focusing on two dimensions – *Benevolent* and *Hostile Sexism*. Participants were asked to give their agreement/disagreement regarding each item by using a 5-point Likert scale, with the labels "1 – strongly disagree", "2 – disagree", "3 – neither agree or disagree", "4 – agree", and "5 – strongly agree".

For the present study, and given the sample characteristics, all items were translated and adapted from Lemus and colleagues' Ambivalent Sexism Inventory for Adolescents (2008), and an Exploratory Factor Analysis was conducted. The analysis resulted in a model with 13 items divided into the following four dimensions: *Protective Paternalism* (α = .815), comprising three items and represents the paternalistic attitudes toward women (e.g., item 11, "At night, boys must walk girls home so nothing bad happens to them"); *Emotional Lability*, with four items (α = .716), is the dimension that represents women's lack of emotional control (e.g., item 9, "Girls exaggerate their problems"); *Romantic Indispensability* (α = .632), the belief that romantic heterosexual relations are essential for life' happiness, with three items (e.g., item 18, "It's important for a boy to find a girl to date"); and *Functional Asymmetry* (α = .531), which represents the asymmetry of tasks division, comprising three items (e.g., item 4, "Girls are better than boys doing household chores"). Ambivalent Sexism can be also divided into two general dimensions: *Hostile Sexism* (α = .617), comprising the dimensions *Emotional Lability* and *Functional Asymmetry*, and *Benevolent Sexism* (α = .747), comprising the dimensions *Protective Paternalism* and *Romantic Indispensability*. Higher mean scores for each dimension represent stronger beliefs about adopting sexist attitudes toward women. Next, a Confirmatory Factor Analysis (CFA) was conducted, which showed a good fit of the four

dimension model in our sample (see Appendix A): $\chi^2(59) = 86.06$, $p = .012$, Comparative Fit Index (CFI) = .95, Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) = .93, Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) = .06, and Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) = .05.

Domestic tasks division scale

This scale was adapted from ISSP (2012) and allows to measure the behavioral intention on future division of domestic tasks between the participants and their imagined future partners, in order to understand if the participants distribute the tasks consistent with gender stereotypes (e.g., attributing tasks considered feminine with females). The students were presented with six household tasks, such as doing laundry, groceries, repairs, cleaning, cooking, and caring for the sick, and were then asked to think about themselves in adulthood, and to choose who would do each of those tasks in their home: themselves, a future partner or spouse, or other persons (e.g., "When you grow up and live in your own apartment who will do the laundry?"). The responses were codified as 1 for a *stereotypical division* and 0 for a *non-stereotypical division* of tasks and were summed up. Values ranged from 0 to 6, and higher values represent more stereotypical choices in task division.

Gender stereotypes: Competence and warmth.

To measure participants personal beliefs about the extent to which *warmth* and *competence* are associated to each gender, participants were asked to give their agreement on several sentences that characterized both boys and girls, regarding each gender warmth and competence. Both dimensions were assessed filling in a 5-point Likert Scale, with the labels "1- very untrue", "2 – untrue", "3 – neither true or untrue", "4 – true", and "5 – very true". As to the *warmth* dimension, this was assessed through the items "I think that [*girls/boys*] are, in general, [*sincere/friendly/kind/tolerant*]", the *competence* dimension was assessed through the items "I think that [*girls/boys*] are, in general, [*competent/intelligent/confident/ competitive/independent*]".

Analysis revealed low to moderate reliabilities for the constructs *males' competence* ($\alpha = .535$), *males' warmth* ($\alpha = .611$), *females' competence* ($\alpha = .635$), and *females' warmth* ($\alpha = .740$). The item that asked participants to give their opinion about how tolerant boys and girls are was removed since the participants showed some confusion about the concept, and this was confirmed by the poor reliability of this item. Hence, composite scores were computed for the

Warmth and *Competence* Stereotypes for each target group, and next a 'boy' minus 'girls' difference score was computed to contrast the perceptions about each target group. Values closer to zero indicate no perceived differences in boys and girls' concerning warmth/competence, while values closer to 3 indicate boys are perceived as being relatively more warm/competent compared to girls; values closer to -3 indicate that girls are perceived as being relatively more warm/competent compared to boys.

Ambivalent Sexism Inventory for Adults

Parents only answered the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory, that was very similar to the questionnaire presented to their children, and were asked to give their agreement or disagreement with the 20 items, filling in a 5-point Likert scale, with the labels "1 – strongly disagree", "2 – disagree", "3 – neither agree or disagree", "4 – agree", and "5 – strongly agree".

To compare parents and children's scores, the same factor structure was applied to both groups. Therefore, parent's model is composed by 13 items divided in 4 dimensions: *Protective Paternalism*, composed of three items (α = .771), *Emotional Lability*, with four items (α = .784), *Romantic Indispensability* (α = .613), with three items, and, with three items, *Functional Asymmetry* (α = .619). Ambivalent Sexism can be also divided into two general dimensions: *Hostile Sexism* (α = .756), comprising the dimensions *Emotional Lability* and *Functional Asymmetry*, and *Benevolent Sexism* (α = .738), comprising the dimensions *Protective Paternalism* and *Romantic Indispensability*. Higher mean scores on each dimension are consistent with stronger beliefs about adopting sexist attitudes toward women.

A confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) showed a good fit of this measure in our sample (see Appendix B): $\chi^2(59) = 89.31$, $p = .007$, Comparative Fit Index (CFI) = .95, Tucker-Lewis Index (TLI) = .94, Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR) = .05, and Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA) = .05.

Socio-demographics

At the end of the survey, students were asked about their sex, age, grade, and with whom they lived. They were also asked about their nationality, and were given the option to select one or more ethnic group to which they considered to belong, amongst the option of "Portuguese", "Angolan", "Brazilian", "Indian", "Mozambican", "Gypsy", "Cape Verdean", Ukrainian", "Guinean", "Romanian", and "Other", and their parents' nationality and work.

Parents answered similar questions regarding the sample characterization, being asked their age, gender, marital status, schooling level, and profession.

Both groups were also asked to indicate their perceived economic status, through an explicit measure. They were shown a 10-point scale were the base represented those with less money, and the top represented those with more money, and were asked to place themselves on that scale.

Procedure

Consent was first requested to school's Director, and only after her approval authorization to participate informed consents were distributed to children and adolescents' legal guardians, requesting authorization for the students' participation in the study, and asking for their own collaboration, answering a questionnaire themselves afterwards. About 68% of the students' parents signed the consent to participate. In the consents distributed was stated the inexistence of risks connected to the study, and the confidentiality and anonymity of the data were guaranteed. The same rights and guarantees were explained to the students prior to the realization of the survey (see Appendix C).

Participants were recruited directly by the investigator, during classes. Both confidentiality and anonymity of responses were explained in the introduction page and were guaranteed verbally before taking the survey. The data collection took place during school time, and in a classroom setting, and it took the participants about 25 minutes to fill out the questionnaire, with the participants from 4th grade taking more time than those in 7th and 8th grade. All participants were informed (a) about the general purpose of the study, and the length of time it was expected to take, (b) that the survey had no evaluation purposes, (c) that neither their name or other identifying information was attached to their data, and (d) that their participation was voluntary and they could withdraw from the study at any time. After all questions were answered, participants started the survey. The first part of the survey included our main study variables, and the last part included the sociodemographic information (see Appendix D).

After completing the study, all participants received an envelope to take home, with the questionnaire to be completed by their legal guardian (see Appendix E). The instructions were similar, but the survey was shorter, presenting first the Ambivalent Sexism Inventory, and

finally the demographic information. In the end, the survey was sealed inside the envelope, so their answers could be kept anonymous, and brought back to the investigator.

All participants were thanked for their participation.

Chapter III – Results

To characterize participants' beliefs regarding sexism and stereotypes, correlations and means were calculated, using IBM SPSS version 24.0, and are presented in tables 3.1 and 3.2. Correlations between the four dimensions of Ambivalent Sexism (i.e., Protective Paternalism, Romantic Indispensability, Emotional Lability and Functional Asymmetry) were analyzed, as well as between Hostile and Benevolent Sexism, for both youngsters and their parents. Furthermore, correlations were also performed with the variable Warmth Stereotypes, Competence Stereotypes and Behavioral Intention to Stereotypic Task Division.

The main dimensions, Hostile and Benevolent Sexism (see Table 3.1), were positive and significantly correlated for both youngsters and their parents. It was also observed a significant positive correlation between children and adolescents' and parents' samples at three of the ambivalent sexism' dimensions: Protective Paternalism, Romantic Indispensability and Functional Asymmetry. Interestingly, parents' beliefs regarding women' Emotional Lability were not significantly correlated with their children's beliefs, confirming only partially the first hypothesis (H1). The means of both parents and youngsters were then compared, and it was found significative and positive differences for Protective Paternalism ($t(101) = 3.75$, $p < .01$), Emotional Lability ($t(101) = 4.29$, $p < .01$) and Functional Asymmetry ($t(101) = 2.50$, $p < .05$), but not for Romantic Indispensability ($t(101) = .03$, $p = .98$), which indicates that youngsters manifested in general stronger beliefs regarding ambivalent sexism.

Table 3.1

Correlations, Means and Standard Deviations for Ambivalent Sexism dimensions, for children and adolescents' and parents' sample.

	Children and Adolescents						Parents							
	PP-BS	RI-BS	EL-HS	FA-HS	BS	HS	PP-BS	RI-BS	EL-HS	FA-HS	BS	HS	*M*	*SD*
Children and Adolescents														
PP-BS	-	.344**	.271**	.390**	.805**	.430**	.304**	.203*	.128	.275**	.308**	.246*	3.955	.884
RI-BS		-	.195	.285**	.833**	.310**	.287**	.274**	.077	.289**	.336**	.226*	2.673	.938
EL-HS			-	.139	.284**	.804**	.117	.090	-.075	-.089	.122	-.093	3.157	.887
FA-HS				-	.409**	.701**	.339**	.229*	.151	.356**	.352**	.310**	2.736	.984
BS					-	.451**	.366**	.293**	.125	.337**	.398**	.285**	3.311	.745
HS						-	.289**	.207*	.038	.152	.302**	.122	2.978	.702
Parents														
PP-BS							-	.378**	.362**	.371**	.848**	.449**	3.571	.904
RI-BS								-	.222*	.402**	.810**	.356**	2.680	.816
EL-HS									-	.343**	.355**	.849**	2.639	.818
FA-HS										-	.463**	.774**	2.487	.807
BS											-	.486**	3.126	.715

HS			-	2.582 .670

Note. Correlations are presented for youngsters' sample whose parents answered the questionnaire (n = 102), and parents' sample (n = 102). For PP, RI, and FA scales, higher mean scores are indicative of more extreme responding in the direction of the construct assessed. PP = Protective Paternalism; RI = Romantic Indispensability; EL = Emotional Lability; FA= Functional Asymmetry; BS = Benevolent Sexism; HS = Hostile Sexism. **. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). *. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 3.2.

Correlations, Means and Standard Deviations for Ambivalent Sexism dimensions, Gender Stereotypes, Behavioral Intention to Stereotypic Task Division and Age, for children and adolescents.

	PP (BS)	RI (BS)	EL (HS)	FA (HS)	CS	WS	Age	*M*	*SD*
BISTD	.023	.135	.222**	.273**	.026	.017	-.090	1.299	1.073
PP (BS)	-	.375**	.244**	.432**	-.056	-.189*	-.132	3.891	.934
RI (BS)		-	.157*	.290**	-.053	-.112	-.261**	2.723	.909
EL (HS)			-	.136	.281**	.174*	.011	3.219	.869
FA (HS)				-	-.033	-.204**	-.306**	2.678	.971
CS					-	.342**	.056	.057	.714
WS						-	.035	-.452	.920
Age							-	12.05	1.911

Note. Correlations are presented for the youngsters' sample (N = 167). For BISTD, PP, RI, and FA scales, higher scores are indicative of more extreme responding in the direction of the construct assessed. For CS and WS scales, positive values indicate more extreme positive values attributed to boys, negative values indicate more extreme positive values attributed to girls, and values closer to zero indicate smaller differences between values attributed to boys and girls. BISTD = Behavioral Intention to Stereotypic Task Division; PP = Protective Paternalism; RI = Romantic Indispensability; EL = Emotional Lability; FA= Functional Asymmetry; CS = Competence Stereotypes; WS = Warmth Stereotypes; BS = Benevolent Sexism; HS = Hostile Sexism. **. Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). *. Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

A two-way ANOVA was performed to analyze the effects of sex (male and female), age (children and adolescents) on Behavioral Intention to Stereotypic Task Division, and the dimensions of Ambivalent Sexism, and a three-way repeated measures ANOVA the attribution of stereotypes to each gender, with age and sex of the participant as between subjects variables, and stereotype dimension (competence vs. warmth) as a within subjects variable.

Results regarding the Behavioral Intention to Stereotypic Task Division showed that participants endorse strong intentions to divide the housework in a non-stereotypically way (M = 1.30, SD = 1.07), since lower values reveal weaker intention to divide tasks stereotypically. These beliefs didn't change significantly with Sex (F(1, 163) = 2.95, p = .09), nor with age (F(1, 163) = 2.95, p = .09). Therefore, the second hypothesis (H2), that predicted a decrease with age of the intention for stereotypic housework division, cannot be confirmed.

To explore the influence of age on Ambivalent Sexism, the four dimensions that compose this concept were first considered separately. For Protective Paternalism, there was a main effect of Sex (F(1, 163) = 4.33, p = .04, η_p^2 = .03), where boys showed stronger endorsement of these beliefs (M = 4.09, SD = .11) compared to girls (M = 3.78, SD = .10). A main effect of age was also found (F(1, 163) = 4.60, p = .03, η_p^2 = .03), showing weaker endorsement of Protective Paternalism by older participants (M = 3.78, SD = .09) compared to younger ones (M = 4.10, SD = .12).

Regarding Romantic Indispensability, there was a main effect of Sex (F(1, 163) = 19.72, p < .01, η_p^2 = .11), and Age (F(1, 163) = 20.32, p < .01, η_p^2 = .11), but not an interaction effect. This shows that boys held stronger beliefs (M = 3.12, SD = .10) than girls (M = 2.52, SD = .09), and that younger participants showed stronger beliefs (M = 3.12, SD = .11) than older ones (M = 2.52, SD = .08).

Concerning Emotional Lability, there was a main effect of Sex (F(1, 163) = 49.5, p < .01, η_p^2 = .23), but not of Age (F(1, 163) = .26, p = .61), whereby boys revealed stronger beliefs (M = 3.68, SD = .09) than girls (M = 2.80, SD = .09).

And, lastly, regarding Functional Asymmetry, there was a main effect of Age F(1, 163) = 16.41, p < .01, η_p^2 = .09, where younger participants showed a stronger endorsement of these beliefs (M = 3.06, SD = .12) than older ones (M = 2.45, SD = .09). This effect was qualified by a significant interaction effect between Age and Sex (F(1, 163) = 4.40, p = .04, η_p^2 = .03), that is depicted in Figure 3.1. Simple effect analysis show that, with respect to boys, no age differences were found in the endorsement of beliefs of Functional Asymmetry beliefs (F(1, 81) = 1.67, p = .20). As for girls, the results showed that the endorsement of Functional Asymmetry beliefs decreased with age (F(1, 82) = 21.77, p < .01, η_p^2 = .21; M_{children} = 3.13, SD = .15; $M_{\text{adolescents}}$ = 2.22, SD = .12).

The effects of Age and Sex on Ambivalent Sexism were also analyzed for the dimensions of Hostile Sexism and Benevolent Sexism. Regarding Hostile Sexism, the results showed a main effect of Sex ($F(1, 163) = 32.64$, $p < .01$, $\eta_p^2 = .17$) and Age ($F(1, 163) = 9.02$, $p < .01$, $\eta_p^2 = .05$). Boys displayed a stronger endorsement of hostile sexist beliefs ($M = 3.32$, $SD = .07$), than girls ($M = 2.75$, $SD = .07$), and children endorsed more strongly hostile sexist attitudes ($M = 3.19$, $SD = .08$), than adolescents ($M = 2.89$, $SD = .06$). Concerning Benevolent Sexism, results show a main effect of Sex ($F(1, 163) = 15.76$, $p < .01$, $\eta_p^2 = .09$), with boys displaying a stronger endorsement of benevolent sexist beliefs ($M = 3.60$, $SD = .08$), than girls ($M = 3.15$, $SD = .08$). A main effect of Age was also found for Benevolent Sexism ($F(1, 163) = 16.24$, $p < .01$, $\eta_p^2 = .09$), where children showed a stronger endorsement of benevolent sexist beliefs ($M = 3.61$, $SD = .09$), than adolescents ($M = 3.14$, $SD = .07$). These results partially support Hypothesis 3a, given that, as expected, Hostile Sexism decreased with age, but Benevolent Sexism did not increase.

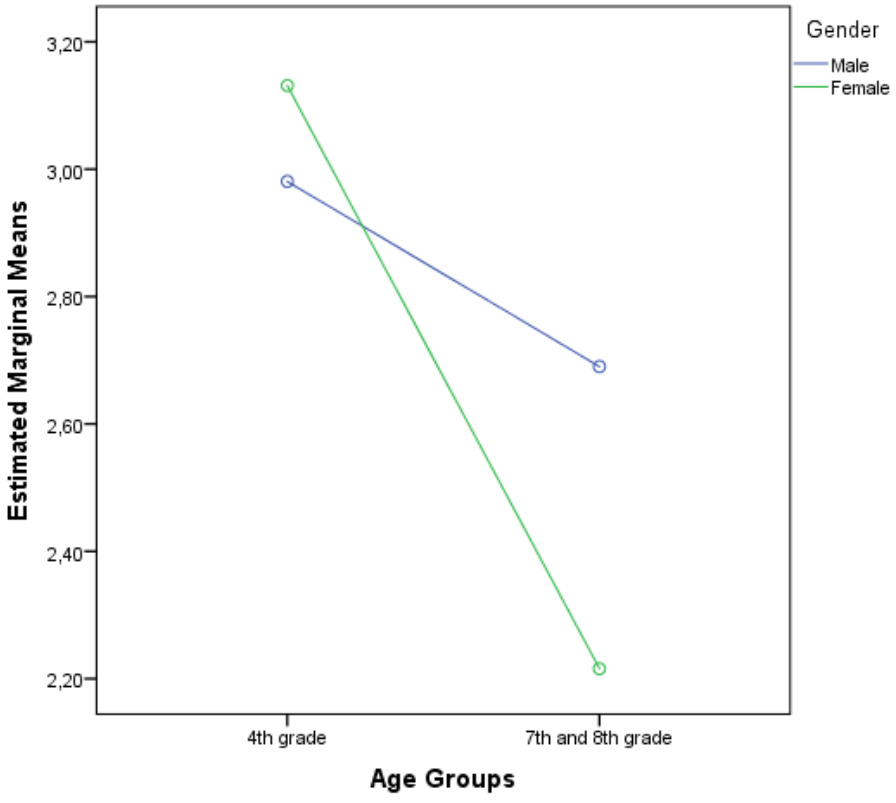


Figure 3.1. Functional Asymmetry beliefs development with age and according with sex.

In order to analyze the moderating role of age and sex on the differential attribution of Competence and Warmth Stereotypes to girls and boys, a mixed ANOVA was performed. Results revealed a main effect of the stereotype dimension ($F(1, 163) = 41.09$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .20$), showing that Competence obtained a significantly higher mean ($M = .06$, $SD = .06$) than Warmth ($M = -.41$, $SD = .07$). These results indicate that the participants regarded boys as more competent than girls, and girls as more warmth than boys therefore, confirming Hypothesis 4.

A main effect of Sex was also found ($F(1, 163) = 12.80$, $p < .01$, $\eta_p^2 = .07$), which was qualified by a significant interaction between Sex and Age ($F(1, 163) = 41.41$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .20$; see Figure 3.2). These results show that while adolescent' boys characterized girls as more competent and warm then boys ($M = -.31$, $SD = .07$), and younger boys regarded girls as less competent and warm compared to boys ($M = .31$, $SD = .11$; $F(1, 81) = 22.68$, $p < .01$, $\eta_p^2 = .22$), adolescent girls characterized both genders more closely ($M = -.03$, $SD = .09$), while younger girls characterized their own gender as more competent and warm ($M = -.67$, $SD = .11$; $F(1, 82) = 19.65$, $p < .001$, $\eta_p^2 = .19$) Because this interaction effect was not further qualified by the stereotype dimension, Hypothesis 4a is not supported.

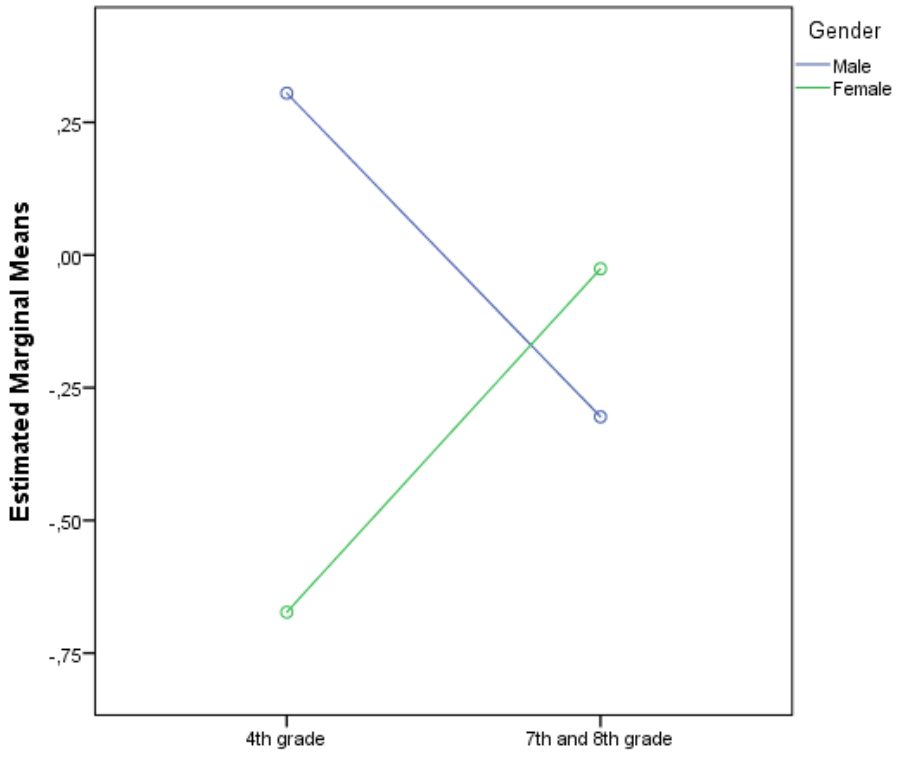


Figure 3.2. Development of Stereotypes trough age and according with sex.

In oder to test the moderated mediation model (see Figure 1.1), Macro PROCESS' Model 59 was used (Hayes, 2013). Specially, it was analyzed if the effect of age on the Behavioral Intention to Stereotypic Task Division, through the mediating effects of Ambivalent Sexism and Competence and Warmth Stereotypes, differs depending on sex. The results are presented in Table 3.3.

Although the results show no moderated mediation of the relation between Age and Behavioral Intention to Stereotypic Task Division (Table 3.3), the Behavioral Intention to Task Division was positive and significantly influenced by Hostile Sexist dimensions – i.e., Emotional Lability and Functional Asymmetry. It was not found an effect of the Benevolent Sexism dimensions. Therefore, Hypothesis 3b was partially confirmed. Since only the endorsement of hostile sexist beliefs significantly influenced significantly participants' intention to divide housework stereotypically, the part of Hypothesis 3c that predicted this effect to be stronger comparing to the effect of Benevolent Sexism, was confirmed.

It was also found that the Gender Stereotypes (i.e., Competence and Warmth Stereotypes) do not influence significantly participants' Behavioral Intention to Stereotypic Task Division. Therefore, Hypothesis 4b and 4c regarding the influence of Stereotypes on Behavioral Intention to Stereotypic Task Division was not confirmed

It was also explored the effect of youngsters' sex, and a moderation effect on the influence of age on Romantic Indispensability, and on Warmth Stereotypes was found, concordantly with the analysis previously presented.

Moreover, results revealed a significant negative indirect effect of age on Behavioral Intention to Stereotypic Task Division, through Functional Asymmetry. It indicated that Functional Asymmetry mediates the relationship between Age and Behavioral Intention to Stereotypic Task Division, but only for the female sex (see Table 3.4). That is, with age, a decrease in female youngsters' endorsement of Functional Asymmetry beliefs decreased their Behavioral Intention to Stereotypical Task Division.

Table 3.3.

Effect of Age Groups on Behavioral Intention to Stereotypic Task Division mediated by Ambivalent Sexism and Gender Stereotypes, moderated by Sex.

Predictor	*B*	*se*	*LLCI*	*ULCI*
Behavioral Intention to Stereotypic Task Division				
Constant	1.33**	.11	1,12	1.54
Age groups (X)	-.16	.22	-.59	.27
Sex (W)	-.04	.21	-.46	.38
Age groups x Sex	.07	.44	-.79	.92
PP (M)	-.20	.11	-.42	.02
RI (M)	.06	-.11	-.15	.26
EL (M)	.26*	.13	.01	.51
FA (M)	.36**	.11	.13	.58
CS (M)	-.03	.18	-.38	.31
WS (M)	-.01	.22	-.59	.27
PP x Sex	-.26	.22	-.70	.18
RI x Sex	-.01	.21	-.42	.40
EL x Sex	.38	.25	-.13	.88
FA x Sex	-.09	.23	-.54	.36
CS x Sex	-.31	.35	-1.00	.38
WS x Sex	.13	.24	-.34	.61
	$R^2 = .18$, $F(15, 151) = 2.22$, $p < .01$			
Protective Paternalism				
Constant	-.002	.07	-.15	.14
Age groups	-.32*	.14	-.60	-.04
Sex	-.33*	.14	-.61	-.05
Age groups x Sex	-.13	.29	-.70	.43
Index of Moderated Mediation			-.06	.44
	$R^2 = .06$, $F(3, 163) = 3.09$, $p = .03$			
Romantic Indispensability				
Constant	.01	.06	-.12	.13
Age groups	-.61**	.15	-.89	-.32
Sex	-.56**	.13	-.82	-.31
Age groups x Sex	.26	.29	-.31	.84
Index of Moderated Mediation			-.23	.26
	$R^2 = .18$, $F(3, 163) = 12.66$, $p < .01$			
Emotional Lability				
Constant	.01	.06	-.11	.13
Age groups	-.06	.13	-.33	.20
Sex	-.82**	-12	-1.06	-.58
Age groups x Sex	-.43	.27	-.10	.95
Index of Moderated Mediation			-.09	.34
	$R^2 = .23$, $F(3, 163) = 15.32$, $p < .01$			
Functional Asymmetry				
Constant	-.01	.07	-.16	.13
Age groups	-.61**	.16	-.93	-.28

Sex	-.25	.15	-.54	.03
Age groups x Sex	-.63	.33	-1.27	.02
Index of Moderated Mediation			-.73	.18
	$R^2 = .13$, $F(3, 163) = 8.04$, $p < .01$			
Competence Stereotypes				
Constant	.01	.05	-.09	.12
Age groups	.07	.12	-.17	-.30
Sex	-.32**	.10	-.52	-.11
Age groups x Sex	.71**	.24	.23	1.18
Index of Moderated Mediation			-.41	.17
	$R^2 = .11$, $F(3, 163) = 4.90$, $p < .01$			
Warmth Stereotypes				
Constant	.04	.06	-.09	.16
Age groups	-.02	.13	-.29	.24
Sex	-.02	.13	-.27	.24
Age groups x Sex	1.81**	.27	1.28	2.33
Index of Moderated Mediation			-.43	.42
	$R^2 = .22$, $F(3, 163) = 15.20$, $p < .01$			

Note. PP = Protective Paternalism; RI = Romantic Indispensability; EL = Emotional Lability; FA= Functional Asymmetry; CS = Competence Stereotypes; WS = Warmth Stereotypes; BS = Benevolent Sexism; HS = Hostile Sexism. **. Effect is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). *. Effect is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Table 3.4.

Conditional indirect effect of Age Groups on Behavioral Intention to Stereotypic Task Division at values of the moderator Sex.

Mediator	*B*	*se*	*LLCI*	*ULCI*
Protective Paternalism				
Masculine	.02	.04	-.03	.15
Feminine	.13	.11	-.01	.46
Romantic Indispensability				
Masculine	-.05	.09	-.25	.12
Feminine	-.03	.08	-.23	.11
Emotional Lability				
Masculine	-.02	.05	-.16	.07
Feminine	.07	.09	-.07	.19
Functional Asymmetry				
Masculine	-.12	.11	-.38	.06
Feminine	-.28*	.20	-.84	-.01
Competence Stereotypes				
Masculine	-.04	.08	-.23	.09
Feminine	-.08	.13	-.47	.04
Warmth Stereotypes				
Masculine	.07	.14	-.18	.38
Feminine	.05	-16	-.23	.39

Note. Bootstrap level of the confidence interval of 95%. *. Effect is significant at the 0.05 level.

Chapter IV – Discussion

This dissertation allowed to study the development of ambivalent sexist attitudes and gender stereotypes from childhood through adolescence, and its' influence in Behavioral Intention to Stereotypic Task Division.

Ambivalent Sexism has been rarely studied with children and adolescents. The investigation allowed to explore the endorsement of both hostile and benevolent sexist beliefs in gender relations from a young age, as well as testing if children and adolescents' beliefs are influenced by their parents' ambivalent sexism.

Characterizing and understanding the development of relations between genders from a young age, and how it influences the adoption of stereotypical or traditional behaviors is essential. The adoption of stereotypical gender roles can impact children's acquisition of knowledge about gender stereotypes, and their educational and occupational aspirations (Halpern & Perry-Jenkins, 2016). Parents' influence in the development of such beliefs was also explored. Moreover, the investigation allowed to explore the endorsement of both hostile and benevolent attitudes in gender relations from a young age, as well as comparing the results obtained by the youngsters with the answers from their own parents. Since they are important socialization agents, it is important to understand the influence these might have in youngsters' attitudes, and the study allowed to correlate the answers from both groups.

With the results obtained it was possible to conclude that parents' sexist beliefs have an impact on their children and adolescents' endorsement of such beliefs. Positive and significative correlations between parents and children were found between Protective Paternalism, Romantic Indispensability and Functional Asymmetry. These results confirm partially our Hypothesis 1 and are consistent with Halpern and Perry-Jenkin's (2016) findings.

Parents' beliefs regarding women's Emotional Lability was not significantly correlated with their children's. That may be due to the fact that this constitutes a hostile, and therefore, blatant, dimension that is more sensitive to social desirable responses, composed of items such as "Girls/Women exaggerate their problems" (item 9), that characterize women as lacking emotional control.

Interestingly, youngsters displayed stronger beliefs than their parents in three of the four dimensions of ambivalent sexism. This can be due to: (a) a decrease in ambivalent sexism

attitudes over time, as it was concluded when comparing children and adolescents' results, or (b) the internalization of social norms (França & Monteiro, 2013; Rutland, Cameron, Milne & McGeorge, 2005).

As to Hypothesis 2, this was not confirmed since it was observed that the Behavioral Intention to Stereotypic Task Division did not change with age. However, we did find that three of the four Ambivalent Sexism dimensions decreased with age. Specifically, it was observed a decline of the endorsement of beliefs regarding Protective Paternalism, Romantic Indispensability and Functional Asymmetry, when comparing 4th grade participants with 7th and 8th grades'. That is, children believe more strongly compared to adolescents that girls need to be protected and cherished by boys, and that boys need a romantic heterosexual relation to be happy. It was also found an interaction effect of age and sex on Functional Asymmetry, which indicated that adolescents display a weaker endorsement of sexist beliefs, with adolescent' girls showing a bigger decrease than boys, when compared to children. With that, H3a was refuted, which does not allow us to confirm that benevolent sexist attitudes only become significant with the onset of puberty (Glick & Hilt, 2000), but that intergroup relation can also be characterized by ambivalent attitudes, that is ingroup favoritism as well as hostility toward the outgroup, as it was found by Zosuls and colleagues (2011). The only dimension that did not displayed significant differences with age was Emotional Lability, which shows that participants' beliefs regarding girls' lack of emotional control are similar for younger and older ones. It was also found that boys endorse more strongly attitudes of protection and care for girls, that are based on the belief that girls need to be protected and treasured by boys (i.e., Protective Paternalism), attitudes related with the beliefs that boys need to establish romantic heterosexual relationships to be truly happy (i.e., Romantic Indispensability), and attitudes based on the girls' lack of emotional control' beliefs (i.e., Emotional Lability). Lemus and colleagues (2008) found that boys displayed higher levels of benevolent sexist attitudes, which is in accordance with the findings presented above. Nevertheless, it is important to note that women often adhere to benevolent sexist attitudes, and some of these attitudes hold a positive societal connotation (Barreto & Ellemers, 2005; Glick & Fiske, 1996).

Our results also showed that a stronger endorsement of Hostile Sexism increases the Behavioral Intention to Stereotypic Task Division, while the endorsement of Benevolent

Sexism did not. Therefore, it was concluded that the adoption of hostile attitudes influences the intention to divide housework in a more stereotypical way, confirming partially Hypothesis 3b, and confirming Hypothesis 3c.

These results are especially important since the endorsement of either benevolent or hostile sexist attitudes have the goal of maintaining gender inequalities and the asymmetrical distribution of power (Barreto & Ellemers, 2005; Oliveira & Amâncio, 2002), and since the endorsement of ambivalent sexist attitudes, by men or women, can affect negatively women's competence (Delacollette et al., 2012).

Stereotypes were also explored, and the results allowed us to conclude that the participants considered boys more competent than girls, and girls more warm than boys, which is in accordance with the stereotypical view of each sex, thus confirming Hypothesis 4: boys are viewed as more competent, intelligent, competitive, confident and independent than girls, while girls are perceived as more sincere, friendly and kind, compared to boys.

It is interesting to note, however, that the difference in the attribution of Competence Stereotypes between boys and girls is smaller than the difference between the attribution of warmth characteristics, which means that girls are considered warmer in a higher degree than boys are considered more competent. It is important to keep in mind the findings of Delacollette and colleagues (2012) study which concluded that the characterization of women with Warmth Stereotypes depends on the role they adopt (e.g., business women vs. housewives), since people are usually characterized as warmth when they are perceived as non-threatening (Fiske et al., 2002), something that was not explored in this dissertation.

Results also allow to infer that while adolescents' boys characterize girls as more competent and warmth, younger boys evaluated their own gender as more competent and warm than girls. Regarding adolescents' girls, they characterize both genders more closely than younger girls, who evaluated their own gender as more competent and warmth. Hypothesis 4a, that predicted that age would strengthen the evaluation of their own gender as more competent and warmth, cannot be confirmed, since it was observed that the older participants evaluated the opposite gender as either more competent and warmth, or more like their own.

This is an interesting conclusion since adolescent' boys' characterization of girls can be partially related with Benevolent Sexism, that encompasses the beliefs that women are less

competent and need men's protection, and that women are characterized with traits associated with nurturing and sociability (Glick & Fiske, 2001). Woman are usually characterized as warm but not competent when working outside of the house context, that is, they are evaluated as not presenting a threat to men's status, since they are not considered smart and they have positive intentions (Fiske et al., 2002). So, when older boys evaluate girls as competent and warm they can be viewing school as a working context (when comparing with a house context), and so they can see girls as a threat to their status (Fiske et al., 2006).

We also explored if Competence and Warmth Stereotypes could influence youngsters' Behavioral Intention to Stereotypic Task Division, but none of these variables displayed a significant effect. These results allow us to conclude that the description of boys' and girls' warmth and competence traits does not affect, as least directly, youngsters' decision in the intention to divide domestic tasks stereotypically, not confirming Hypothesis 4b nor Hypothesis 4c.

It can be concluded that the Behavioral Intention to Stereotypic Task Division was only influenced by the two dimensions of Hostile Sexism, as stated above, and that neither sex or age influenced it directly, meaning that negative and explicit sexist attitudes influence participants' intention in intention to divide domestic tasks stereotypically. Since hostile sexist attitudes are usually adopted toward women who break gender stereotypes and roles (Glick & Fiske, 1996), the support and intention to divide domestic tasks stereotypically may be a way of maintaining the status quo and power attributed to each gender.

It was found, furthermore, an effect of age on youngsters' intention in task division through the mediation of the dimension Functional Asymmetry, that is, older participants displayed weaker beliefs regarding the asymmetric division of roles between genders, and that reflected in less stereotypical division of the housework. That reveals there is a weaker adherence to stereotypical gender roles and to the division of housework according with stereotypical beliefs through the development.

Limitations and future research

This investigation has some limitations that are worth exploring in future research. A possible limitation of this study is the characterization of the sample that, besides the small size, was originated from a specific context, where the population in characterized as socially and

economically disadvantaged and marginalized. It might be interesting to broaden the sample of respondents, to diversify it, paying attention not only to gender identity but also to its relation to racial identity, as studied by Rogers and colleagues (2014).

Another characteristic stands out: parents' questionnaire was mainly answered by mothers, which may indicate the prevalence of the stereotypic role of mothers as first caregivers and responsible for children's education. This raises the possibility to, in a future study, compare the answers from mothers with fathers', considering the gender roles adopted and comparing the balance of power.

Additionally, the explicit content of the stereotype scale might have been influenced by social demands, since it comprised items that asked to evaluate explicitly each gender about their competence and warmth, and so it was not possible to prevent responses given according to what is socially desirable.

Parents are very important socialization agents, and their attitudes can impact their children's attitudes, as stated above. However, adolescents began to spend more time with their peer-groups and to see them as their reference, and so a possible future investigation should focus on peer-groups' relationship in order to understand what kind of influence do peers have in the attitudes adopted, measuring social norms and self-presentation (as suited by Rutland et al., 2005), since the suppression of outgroup prejudice is closely related with the social norms presented in the children's social environment (Rutland et al., 2005).

It is also important to investigate what are the outcomes of the adoption of ambivalent sexist attitudes and the endorsement of stereotypes for other domains such as occupational and educational choices: the constant reinforcement of women traditional attitudes (and the adoption of these attitudes) leads them to have lower motivation to pursue a career and to continue their studies (Williams & Chen, 2014).

To conclude, this study allowed to characterize children and adolescents' attitudes and stereotypes, regarding each sex, evidencing the endorsement of hostile, explicit, as well as benevolent, implicit attitudes from childhood.

Another important conclusion to draw is that youngsters evaluate boys as more competent that girls and girls as more warmth than girls. So, although some changes can be observed in Portugal (e.g., Portuguese Strategy for Equality and Non-Discrimination for 2018-

2030, which intends to ensure the conditions for an education and formation free from stereotypes), the younger population sill attributes traditional stereotypes to each sex, which can influence their self-esteem, their identity and even their future occupational choices. However, adolescents already showed more equalitarian views of gender with the decrease of the endorsement of ambivalent sexist beliefs. Another policy worth noting, that fights gender stereotypes, is the 2017 program "Engineers for one day", that focuses on combating and preventing the intensification of occupational segregation and in the absence of women from engineering and technology areas.

Gender equality has been recognized as important to the development of individuals and societies. However, to attain gender equality, it is important to understand the development of stereotypes and sexist beliefs and the impact they have in one's development, in gender relations, and in social roles people will adopt. This study was conducted with the goal of understanding children's beliefs and attitudes, and its' origins.

References

Amâncio, L. & Oliveira, J. M. (2006). Men as individuals, women as a sexed category: implications of symbolic asymmetry for feminist practice and feminist psychology. *Feminism & Psychology, 16*(1), 35-43. doi: 0.1177/0959-353506060818

Barreto, M., & Ellemers, N. (2005). The burden of benevolent sexism: how it contributes to the maintenance of gender inequalities. *European Journal of Social Psychology, 35,* 633-642. doi: 10.1002/ejsp.270

Baskin, T. W., Wampold, B. E., Quintana, S. M., & Enright, R. D. (2010). Belongingness as a protective factor against loneliness and potential depression in a multicultural middle school. *The Counseling Psychologist, 38,* 626-651.

Bem, S. L. (1981). Gender schema theory: a cognitive account of sex typing. *Psychological Review, 88,* 354-364.

Berk, S. (1985). *The gender factory. The apportionment of work in American households*. New York: Plenum.

Bigler, R. S., & Liber, L. S. (2007). Developmental intergroup theory: explaining and reducing children's social stereotyping and prejudice. *Current Directions in Psychological Science, 16,* 162-167.

Brewer, M. B. (1999). The psychology of prejudice: ingroup love or outgroup hate? *Journal of Social Issues, 55*(3), 429-444.

Brinkman, B. G., Rabenstein, K. L., Rosén, L. A., & Zimmerman, T. S. (2014). Children's gender identity development: the dynamic negotiation process between conformity and authenticity. *Youth & Society, 46*(6), 835-852. doi: 10.1177/0044118X12455025

Bussey, K., & Bandura, A. (1999). Social cognitive theory of gender development and differentiation. *Psychological Review, 106*(4), 676-713.

Chick, K. A., Heilman-Houser, R. A., & Hunter, M. W. (2002). The impact of child care on gender role development and gender stereotypes. *Early Childhood Education Journal, 29*(3), 149-154. doi: 10.1023/A:1014528424032

Comissão para a Cidadania e a Igualdade de Género (2017). Igualdade de género em Portugal: boletim estatístico 2017. Retrieved July, 12, 2018, from: https://www.cig.gov.pt/wp-content/uploads/2018/02/Boletim-estatistico-2017.pdf

Delacollette, N., Dumont, M., Sarlet, M., & Dardenne, B. (2012). Benevolent sexism, men´s advantages and the prescription of warmth to women. *Sex Roles, 68,* 296-310. doi: 10.1007/s11199-012-0232-5

Eagly, A. H., & Wood, W. (2013). The nature-nurture debates: 25 years of challenges in understanding the psychology of gender. *Perspectives on Psychological Science, 8*(3), 340-357. Retrieved from: https://doi.org/10.1177/1745691613484767

Egan, S. K., & Perry, D. G. (2001). Gender identity: a multidimensional analysis with implications for psychosocial adjustment. *Developmental Psychology, 37*(4), 451-463. doi: 10.1037/0012-1649.37.4.451

Endendijk, J. J., Groeneveld, M. G., van Berkel, S. R., Hallers-Haalboom, E. T., Mesman, J., & Bakermans-Kranenburg, M. J. (2013). Gender stereotypes in the family context: mothers, fathers, and siblings. *Sex Roles, 68*(9), 577-590. doi: 10.1007/s11199-013-0265-4

England, D. E., Descartes, L., & Collier-Meek, M. A. (2011). Gender role portrayal and the Disney princesses. *Sex Roles*, *64*(7-8), 555-567. doi 10.1007/s11199-011-9930-7

Fagot, B. I., Rodgers, C. S., & Leinbach, M. D. (2000). Theories of gender socialization. In T. Eckes, & H. M. Trautner (Eds.), *The Developmental Social Psychology of Gender*, (pp. 65-89). New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Farkas, T., & Leaper, C. (2015). Chivalry's double-edged sword: how girls' and boys' paternalistic attitudes relate to their possible family and work selves. *Sex Roles*, *74*(5-6), 220-230. doi: 10.1007/s11199-015-0556-z

Fiske, S. T., Cuddy, A. J., & Glick, P. (2006). Universal dimensions of social cognition: warmth and competence. *Trends in Cognitive Sciences*, *11*(2), 77-83. doi: 10.1016/j.tics.2006.11.005

Fiske, S. T., Cuddy, A. J., Glick, P., & Xu, J. (2002). A model of (often mixed) stereotype content: competence and warmth respectively follow from perceived status and competition. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *82*(6), 878. doi: 10.1037//0022-3514.82.6.878

França, D. X., & Monteiro, M. B. (2013). Social norms and the expression of prejudice: the development of aversive racism in childhood. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, *43*(4), 263-271. Retrieved from: https://doi.org/10.1002/ejsp.1965

Galambos, N. L., Borenbaum, S. A., & McHale, S. M. (2009). Gender development in adolescence. In R. M. Lerner & L. Steinberg (Eds.), *Handbook of adolescent psychology: Vol. 1: Individual baes of adolescent development* (3rd ed., pp. 305-357). Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons.

Garaigordobil, M., & Aliri, J. (2012). Parental socialization styles, parents' educational level, and sexist attitudes in adolescence. *The Spanish Journal of Psychology*, *15*(2), 592-603.

Gasparini, C., Sette, S., Baumgartner, E., Martin, C. L., & Fabes, R. A. (2015). Gender-biased attitudes and attribution among young Italian children: relation to peer dyadic interaction. *Sex Roles*, *73*(9–10), 427-441. doi: 10.1007/s11199-015-0526-5

Glick, P., & Fiske, S. T. (1996). The ambivalent sexism inventory: differentiating hostile and benevolent sexism. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, *70*(3), 491-512. doi: 10.1037/0022-3514.70.3.491

Glick, P., & Fiske, S. T. (1999). The ambivalence toward men inventory. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, *23*(3), 519-536. doi: 10.1111/j.1471-6402.1999.tb00379.x

Glick, P., & Fiske, S. T. (2001). An ambivalent alliance: hostile and benevolent sexism as complementary justification for gender inequality. *American Psychologist*, *56*(2), 109-118. doi: 10.1037/0003-066X.56.2.109

Glick, P. & Hilt, L. (2000). Combative children to ambivalent adults: the development of gender prejudice. In T. Eckes, & H. M. Trautner (Eds.), *The Developmental Social Psychology of Gender* (pp. 243-272). New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Guttentag, M., & Secord, P. (1983). *Too many women?* Beverly Hills, CA: Sage.

Halim, M. L., & Ruble, D. (2010). Gender identity and stereotyping in early and middle childhood. In J. C. Chrisler & D. R. McCreary (Eds). *Handbook of Gender Research in Psychology* (pp. 495-525). New York: Springer.

Halpern, H. P., & Perry-Jenkins, M. (2016). Parents' gender ideology and gendered behavior as predictors of children's gender-role attitudes: a longitudinal exploration. *Sex Roles, 74*(11–12), 527-542. doi: 10.1007/s11199-015-0539-0

Hannover, B. (2000). Developmental of the self in gendered contexts. In T. Eckes, & H. M. Trautner (Eds.), *The Developmental Social Psychology of Gender* (pp. 177-206). New Jersey: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Hayes, A. F. (2013). *Introduction to mediation, moderation, and conditional process analysis: A regression-based approach*. New York, NY: The Guilford Press.

IBM Corp. Released 2016. IBM SPSS Statistics for Windows, Version 24.0. Armonk, NY: IBM Corp.

Jackson, C., & Sherriff, N. (2013). A qualitative approach to intergroup relations: exploring the applicability of the social identity approach to "messy" school contexts. *Qualitative Research in Psychology, 10*(3), 259-273. doi: 10.1080/14780887.2011.616620

Leaper, C., Anderson, K. J., & Sanders, R. (1998). Moderators of gender effects on parents' talk to their children: a meta-analysis. *Developmental Psychology, 34*(1), 3-27.

Leaper, C., & Brown, C. S. (2017). Sexism in childhood and adolescence: recent trends and advances in research. *Child Development Perspectives, 0*(0), 1-6. doi: 10.1111/cdep.12247

Leinbach, M. D., Hort, B. E., & Fagot, B. I. (1997). Bears are for boys: metaphorical associations in young children's gender stereotypes. *Cognitive Development, 12*(1), 107-130. Retrieved from: https://doi.org/10.1016/S0885-2014(97)90032-0

Lemus, S., Castillo, M., Moya, M., Padilla, J. L., & Ryan, E. (2008). Elaboración y validación del Inventario de Sexismo Ambivalente para Adolescentes. *International Journal of Clinical and Health Psychology, 8*(2), 537-562. Retrieved from: http://hdl.handle.net/10481/32913

Martin, C. L., & Ruble, D. N. (2004). Children's search for gender cues: cognitive perspectives on gender development. *Current Directions in Psychological Science, 13*(2), 67-70. Retrieved from: https://doi.org/10.1111/j.0963-7214.2004.00276.x

Martin, C. L., & Ruble, D. N. (2010). Patterns of gender development. *Annual Review of Psychology, 61*, 353-381. doi: 10.1146/annurev.psych.093008.100511

Martin, C. L., Ruble, D. N., & Szkrybalo, J. (2002). Cognitive theories of early gender development. *Psychological Bulletin, 128*(6), 903-933. doi: 10.1037//0033-2909.128.6.903

McHale, S. M., Crouter, A. C., & Whiteman, S. D. (2003). The family contexts of gender development in childhood and adolescence. *Social Development, 12*(1), 125-148.

Montañés, P., Lemus, S., Bohner, G., Megías, J. L., Moya, M., & Garcia-Retamero, R. (2012). Intergenerational transmission of benevolent sexism from mothers to daughters and its relation to daughters' academic performance and goals. *Sex Roles, 66*(7-8), 468-478. doi: 10.1007/s11199-011-0116-0

Nesdale, D. (1999). Social identity and ethnic prejudice in children. In P. Martin & W. Noble (Eds.), *Psychology and society* (pp. 92–110). Brisbane: Australian Academic Press.

Nesdale, D., & Flesser, D., (2001). Social identity and the development of children's group attitudes. *Child Development, 72*(2), 506-517. doi: 0009-3920/2001/7202-0012

Oliveira, J. M., & Amâncio, L. (2002). Liberdades condicionais: o conceito de papel sexual revisitado. *Sociologia, Problemas e Práticas, 40*, 45-61.

Perry, D. G., & Pauletti, R. E. (2011). Gender and adolescent development. *Journal of Research on Adolescence, 21*(1), 61-74. doi: 10.1111/j.1532-7795.2010.00715.x

Poulin-Dubois, D., Serbin, L. A., Eichstedt, J. A., & Sen, M. G. (2002). Men don't put on make-up: toddler's knowledge of the gender stereotyping of household activities. *Social Development, 11*(2), 166-181. doi: 10.1111/1467-9507.00193

Rogers, L. O., Scott, M. A., & Way, N. (2014). Racial and gender identity among black adolescent males: and intersectionality perspective. *Child Development, 0*(0), 1 – 18. doi: 10.1111/cdev.12303

Rudman, L. A., & Glick, P. (2010). The social psychology of gender: how power and intimacy shape gender relations. *New York: Guilford*.

Rutland, A., Cameron, L., Milne, A., & McGeorge, P. (2005). Social norms and self-presentation: children's implicit and explicit intergroup attitudes. *Child Development, 76*(2), 451-466. doi: 0009-3920/2005/7602-0010

Santos, M. H., & Amâncio, L. (2014). Perceção de justiça, discriminação e sexismo. *Psicologia, 28*(1), 67-81.

Tajfel, H. (1974). Social identity and intergroup behaviour. *Social Science Information, 13*(2), 65-93. doi: 10.1177/053901847401300204

Tajfel, H., & Turner, J. (1979). An integrative theory of intergroup conflict. In D. Abrams, & M. A. Hogg (Eds.), *Intergroup relations: Essential readings*, (pp. 33-47). New York: Psychology Press.

Tenenbaum, H., & Leaper, C. (2002). Are parents' gender schemas related to their children's gender-related cognitions? A meta-analysis. *Developmental Psychology, 38*(4), 615-630. Retrieved from: http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/0012-1649.38.4.615

Trautner, H. M., Ruble, D. N., Cyphers, L., Kirsten, B., Behrendt, R., & Hartmann, P. (2005). Rigidity and flexibility of gender stereotypes in childhood: developmental or differential? *Infant and Child Development, 14*(4), 365-381. doi: 10.1002/icd.399

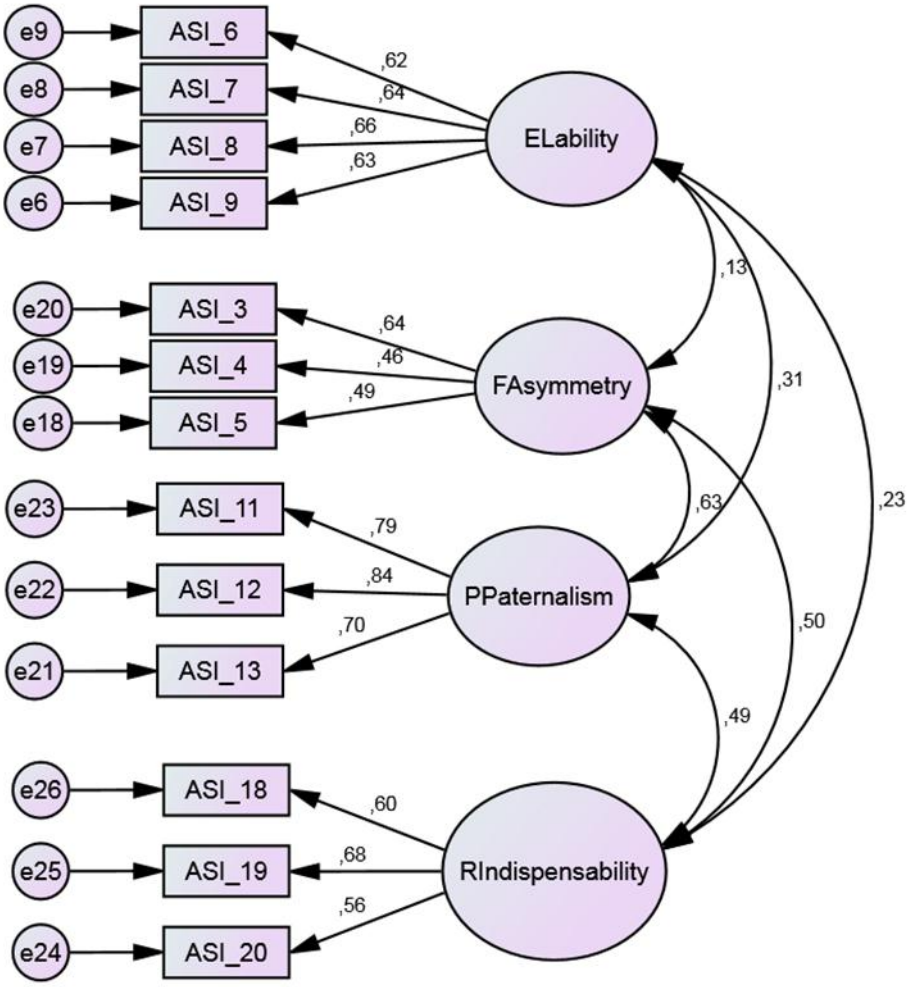
Viki, G. T., Abrams, D. & Hutchison, P. (2003). The "true" romantic: benevolent sexism and paternalistic chilvary. *Sex Roles, 49*(9-10), 533-537. Retrieved from: https://doi.org/10.1023/A:1025888824749

Williams, M. J., & Chen, S. (2014). When "mum's the boss": control over domestic decision making reduces women's interest in workplace power. *Group Processes & Intergroup Relations, 17*(4), 436-452. doi: 10.1177/1368430213497065

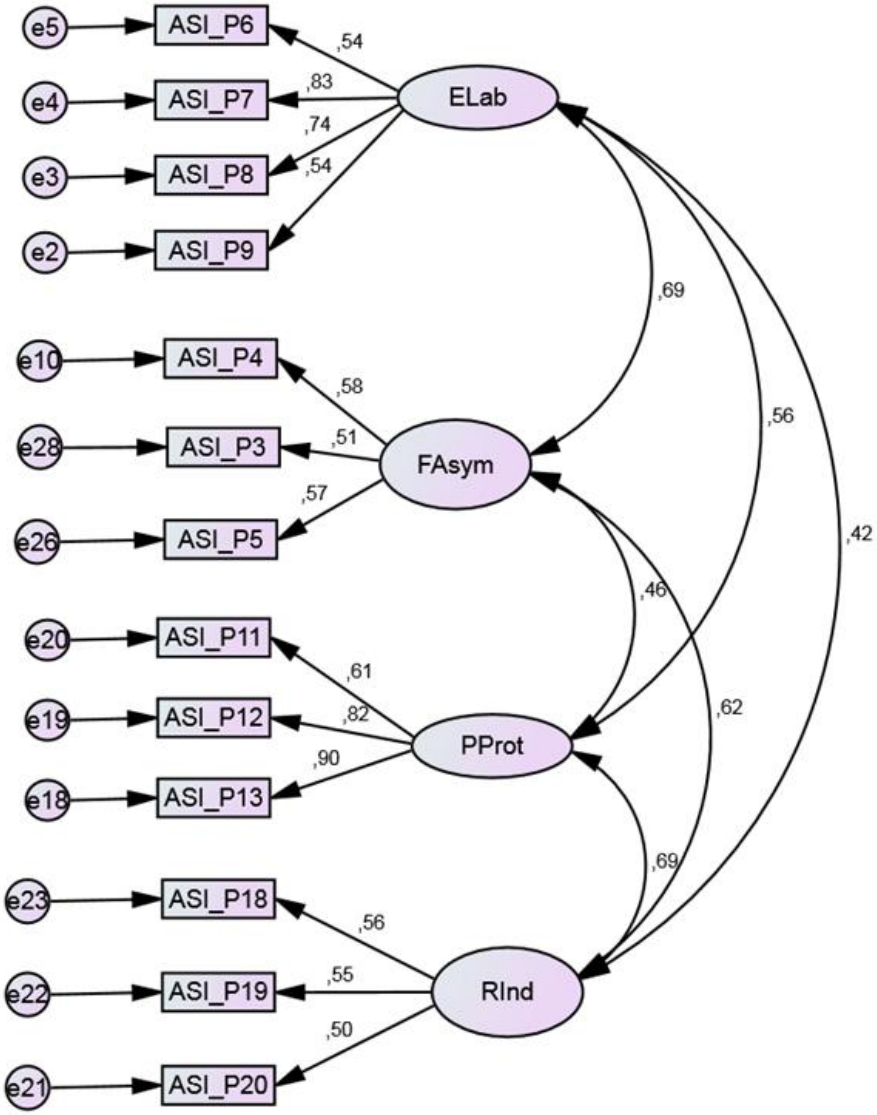
Zosuls, K. M., Martin, C. L., Ruble, D. N., Miller, C. F., Gaertner, B. M., England, D. e., & Hill, A. P. (2011). 'It's not that we hate you': understanding children's gender attitudes and expectancies about peer relationships. *British Journal of Developmental Psychology, 29*(2), 288-304. doi: 10.1111/j.2044-835X.2010.02023.x

Appendix

Appendix A – CFA of Ambivalent Sexism Inventory for children and adolescents



Appendix B – CFA of Ambivalent Sexism Inventory for parents



Appendix C – Informed Consent

CONSENTIMENTO PARA PARTICIPAÇÃO EM ESTUDO DE INVESTIGAÇÃO

Título do Estudo: As relações entre géneros ao longo da infância e adolescência
Instituição: ISCTE – Instituto Universitário de Lisboa (http://iscte-iul.pt/)
Centro de Investigação e Intervenção Social (CIS-IUL, http://www.cis.iscte-iul.pt/)
Investigadores Responsáveis:
Margarida Cavadas, Ricardo Borges Rodrigues, Leonor Pereira da Costa
Endereço eletrónico de contacto: mgcss@iscte.pt

Ex.mo/a Sr./a Encarregado/a de Educação,

Vimos por este meio solicitar autorização à participação do seu educando no estudo que se encontra a decorrer no Agrupamento de Escolas José Cardoso Pires relativo ao desenvolvimento das relações de género na infância e adolescência. Concretamente, estamos interessados em estudar a forma como as raparigas e os rapazes interagem e as suas perceções sobre os dois géneros, e de que forma essas relações e perceções se alteram com a idade. Este estudo é realizado pelo Centro de Investigação e Intervenção Social (CIS-IUL) do ISCTE-IUL e obteve a aprovação da Direção do Agrupamento. O estudo decorre no espaço da escola sob a forma de questionário aplicado em sala de aula, na presença de um(a) professor(a). Posteriormente será pedido que responda também a um breve questionário sobre o mesmo tema, com o objetivo de complementar as respostas do seu educando.

A participação de ambos neste estudo é voluntária e muito importante. Os dados recolhidos são confidenciais e serão analisados de forma agregada, isto é, os dados de cada participante não serão objeto de análise individual. Em qualquer momento pode solicitar o acesso aos dados do seu educando contactando Margarida Cavadas, através do endereço de e-mail mgcss@iscte.pt. Agradecemos, desde já, a sua atenção e o interesse que este estudo lhe possa merecer. Os nossos melhores cumprimentos.

A Equipa de Investigação (ISCTE-IUL / CIS-IUL)

Consentimento

Eu, Encarregado/a de Educação do/a Aluno/a _____,
li a informação que consta deste pedido de autorização, e autorizo ☐/ não autorizo ☐ a participação do meu educando no estudo acima apresentado, sobre o desenvolvimento das relações de género ao longo da infância e adolescência.
Assinatura do Encarregado de Educação: _____

Data: ___ / ___ / 2017, Localidade: _____

Appendix D – Children and adolescents' Questionnaire (Portuguese)

O questionário que irás realizar em seguida tem como objetivo saber qual a tua opinião sobre como é que as raparigas e os rapazes interagem e o que tu pensas sobre ser rapariga ou ser rapaz. O questionário é de participação voluntária e terá a duração de cerca de 30 minutos.

Não há respostas certas nem erradas, tudo o que queremos saber é a tua opinião por isso responde exatamente aquilo que tu pensas. Ninguém vai saber aquilo que responderes porque este questionário é totalmente anónimo e confidencial. As tuas respostas não serão avaliadas, não sendo atribuído nenhuma nota. Os dados serão analisados por mim e serão utilizados apenas para investigação científica.

O questionário é apresentado em frente e verso.

Lê as seguintes instruções com atenção.

Na tabela seguinte encontra-se uma lista de tarefas que são realizadas em casa. Quando fores mais crescida, tiveres a tua própria casa, e se viveres com alguém, como irão distribuir as tarefas em tua casa? Quem irá fazer cada uma das seguintes tarefas em tua casa? Tu? O teu marido/mulher? Ou outra pessoa? Assinala com uma cruz (X) a opção que achares mais verdadeira.

Por exemplo: Imagina que tens um cão. Quem irá levar o cão a passear?

Se achas que serás sempre tu apenas a levar o cão a passear, colocas uma cruz no quadrado "**Sempre eu**"

Se achas que será sempre o teu marido/mulher a levar o cão a passear, colocas uma cruz no quadrado "**Sempre o meu marido/ a minha mulher**".

Se achas que tanto tu como o teu marido ou a tua mulher irão levá-lo a passear, colocas uma cruz no quadrado "**Os dois igualmente**", o que significa que a tarefa será feita pelos dois.

Se achas que será outra pessoa da tua família, um vizinho ou um vizinho a passear o cão, colocas uma cruz no quadrado "**Outra pessoa da família/ amigo/ vizinho**".

	Sempre eu	**Sempre o meu marido/ a minha mulher**	**Os dois igualmente**	**Outra pessoa da família/ amigo/ vizinho**
Passear o cão.	☒	☒	☒	☒

Pensa agora para cada uma das tarefas seguintes. Quando fores mais crescida, e tiveres a tua própria casa, quem irá fazer cada uma das seguintes tarefas em tua casa? Lê cada frase com atenção antes de responderes. Assinala com uma cruz (X) a opção que achares que será a mais verdadeira.

	Sempre eu	**Sempre o meu marido/ a minha mulher**	**Os dois igualmente**	**Outra pessoa da família/ amigo/ vizinho**
Tratar da roupa.	☐	☐	☐	☐
Fazer pequenas reparações na casa.	☐	☐	☐	☐
Cuidar dos que ficam doentes.	☐	☐	☐	☐
Ir às compras (mercearia, supermercado).	☐	☐	☐	☐
Limpar a casa.	☐	☐	☐	☐
Preparar refeições.	☐	☐	☐	☐

Lê as seguintes instruções com atenção.

Na tabela seguinte serão apresentadas várias frases que representam várias formas como nós pensamos nos rapazes e nas raparigas. Assinala com uma cruz (X) quanto concordas com cada uma das seguintes frases.

Por exemplo. "A fruta é mais doce que o chocolate". Se não concordas nada que a fruta é mais doce que o chocolate colocas uma cruz no quadrado "Não concordo nada".

	Não concordo nada	Não concordo	Mais ou menos	Concordo	Concordo muito
1. A fruta é mais doce que o chocolate.	☒	☐	☐	☐	☐

Lê com atenção e pensa agora sobre cada uma das seguintes frases, e assinala com uma cruz (X) quanto concordas com cada uma.

	Não concordo nada	Não concordo	Mais ou menos	Concordo	Concordo muito
1. Os rapazes são mais fortes que as raparigas.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. Os rapazes devem saber quem são os amigos das namoradas.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. As raparigas devem ajudar mais a sua mãe em casa que os rapazes.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. As raparigas são melhores que os rapazes a fazer as tarefas domésticas.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. As raparigas dizem que são "raparigas" para serem tratadas de forma especial.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. Quando as raparigas perdem contra os rapazes num jogo, dizem que o jogo não foi justo.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. As raparigas ficam chateadas muito facilmente.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
8. As raparigas interpretam comentários inocentes como ofensivos.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9. As raparigas exageram os seus problemas.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
10. As raparigas querem ser tratadas como os rapazes para conseguirem fazer mais coisas que eles.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
11. À noite, os rapazes devem acompanhar as raparigas a casa, para que não lhes aconteça nada de mal.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
12. As raparigas devem ser acarinhadas e protegidas pelos rapazes.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

	Não concordo nada	Não concordo	Mais ou menos	Concordo	Concordo muito
13. Os rapazes devem cuidar das raparigas.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
14. Um bom namorado deve deixar de fazer coisas que gosta para agradar a sua namorada.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
15. Quando há um acidente as raparigas devem ser salvas antes dos rapazes.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
16. No geral, as raparigas são mais inteligentes que os rapazes.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
17. As raparigas são melhores que os rapazes a perceber como é que as pessoas se sentem.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
18. É importante para um rapaz encontrar uma rapariga com quem possa namorar.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
19. As pessoas só são felizes se namorarem.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
20. Um rapaz pode sentir-se sozinho se não namorar com uma rapariga.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Lê as seguintes instruções com atenção.

Na tabela seguinte serão apresentadas várias frases que representam várias formas como as raparigas podem pensar sobre si próprias e sobre os rapazes. Lê atentamente cada uma das frases e assinala com uma cruz (X) consoante pensas ou não da mesma maneira.

	Muito falso	Falso	Mais ou menos	Verdadeiro	Muito verdadeiro
1. Eu sinto que sou como todas as raparigas da minha idade.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. Eu sinto que me encaixo com outras raparigas.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. Eu penso que sou um bom exemplo de ser rapariga.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. Eu sinto que as coisas que gosto de fazer no meu tempo livre são semelhantes às coisas que a maioria das raparigas faz no seu tempo livre.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. Eu sinto que sou boa no mesmo tipo de coisas em que maioria das raparigas são boas.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

	Muito falso	Falso	Mais ou menos	Verdadeiro	Muito verdadeiro
6. Eu sinto que a minha personalidade é semelhante à personalidade da maioria das raparigas.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. Eu gosto de ser rapariga.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
8. Eu sinto-me irritada por ter de fazer algumas coisas só porque sou rapariga.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9. Eu sinto-me enganada por haverem coisas que não devo fazer só porque sou rapariga.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
10. Eu gostaria de poder fazer algumas coisas que, normalmente, apenas os rapazes fazem.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
11. Eu, às vezes, penso que pode ser mais divertido ser um rapaz.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
12. Eu não acho justo que algumas coisas sejam apenas para rapazes.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
13. Eu penso que as raparigas que conheço ficariam chateadas se eu quisesse brincar com rapazes.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
14. Eu penso que os meus pais ficariam chateados se eu quisesse aprender alguma atividade que, normalmente, apenas os rapazes fazem.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
15. Eu penso que os meus pais ficariam chateados se eu quisesse aprender a pescar ou a caçar.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
16. Eu fico muito irritada se me diz que estou a agir como um rapaz.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
17. Eu penso que as outras raparigas ficariam chateadas se eu quisesse aprender alguma atividade que, normalmente, apenas os rapazes fazem.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
18.Eu penso que as outras raparigas ficariam chateadas se eu quisesse aprender a pescar ou a caçar.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
19.Eu penso que os meus pais iriam importar-se que eu quisesse aprender a arranjar carros e bicicletas.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
20. Eu gosto de raparigas que, às vezes, fazem coisas que apenas os rapazes fazem normalmente.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
21. Eu penso que os meus pais ficariam chateados se eu quisesse brincar com os brinquedos dos rapazes.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
22. Eu penso que as raparigas que conheço iriam importar-se que eu quisesse aprender a arranjar carros e bicicletas.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

Lê as seguintes instruções com atenção.

Na tabela seguinte serão apresentadas várias frases que representam várias formas como as raparigas da tua idade podem pensar. Lê atentamente cada uma das frases e assinala com uma cruz (X) consoante pensas ou não da mesma maneira.

	Muito falso	**Falso**	**Mais ou menos**	**Verdadeiro**	**Muito verdadeiro**
1. Eu penso que as raparigas são, no geral, competentes.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. Eu penso que as raparigas são, no geral, inteligentes.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
3. Eu penso que as raparigas são, no geral, confiantes.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. Eu penso que as raparigas são, no geral, competitivas.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
5. Eu penso que as raparigas são, no geral, independentes.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. Eu penso que as raparigas são, no geral, sinceras.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. Eu penso que as raparigas são, no geral, amigáveis.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
8. Eu penso que as raparigas são, no geral, amáveis.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9. Eu penso que as raparigas são, no geral, tolerantes.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
10. Eu penso que os rapazes são, no geral, competentes.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
11. Eu penso que os rapazes são, no geral, inteligentes.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
12. Eu penso que os rapazes são, no geral, confiantes.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
13. Eu penso que os rapazes são, no geral, competitivos.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
14. Eu penso que os rapazes são, no geral, independentes.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
15. Eu penso que os rapazes são, no geral, sinceros.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
16. Eu penso que os rapazes são, no geral, amigáveis.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
17. Eu penso que os rapazes são, no geral, amáveis.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
18. Eu penso que os rapazes são, no geral, tolerantes.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

1. Sexo: ☐ Feminino ☐ Masculino

2. Idade: ☐☐

3. Ano escolar atual: _____

4. Nacionalidade/Grupo Étnico: Por favor, indica a qual ou quais dos seguintes grupos consideras pertencer. Coloca uma cruz (x). Escolhe todos os grupos a que achas que pertences.

☐ Portugueses	☐ Indianos	☐ Caboverdianos
☐ Angolanos	☐ Moçambicanos	☐ Ucranianos
☐ Brasileiros	☐ Ciganos	☐ Guineenses
☐ Outro (escrever): _____		☐ Romenos

5. Agregado familiar: Quantas pessoas vivem em tua casa? ☐☐

6.Quantas irmãs tens? ☐☐ Quantos irmãos tens? ☐☐

7. Diz-me agora, quem vive em tua casa? Coloca uma cruz (X) em todas as que viverem em tua casa.

☐ Pai	☐ Mãe	☐ Tio
☐ Avô Paterno	☐ Avô Materno	☐ Tia
☐ Avó Paterna	☐ Avó Materna	☐ Primo
☐ Irmã	☐ Irmão	☐ Prima
☐ Outro (escrever): _____		

8. Qual é a nacionalidade da tua mãe? Assinala com uma cruz (X).

☐ Portuguesa	☐ Indiana	☐ Caboverdiana
☐ Angolana	☐ Moçambicana	☐ Ucraniana
☐ Brasileira	☐ Romena	☐ Guineense
☐ Outro (escrever): _____		

9. Qual é a nacionalidade do teu pai? Assinala com uma cruz (X).

☐ Português	☐ Indiano	☐ Caboverdiano
☐ Angolano	☐ Moçambicano	☐ Ucraniano
☐ Brasileiro	☐ Romeno	☐ Guineense
☐ Outro (escrever): _____		

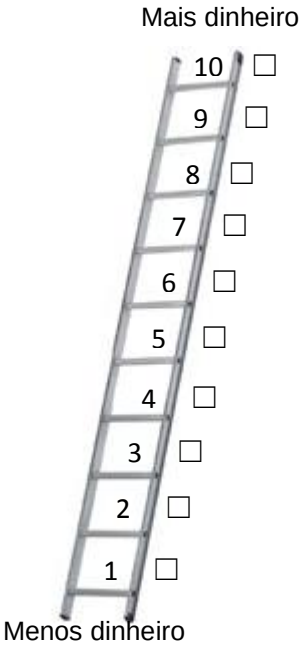
11. Onde trabalha a tua mãe? _____

E o que é que ela lá faz? _____
_____.

12. Onde trabalha o teu pai? _____

E o que é que ele lá faz? _____
_____.

13. De uma forma geral existem algumas pessoas que têm mais dinheiro e outras que tê menos dinheiro. A escada apresentada em seguida representa as pessoas que têm mais dinheiro no topo e as pessoas com menos dinheiro na base. Em que degrau da escada achas que te encontras atualmente? Assinala com uma cruz (X) à frente do degrau.



Por favor, verifica se respondeste a todas as perguntas.

Obrigada pela tua participação!

Appendix E – Parents' Questionnaire (Portuguese)

O questionário que irá realizar em seguida insere-se numa investigação mais alargada cujo objetivo é estudar a forma como as raparigas e os rapazes interagem e as suas perceções sobre os dois géneros, e de que forma essas relações e perceções se alteram com a idade. As suas respostas a este questionário servirão para complementar as respostas do seu educando nos questionários realizados em ambiente escolar. O questionário é de participação voluntária e terá a duração de cerca 10 minutos.

É fundamental para o sucesso da investigação que responda com o máximo de honestidade, com a garantia que a sua participação é totalmente anónima e confidencial. Os dados resultantes desta investigação poderão apenas ser usados para propósitos académicos ou de divulgação científica em revistas especializadas e não serão objeto de avaliação individual.

Qualquer dúvida posterior poderá ser esclarecida contactando Margarida Cavadas, através do endereço de e-mail mgcss@iscte.pt.

Leia as seguintes instruções com atenção.

Na tabela seguinte serão apresentadas várias frases que representam a forma como pensamos nos homens e nas mulheres. Por favor, assinale com uma cruz (X) quanto concorda com cada uma das seguintes frases.

Por exemplo. "A fruta é mais doce que o chocolate." Se discordasse fortemente que a fruta é mais doce que o chocolate colocaria uma cruz no quadrado "Não concordo nada".

	Não concordo nada	**Não concordo**	**Mais ou menos**	**Concordo**	**Concordo muito**
1. A fruta é mais doce que o chocolate.	☒	☐	☐	☐	☐

Leia com atenção e pense agora sobre cada uma das seguintes frases, e assinale com uma cruz (X) quanto concorda com cada uma.

	Não concordo nada	**Não concordo**	**Mais ou menos**	**Concordo**	**Concordo muito**
1. Os homens são mais fortes que as mulheres.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
2. Os homens devem saber com quem as suas esposas se relacionam.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

	Não concordo nada	Não concordo	Mais ou menos	Concordo	Concordo muito
3. As mulheres devem ajudar mais a sua mãe em casa que os homens.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
4. As mulheres são melhores que os homens a desempenhar tarefas domésticas.	☐	☒	☐	☐	☐
5. As mulheres utilizam o facto de serem “mulheres” para serem tratadas de forma especial.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
6. Quando as mulheres perdem contra os homens, numa competição, dizem que esta não foi justa.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
7. As mulheres ficam ofendidas muito facilmente.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
8. As mulheres interpretam comentários inocentes como sexistas.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
9. As mulheres exageram os seus problemas.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
10. As mulheres, com a desculpa de quererem ser tratadas da mesma forma que os homens, pretendem ter mais poder que eles.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
11. À noite, os homens devem acompanhar as mulheres a casa para que não lhes aconteça nada de mal.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
12. As mulheres devem ser acarinhadas e protegidas pelos homens.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
13. Os homens devem cuidar das mulheres.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
14. Um bom marido deve estar disposto a sacrificar coisas que gostaria para agradar a sua esposa.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
15. Quando há um desastre as mulheres devem ser salvas antes dos homens.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
16. No geral, as mulheres são mais inteligentes que os homens.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
17. As mulheres, comparadas com os homens, são melhores a perceber como é que as pessoas se sentem.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
18. É importante para um homem encontrar uma mulher com quem namorar/casar.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
19. As pessoas só são felizes se estiverem num relacionamento amoroso.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐
20. Um homem pode sentir-se incompleto se não tiver um relacionamento com uma mulher.	☐	☐	☐	☐	☐

2. Género: ☐ Feminino ☐ Masculino

3. Idade: ☐☐

4. Estado civil:

☐ Casado(a)

☐ Solteiro(a)

☐ Divorciado(a)

☐ Unido(a) de facto

☐ Viúvo(a)

5. Nacionalidade: Por favor, indique a qual ou quais dos seguintes grupos considera pertencer. Selecione, com um (x) no máximo 2 grupos.

☐	Portugueses	☐	Indianos
☐	Angolanos	☐	Moçambicanos
☐	Brasileiros	☐	Ciganos
☐	Caboverdianos	☐	Ucranianos
☐	Guineenses	☐	Romenos
☐	Outro (escrever): _____		

6. Qual o último grau de escolaridade concluído?

☐ 1º Ciclo do Ensino Básico

☐ 2º Ciclo do Ensino Básico

☐ 3º Ciclo do Ensino Básico

☐ Secundário

☐ Licenciatura ou mais

7. Profissão: _____

8. Agregado familiar: Quantas pessoas vivem em sua casa? ☐

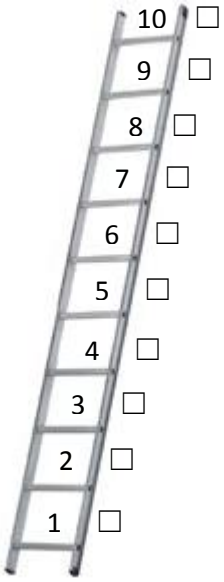
9. Grau de parentesco com o Educando:

☐	Filho	☐	Filha
☐	Neto	☐	Neta
☐	Sobrinho	☐	Sobrinha
☐	Outro (escrever): _____		

9. Nacionalidade da mãe: _____

10. Nacionalidade do pai: _____

11. De uma forma geral umas pessoas estão no topo da nossa sociedade (com um maior estatuto social e económico) e outras estão na base (com menor estatuto social e económico). A escada apresentada em seguida representa o topo (10) e a base (1). Em que degrau da escada acha que se encontra atualmente? Assinale com uma cruz (X) à frente do degrau.



Obrigada pela sua participação!